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The purpose of the *Kuveza neKuumba - Zimbabwe Ezekiel Guti University Journal of Design, Innovative Thinking and Practice* is to provide a forum for design and innovative solutions to daily challenges in communities.

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Agropolitan-based Area Development: Linking Rural Production Spaces to Urban Regional Markets

EDSON CHAGWEDERA¹ AND GIFT MANHIMANZI²

Abstract

To integrate rural production areas with urban regional markets, this study investigates the idea of agropolitan-based area development. This approach's possible advantages, difficulties and consequences for sustainable development are all examined. The study identifies important ideas and arguments around agropolitan development through a thorough examination of literature and case study analysis. The case studies of agropolitan-based area development in Thailand, Indonesia, Vietnam, Kenya and Brazil are employed and provide valuable insights into the practical implementation and outcomes of this concept. These case studies on agropolitan development highlight the diverse approaches, challenges and impacts of this concept in different contexts. These examples demonstrate the potential of agropolitan-based area development in enhancing rural-urban linkages, promoting economic growth and addressing social and environmental challenges. The results underline the necessity of integrated policies and approaches that close the gap between rural and urban areas, promote economic development and consider social and environmental issues.

Keywords: sustainability, market integration, community welfare, economic development, livelihood diversification; food security

INTRODUCTION

The marketing system of agropolitan production is closely linked to regional growth centres, regional markets and

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metropolitan cities that serve as national market centres (Surya, *et al.*, 2021). These centres have a global orientation and play a significant role in regional development policies and practices. However, the relevance of these policies has been questioned due to the emergence of a new economic geography influenced by globalisation. Many countries are now adopting a more democratic and decentralised approach to planning and implementing development activities. Additionally, large cities have transformed into manufacturing hubs with modern transportation systems, connecting urban consumers with rural areas and villages. This interdependence highlights the importance of a production marketing system for urban communities.

The concept of agropolitan-based area development has gained significant attention as a strategy to bridge the gap between rural production spaces and urban regional markets (Rifani *et al.*, 2020; Surya, *et al.*, 2021). This approach aims to create integrated and sustainable development models that maximise the potential of rural areas, while meeting the demands of urban centres. By linking rural and urban economies, agropolitan-based area development seeks to address issues of poverty, food security and rural-urban migration (Newman and Page, 2017; Ahmad and Saleh, 2019; Rifani *et al.*, 2020).

The current problem lies in existing disparities between rural and urban areas which often result in economic and social imbalances. Rural regions face challenges such as limited market access, inadequate infrastructure and a lack of opportunities for economic growth (Sakir, 2017). On the other hand, urban centres experience strain on resources, overcrowding and increased pressure on local food systems. Agropolitan-based area development offers a potential solution by creating a symbiotic relationship between these two areas, leveraging the strengths of both to drive sustainable development and improve the livelihoods of rural communities (Ahmad and Saleh 2019, Surya, *et al.*, 2021).

This article aims to explore the concept of agropolitan-based area development in depth, examining its potential benefits, challenges and implications for sustainable development. It

provides a comprehensive analysis of the current literature on the subject, highlighting major debates and identifying any gaps or missing links in the scholarship. Additionally, the article presents case studies that illustrate the practical implementation of agropolitan-based area development, analysing the outcomes and lessons learned. The findings of this study contribute to the existing knowledge and provide insights for policy-makers, researchers and practitioners involved in rural and urban development planning and decision-making processes.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework of this study revolves around several key concepts that define the understanding and implementation of agropolitan-based area development. These concepts provide a foundation for examining the linkages between rural production spaces and urban regional markets and the broader implications for sustainable development. The word "agro" refers to agriculture and the word "politan" refers to a city. An agropolitan city is an agricultural town that thrives on agriculture and contributes to the agricultural activities of its surroundings. Regarding the term "agropolitan", Friedman and Douglas coined it in 1975 in response to the then existing development divide between the city and the countryside. People-centred development, a development paradigm that emerged at the time, influenced this idea (Sitorus, 2015). Agropolitan-based area development refers to a comprehensive approach that integrates rural and urban areas to foster economic growth, social development and environmental sustainability (Townsend *et al.*, 2019; Surya, *et al.* 2021). It emphasises the development of agro-industrial activities, value chains and market linkages that connect rural producers with urban consumers. This concept recognises the importance of leveraging the agricultural potential of rural areas and simultaneously addressing the needs and demands of urban markets.

Rural-urban linkages play a crucial role in agropolitan-based area development. These linkages encompass the economic, social and institutional connections between rural and urban areas, facilitating the flow of goods, services, capital and

knowledge (Syarifudin and Ishak, 2020). They enable rural producers to access urban markets, technologies and resources, while urban centres benefit from a diversified and sustainable supply of agricultural products. Effective rural-urban linkages can lead to increased income generation, job opportunities, improved livelihoods for rural communities and enhanced food security and urban resilience.

The concept of sustainable development is fundamental to agropolitan-based area development. It emphasises the integration of economic growth, social progress and environmental protection (Ahmad and Saleh, 2019). In the context of this study, sustainable development entails ensuring that the development of rural production spaces and their integration with urban regional markets are environmentally sound, socially inclusive and economically viable in the long term. It involves balancing economic profitability with environmental conservation, promoting social equity and inclusiveness and fostering resilient and adaptive systems. The successful implementation of agropolitan-based area development requires the formulation and implementation of integrated policies and strategies (Sakir, Tikson et al., 2017). These policies should holistically address the multi-dimensional aspects of development, considering economic, social and environmental factors. Integrated policies promote coordination and collaboration among various stakeholders, including government agencies, private sector entities, civil society organisations and local communities. They help align objectives, harmonise regulations and promote synergies between rural and urban development efforts, enhancing the effectiveness and sustainability of agropolitan-based area development initiatives.

The community predominantly engages in three types of businesses: (i) agricultural food crops; (ii) horticultural commodities; and (iii) plantation commodities. The concept of agropolitan-based area development, which focuses on rural agribusiness, aims to address regional development imbalances by recognising cities as centres of economic growth and rural areas as centres of agricultural activity. However, the current interaction between these two regions is not yet optimal or mutually beneficial in most countries, as highlighted by Surya

(2021). Several factors contribute to this situation, including the stagnant economic productivity of community businesses, excessive burdens placed on urban areas as market destinations and the presence of social problems, poverty and environmental degradation. These development gaps exist at various spatial scales and can be utilised as indicators of regional development inequality, as discussed by Hansen (2018) and Surya (2021).

Figure 1 shows how the agropolitan-based area development model achieves the goal of linking rural production spaces to urban regional markets.

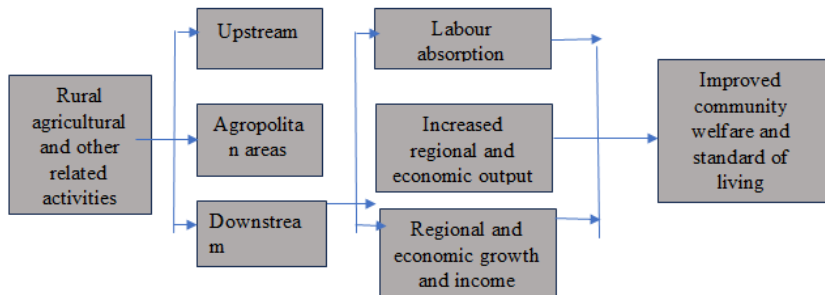


Figure 1: *Conceptual Framework* (Authors elaboration)

Figure 1 illustrates that the sustainable development of agropolitan-based agribusiness areas in rural regions presents a potential solution for promoting interaction between rural areas, which serve as the foundation for agricultural production and cities, which act as marketing centres. The integration process encompasses the flow of agricultural commodities from upstream to downstream subsystems, as analysed by Latif *et al.* (2022). This integration involves establishing synergistic and productive linkages between upstream and downstream business activities (vertical integration) and fostering connections between regions, sectors even different commodities, as highlighted by Santoso (2021). By implementing harmonised upstream-downstream policies, it is anticipated that a favourable business environment will be created, leading to increased productivity, quality and sustainability of agricultural production. Moreover, these

policies are expected to boost the volume and enhance the quality of agricultural product processing industries. The foundation of this integration is characterised by cooperation, collaboration, information sharing, trust, partnership, technology deployment and a transition from individual processes to an integrated value chain.

The process will have an impact on increasing regional competitiveness, economic value addition, improving community welfare through labour absorption, increasing economic output and increasing economic and regional growth and income.

By considering the above key concepts, this study provides a comprehensive understanding of agropolitan-based area development and its potential for fostering sustainable rural and urban development. These concepts provide a framework for analysing the challenges, opportunities and implications of this approach, guiding the exploration of relevant literature and case studies in subsequent sections of the article.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Agropolitan-based area development is situated within a broader contextual framework that encompasses rural-urban dynamics, sustainable development and regional economic integration. This literature review explores how the concept is positioned within this framework, identifies major debates and highlights missing links in the scholarship.

RURAL-URBAN DYNAMICS

Rural and urban areas are interdependent and interact, as highlighted by the literature on rural-urban dynamics. Recognising the interdependence of rural and urban areas, instead of seeing them as distinct entities, is reflected in agropolitan-based area development. The flow of capital, labour and goods between rural production zones and metropolitan regional markets has been studied by various academics (Agergaard *et al.*, 2009; Montalvo, 2019; Peng *et al.*, 2019). Discussions in this field revolve around the best ways to take advantage of these connections to accomplish goals related to sustainable development. Some scholars emphasise more on

value chain development (Sitorus *et al.*, 2015; Sakir *et al.*, 2017; Surya *et al.*, 2021), while inclusive governance frameworks that empower rural people are emphasised by others (Friedmann, 1981; Buang, *et al.*, 2011; Blay-Palmer *et al.*, 2017; Syarifudin and Ishak, 2020; He and Zhang, 2022).

SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Agropolitan-based area development aligns with the principles of sustainable development which seek to balance economic growth, social equity and environmental protection (Syarifudin and Ishak, 2020). The literature explores how this approach contributes to sustainable rural and urban development by addressing poverty, food security and environmental degradation. However, there are debates regarding the trade-offs and synergies between economic growth and environmental sustainability. Scholars emphasise the importance of adopting integrated strategies that promote resource efficiency, climate resilience and social inclusiveness. Additionally, there is need for further research on social dimensions of sustainability, such as gender equity and social justice, within the context of agropolitan-based area development (Park *et al.*, 2000; Wirahayu *et al.*, 2022).

REGIONAL ECONOMIC INTEGRATION

Agropolitan-based area development has implications for regional economic integration, particularly in the context of market access and trade. The literature highlights the potential benefits of connecting rural producers with urban regional markets, such as increased income generation and employment opportunities. Scholars examine the role of agropolitan development in enhancing regional competitiveness, reducing income disparities and promoting regional value chains. However, there are debates surrounding the potential risks of market concentration and inequitable distribution of benefits (Ahmad, 2019; Surya *et al.*, 2021).

MISSING LINKS IN THE SCHOLARSHIP

While the literature on agropolitan-based area development has made significant contributions, several missing links warrant further exploration. There is need for more empirical studies that provide in-depth analyses of successful cases and lessons

learned. This can help identify best practices, challenges and contextual factors that influence the outcomes of agropolitan-based area development initiatives. There also exists a gap in understanding the social and cultural dimensions of agropolitan development, including issues of social inclusion, cultural preservation and community empowerment. There is limited research on the scalability and replicability of agropolitan-based area development models across different contexts. Future studies should examine the transferability of successful cases and explore adaptation strategies in diverse socio-economic and environmental settings.

The literature reviewed reveals that agropolitan-based area development is situated within the broader context of rural-urban dynamics, sustainable development and regional economic integration. It highlights the need for integrated strategies, inclusive governance and attention to social and cultural dimensions. The debates centre on optimising rural-urban linkages, balancing economic growth with environmental sustainability and ensuring equitable distribution of benefits. The missing links in the scholarship call for more empirical studies, a deeper understanding of social and cultural dimensions and research on scalability and replicability.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study used a qualitative methodology with a leaning towards the case study research design since the goal of the study was to provide a comprehensive concept of agropolitan-based area development. Amaechi *et al.* (2022) observe that the case study research design looks into specific cases to give a detailed picture of the phenomenon under study. There is need for a clear picture of the implementation and outcomes of the agropolitan-based area development initiatives. To craft the discourse for this study, secondary data collection, through an analysis of journals from Google Scholar, was engaged. The study used a narrative data analysis method to analyse the study findings as guided by the research objectives.

FINDINGS

This section presents the findings of the study, focusing on the analysis of selected case studies that illustrate the practical

implementation and outcomes of agropolitan-based area development. The selection of case studies on agropolitan development in Thailand, Indonesia, Vietnam, Kenya and Brazil was based on several reasons. Firstly, these countries have notable and well-documented initiatives in agropolitan development, making them significant case studies in the field of rural development. They have received international recognition and have been thoroughly studied by scholars, policy-makers and practitioners.

The success and impact of the agropolitan approach in these countries have been remarkable. The initiatives led to increased income generation, employment opportunities, improved quality of life for rural communities and the preservation of cultural heritage. These positive outcomes make them compelling case studies for understanding the potential benefits of agropolitan development. Moreover, these case studies have demonstrated replicability, as the agropolitan development strategies implemented in these countries have been adapted and replicated in various regions globally. The successful implementation and the lessons learned from these experiences have served as inspiring examples for other countries, making them influential cases to study.

The agropolitan development strategies in these case studies encompassed diverse elements that include the identification of unique local products, capacity-building, marketing assistance and infrastructure development. This comprehensive approach provides valuable insights into the multidimensional aspects of agropolitan development and sheds light on the interplay between economic, social and cultural factors. Additionally, the challenges encountered during the implementation of these agropolitan development strategies, such as limited access to finance, inadequate infrastructure and sustained market demand, are also highlighted. Understanding these challenges and the strategies employed to address them can provide valuable lessons for future agropolitan development initiatives. Overall, the case studies of agropolitan development in these countries exemplify how the implementation of a comprehensive

rural development strategy can yield positive outcomes for rural communities. They offer insights into the potential benefits, challenges.

The case studies provide insights into the diverse approaches, potential benefits, challenges and key considerations for policy-makers and practitioners seeking to promote sustainable development in rural areas. These cases were selected to have an appreciation of agropolitan development in some of the fast-growing economies across the world that are moving towards sustainable development in rural areas. These countries have focused on improving the effectiveness of rural products, thus bringing about infrastructural development strengthening market linkages, hence allowing agro-entrepreneurship in rural areas.

THE CASE OF AGROPOLITAN DEVELOPMENT IN THAILAND

The Thai government introduced the "One Tambon, One Product" (OTOP) programme in the early 2000s, which aimed at promoting rural development by identifying and supporting unique products from each administrative sub-district (*tambon*) (Natsuda, *et al.*, 2012). The OTOPT programme was a key component of the broader agropolitan development strategy that sought to create sustainable rural economies and reduce urban-rural disparities.

The agropolitan approach in Thailand focused on enhancing the competitiveness of rural products, improving infrastructure and strengthening market linkages. Local communities were encouraged to identify and develop their unique products, such as handicrafts, textiles and agricultural goods. The government provided support through capacity-building, marketing assistance and infrastructure development.

The outcomes of the agropolitan development initiative in Thailand were significant. It led to increased income-generation, employment opportunities and improved quality of life for rural communities. The promotion of local products and the establishment of market linkages helped rural producers access urban markets, leading to higher prices and increased market

visibility. The agropolitan approach also contributed to the preservation of traditional knowledge and cultural heritage, as local communities were empowered to showcase their unique products and skills.

However, there were challenges in the implementation of the agropolitan development strategy. Limited access to finance, inadequate infrastructure and a lack of technical expertise, were identified as major barriers. Additionally, sustaining market demand for rural products and ensuring the long-term viability of agropolitan initiatives remained ongoing challenges. Despite these challenges, the case of agropolitan development in Thailand demonstrates the potential of this approach in enhancing rural-urban linkages and promoting sustainable development.

THE UDON THANI FRUIT CORRIDOR

The Udon Thani Fruit Corridor is an agricultural development project located in Udon Thani Province, Thailand, focused on fruit production. It aims at creating a specialised fruit production zone, enhancing productivity and promoting value-added processing and marketing of fruits (Supatn, 2012). The corridor leverages the region's favourable climate and fertile soil to cultivate a variety of fruits such as *durian*, *longan* and *pomelo*. Key features of the Udon Thani Fruit Corridor include the establishment of orchards, infrastructure development, research and development support and the formation of farmer cooperatives. The project aims at increasing farmers' income, creating employment opportunities and fostering economic growth in the region. Challenges such as water management, pests and diseases and market access need to be addressed for the sustained success of the Udon Thani Fruit Corridor. Continued investment in infrastructure, technology adoption, farmer training and market integration efforts will be crucial for the corridor's long-term viability and competitiveness.

THE CASE OF AGROPOLITAN DEVELOPMENT IN BRAZIL

The Brazilian government launched the "Integrated Territorial Development" (ITD) programme, which aimed at promoting territorial development by strengthening rural-urban linkages and fostering value chains in selected regions (Levidow *et al.*,

2021). The ITD programme sought to address issues of poverty, rural migration and food security through an integrated and participatory approach.

The agropolitan development strategy in Brazil focused on diversifying rural economies, improving infrastructure and promoting inclusive governance structures. It aimed at integrating small-scale producers into value chains, strengthening local agro-industries and enhancing access to markets. The ITD programme emphasised the involvement of local communities, civil society organisations and public-private partnerships in decision-making processes and implementation. The outcomes of the agropolitan development programme in Brazil were promising. It led to increased agricultural productivity, income-generation and employment opportunities in rural areas. The integration of small-scale producers into value chains enabled them to access higher-value markets and achieve economies of scale. The agropolitan approach also contributed to environmental sustainability by promoting sustainable agricultural practices and natural resource management.

However, challenges were encountered during the implementation of the agropolitan development programme in Brazil. Issues such as land tenure, access to credit and market volatility were identified as significant barriers. In some cases, power dynamics and conflicts emerged between different stakeholders, highlighting the importance of inclusive governance structures and conflict resolution mechanisms. Despite these challenges, the case of agropolitan development in Brazil demonstrates the potential of this approach in fostering rural-urban linkages, reducing poverty and promoting sustainable development.

THE BRAZIL FAMILY FARMING DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

The Brazil Family Farming Development Programme (PRONAF) is a significant initiative aimed at supporting family farming and rural development in Brazil. Launched in 1995, PRONAF focuses on improving the livelihoods of family farmers, reducing rural poverty and enhancing agricultural productivity (Mulyana, 2014). The programme operates through various strategies,

including targeted credit facilities, technical assistance, agricultural insurance and market access facilitation. PRONAF has demonstrated positive impacts such as poverty reduction, increased productivity, improved food security and empowerment of family farmers. However, challenges remain, including limited programme reach, access to markets, climate change resilience and policy coherence. Overall, PRONAF serves as an essential case study in promoting sustainable family farming and inclusive rural development in Brazil.

KENYA'S PERI-URBAN AGRIBUSINESS CLUSTERS

Kenya's peri-urban agribusiness clusters have emerged as a strategic approach to connect rural agricultural production with urban market demand. These clusters are located near urban centres and encompass diverse agricultural activities, value addition and agro-processing (Akkoyunlu, 2015). The benefits of peri-urban agribusiness clusters include improved market access, employment generation, enhanced food security and increased income through value addition. However, challenges such as land-use pressures, infrastructure development, access to finance, market dynamics and climate change resilience, need to be addressed. To ensure their success, supportive policies, investment in infrastructure, access to finance, capacity-building and climate adaptation strategies are necessary. Kenya's peri-urban agribusiness clusters serve as a valuable model for promoting sustainable agriculture and economic development, bridging the gap between rural and urban sectors.

VIETNAM'S MEKONG DELTA VEGETABLE AGROPOLIS

Vietnam's Mekong Delta Vegetable Agropolis is an agricultural development concept focused on the production of vegetables in the Mekong Delta region. The agropolis aims at enhancing agricultural productivity, promoting sustainable practices and meeting the increasing demand for vegetables, both domestically and internationally (Fang *et al.*, 2020). The key features of the Mekong Delta Vegetable Agropolis include the utilisation of advanced farming techniques, adoption of climate-smart practices and establishment of value chains to facilitate market access. This initiative seeks to boost the income of farmers, improve food security and contribute to the economic

growth of the region. However, challenges such as water management, land degradation and market integration need to be addressed for the successful implementation of the Mekong Delta Vegetable Agropolis. Efforts to strengthen infrastructure, enhance research and development and promote collaboration among stakeholders will be crucial for the long-term sustainability and prosperity of the agropolis.

INDONESIA'S AGROPOLITAN AND MINAPOLITAN DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

Indonesia's Agropolitan and Minapolitan Development Programme aims at promoting rural development and economic growth by focusing on the development of agribusiness and fisheries sectors. Agropolitan refers to the development of integrated agricultural-based communities, while Minapolitan focuses on the development of integrated fishery-based communities. The programme aims at transforming rural areas by modernising agricultural practices, improving infrastructure, providing access to finance and technology and facilitating market linkages (Handayani, *et al.*, 2021). The goals of the programme include poverty reduction, increased productivity, job-creation and food security. Challenges such as limited access to resources, inadequate infrastructure and market constraints need to be addressed for the successful implementation of the Agropolitan and Minapolitan Development Programme. Continued investment, policy support and collaboration among stakeholders are crucial for the sustainable development and prosperity of rural communities in Indonesia.

Overall, the case studies of agropolitan development in Thailand, Indonesia, Vietnam, Kenya and Brazil highlight the diverse approaches, challenges and impacts of this concept in different contexts. These examples demonstrate the potential of agropolitan-based area development in enhancing rural-urban linkages, promoting economic growth and addressing social and environmental challenges. However, challenges such as limited access to finance, inadequate infrastructure and governance issues need to be addressed to ensure the long-term sustainability and scalability of agropolitan initiatives. The findings of these case studies contribute to the understanding

of the practical implementation of agropolitan-based area development and provide insights for policy-makers, researchers and practitioners involved in rural and urban development planning.

DISCUSSION

The findings from the case studies of agropolitan-based area development in Thailand, Indonesia, Vietnam, Kenya and Brazil provide valuable insights into practical implementation and outcomes of this concept. The discussion assesses whether the theory and findings are converging, diverging or bringing new evidence and discusses the implications for policy and practice.

Overall, the findings from the case studies align with the theoretical foundations of agropolitan-based area development, demonstrating convergence between theory and practice. The case studies illustrate the potential of this approach in enhancing rural-urban linkages, promoting economic growth and addressing social and environmental challenges. The emphasis on value chain development, market access and infrastructure improvement in both cases aligns with the theoretical underpinnings of agropolitan development. Furthermore, the empowerment of local communities, the preservation of cultural heritage and the focus on participatory governance reflect the principles of sustainable development and social inclusion embedded in the theoretical framework.

Nevertheless, the case studies also reveal some divergences and nuances that provide new evidence and insights. For instance, the challenges encountered in the implementation of agropolitan development initiatives, such as limited access to finance, inadequate infrastructure and governance issues, highlight the need for tailored approaches that address specific contexts and constraints of each region. Additionally, the case studies shed light on the importance of addressing social and cultural dimensions alongside economic considerations. The preservation of traditional knowledge, cultural heritage and community empowerment emerged as critical factors for the success and sustainability of agropolitan-based area development.

The implications of these findings for policy and practice are significant. Firstly, policy-makers and practitioners need to recognise the importance of context-specific approaches and tailor interventions to address the specific challenges and opportunities of each region. A one-size-fits-all approach may not be effective in achieving sustainable outcomes. Secondly, the findings highlight the need for comprehensive and integrated strategies that encompass economic, social and environmental dimensions. Agropolitan-based area development should not focus solely on economic growth, but also aim to promote social inclusion, cultural preservation and environmental sustainability. Thirdly, governance structures need to be inclusive, participatory and responsive to the needs and aspirations of local communities. Engaging stakeholders from different sectors and ensuring their active involvement in decision-making processes can enhance the effectiveness and sustainability of agropolitan initiatives.

In conclusion, the findings from the case studies of agropolitan-based area development in Thailand, Indonesia, Vietnam, Kenya and Brazil demonstrate convergence between theory and practice, while also providing new evidence and insights. The case studies highlight the potential of agropolitan development in enhancing rural-urban linkages, promoting economic growth and addressing social and environmental challenges. However, challenges such as limited access to finance, inadequate infrastructure and governance issues need to be addressed through tailored approaches. The findings underscore the importance of comprehensive and integrated strategies that encompass economic, social and environmental dimensions and the need for inclusive governance structures. These implications should inform policy and practice in the design and implementation of agropolitan-based area development initiatives.

RESULTS

IDEAL SCHEMATIC AGROPOLITAN DEVELOPMENT MODEL

For the whole ADVOCACY made in this article, Figure 2 provides an ideal schematic agropolitan development model.

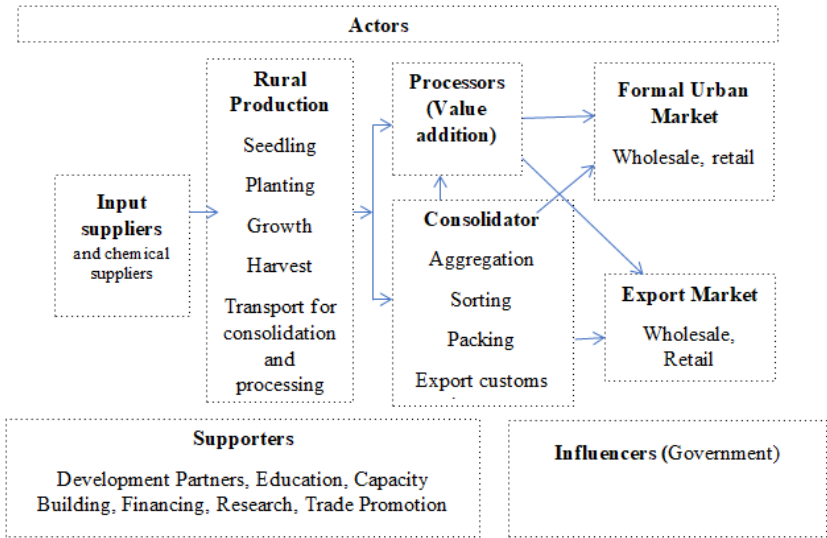


Figure 2: Schematic Agropolitan Development Model (Author elaboration, 2024).

As shown in Figure 2, discussions made in the article have shown that the agropolitan rural-urban linkages involve various actors and stakeholders who play crucial roles in connecting rural production spaces to urban markets. Here is a description of the key actors shown:

- Input suppliers are companies or entities that provide agricultural inputs such as seeds, fertilizers, pesticides and machinery to farmers or producers in agropolitan areas. Input suppliers play a vital role in ensuring the availability of quality inputs for agricultural production.
- Farmers or producers are at the core of the agropolitan system. They engage in agricultural activities, cultivate crops, raise livestock or engage in other forms of agricultural production. They are responsible for producing the raw materials that are later processed or sold in urban markets.
- Processors or value-addition industries play a crucial role in the agropolitan system by adding value to raw agricultural products. They transform primary agricultural commodities into processed or value-added products such

as food products, beverages, textiles or biofuels. Processors enhance the marketability and profitability of agricultural products, creating new opportunities for farmers and expanding the range of products available in urban markets.

- Aggregators or consolidators act as intermediaries between farmers/producers and markets. They collect and aggregate agricultural products from multiple farmers, often providing services such as quality control, grading, packaging and storage. Aggregators facilitate the efficient movement of produce from rural areas to urban markets.
- Domestic and foreign markets are the ultimate destinations for agricultural products from the agropolitan areas. Domestic markets refer to the local or national markets where the produce is consumed or sold. Foreign markets involve export-oriented trade, where agricultural products are sold to international buyers.
- Supporters of agropolitan development include various stakeholders such as development partners (international organisations, non-governmental organisations (NGOs)), transporters, banks, academia, civil society organisations, researchers and trade promotion agencies. They provide financial, technical and knowledge support to enhance the effectiveness and sustainability of agropolitan initiatives.
- Government ministries and agencies hold significant influence in shaping agropolitan development policies and frameworks. They play a crucial role in formulating regulations, providing infrastructure support, facilitating market access and coordinating various stakeholders involved in the agropolitan system.

Processors may include food processing companies, textile mills, biofuel refineries, or other industries involved in value addition. These can be established in or near rural areas close to raw materials. They often require a steady supply of raw materials from farmers or aggregators and their activities contribute to job creation, economic growth and the diversification of rural economies. By integrating processors or value-addition industries into the agropolitan rural-urban linkages, the overall agricultural value chain is strengthened.

This integration allows for higher-value products, increased market opportunities and improved income-generation for farmers and other stakeholders involved in the agropolitan system.

The aforementioned actors and stakeholders work together to establish and strengthen rural-urban linkages in the agropolitan context, enabling the flow of agricultural products, knowledge, resources and support between rural production spaces and urban markets. Their collaboration is essential for the success and development of agropolitan-based area initiatives.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In conclusion, this study has examined the concept of agropolitan-based area development through analysis of case studies in Thailand, Indonesia, Vietnam, Kenya and Brazil. The findings demonstrate the potential of this approach in enhancing rural-urban linkages, promoting economic growth and addressing social and environmental challenges. The case studies have provided valuable insights into the practical implementation and outcomes of agropolitan development, highlighting the importance of tailored approaches, comprehensive strategies and inclusive governance structures.

To ensure the effective implementation of agropolitan-based area development using the recommended model, several recommendations can be made:

- Policy-makers and practitioners should prioritise the development of context-specific approaches that address the specific challenges, opportunities and aspirations of each region. This requires conducting a thorough analysis of the local context, engaging local communities and stakeholders and designing interventions that are tailored to meet their needs.
- Comprehensive strategies that encompass economic, social and environmental dimensions should be adopted. This includes promoting value chain development, improving infrastructure, facilitating market access and preserving cultural heritage and traditional knowledge.
- It is also crucial to prioritise inclusive governance structures that actively involve local communities, civil

- society organisations and public-private partnerships in decision-making processes.
- There is also need for continued research and knowledge exchange on agropolitan-based area development. This includes further exploration of innovative approaches, best practices and lessons learned from different regions and countries.
 - Additionally, monitoring and evaluation frameworks should be developed to assess the impact and outcomes of agropolitan initiatives. This will provide evidence-based insights and inform the design and implementation of future projects.

In conclusion, agropolitan-based area development has considerable potential in promoting sustainable rural-urban linkages and addressing development challenges. By adopting tailored approaches, comprehensive strategies and inclusive governance structures, policy-makers, practitioners and communities can foster economic growth, social inclusion and environmental sustainability. Through continued research, knowledge exchange and monitoring, the effectiveness and scalability of agropolitan initiatives can be enhanced, leading to more equitable and sustainable development outcomes.

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From Imagination to Reality on Child Spaces for Recreation: Insights and Foresights on Zimbabwe

SAMSON MHIZHA¹

Abstract

Much research on the importance of physical and recreational activities and play among children exists globally, though little has been done in Africa in general and Zimbabwe in particular. More importantly, there is limited research evidence and policy dialogues on the importance of planning for child spaces for recreation and play in Zimbabwe. The main objective of the current study is to explore challenges and policy implications for recreational and play spaces in urban Zimbabwe. The study employs a literature review approach and reviews relevant studies from 1980 to 2023. The main challenges discussed include rapid urbanisation without development, little research, ambivalent policy and legal framework, corruption, politics of urban planning, invasions of play and recreational spaces, the prevalence of sedentary lifestyles and lack of scientific knowledge on the importance of physical activities. There is a dearth of public policies on the promotion of children's play and recreational opportunities, with the situation in communities compounded by a weak public capacity to plan, implement and enforce the promotion of recreational and play facilities.

Keywords: play, open space, resilience, town planning, urbanisation

INTRODUCTION

Globally, there is widespread recognition that play is vital for children's health, physical, social and emotional development

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and overall well-being (Lester and Russell, 2010; Adjei-Boadi *et al.*, 2021; Lambert *et al.*, 2019). Consequently, children's right to play is popularised under Article 12 of the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC) and Article 31 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) (Adjei-Boadi *et al.*, 2021). For Adjei-Boadi *et al.* (*ibid.*), these two international instruments reckon the children's rights are "to rest and leisure, to engage in play and recreational activities appropriate to the age of the child and to participate freely in cultural life and the arts." Moreover, there is mounting global appreciation of the role of children's recreational facilities and open spaces, especially in Target 11.7 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) on sustainable cities which says: "By 2030, provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces, in particular for women and children, older persons and persons with disabilities" (UN General Assembly, 2015:22).

The United Nations mandated all nations, developed and developing, to ensure that their children, among other populations, have access to recreational spaces, playgrounds and open spaces since they are critical in assuring good health and physical and emotional benefits such as reduction of stress and depression (Shoari *et al.*, 2021). Furthermore, evidence has shown that greening of open urban spaces for play helps in reducing violence and crime (McDonald *et al.*, 2023), enhancing social cohesion and networks (Bille, Jensen and Buitenwerf, 2023), reducing the probability and risk of obesity and overweight (Dadvand, Gascon and Markevych, 2019; Islam, Johnston and Sly, 2020), increasing physical activity (Dadvand, Gascon and Markevych, 2019; Islam, Johnston and Sly, 2020) and improving mental well-being (Bille, Jensen and Buitenwerf, 2023).

Recreational spaces, open and green spaces and playgrounds have also been credited for spaces of relaxation and connection with nature (Veitch, Salmon and Ball, 2010). Nevertheless, Janssen and King (2015) and Lambert *et al.* (2019) have reasoned that children's recreational activities are influenced by the environment and their perceptions of neighbourhood design, including factors like pedestrian facilities, aesthetics

and traffic issues. Janssen and King (2015) write that for children to enjoy play in recreational facilities, they consider its playability based on the presence of trails, very low-traffic streets, undeveloped green spaces, playgrounds and cul-de-sacs. Most of the research done by social science researchers on playability has been done in developed countries, especially in Europe, North America and Australia (Lambert *et al.*, 2019; Barr *et al.*, 2020). There are very few studies on the importance of play and physical activities in Africa, especially on planning for children's play and recreational spaces. However, it is worth noting that some recent academic outputs, for example, Oyeyemi *et al.* (2019 and Barr *et al.* (2020), on play and physical activities in urban areas in Africa have focused on adults, with little on play activities among children. In addition, in recent years, there have been efforts to participate in the universal Report Card on Physical Activity for Children and Youth to generate national baseline data on physical activity and environments that enable physical activity (Ocansey *et al.*, 2014). Countries which have been involved include Zimbabwe, South Africa, Kenya and Ghana. Regardless of the huge knowledge of how crucial play is to children's development and growth, including their general social and mental well-being (Veitch *et al.*, 2010; Wood, *et al.*, 2017; Bille, Jensen and Buitenwerf, 2023), there is a deafening silence on the matter both in terms of policy and scientific outputs. This article seeks to contribute to the limited knowledge of the importance of considering play among children during urban planning. It examines the extent to which playability features in Zimbabwe's urban design. This is against the backdrop of rapid urbanisation across Africa in general and Zimbabwe in particular and the associated lifestyle changes and declines in physical activity (Barr *et al.*, 2020).

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

RESILIENCE AND PHYSICAL SPACES

The current study shows that there is a relationship between resilience and ecology among children. Höltge *et al.* (2021) report findings from 14 countries showing that certain particular environmental contexts shape resilience. Though social and psychological factors influence resilience, the

physical environment in which children grow may shape the development of resilience processes. Ungar (2017) writes that there is a relationship between neighbourhoods and neurons via person-environment interactions. Resultingly, it is significant to appreciate the physical environments that may affect children's resilience (Ungar and Theron, 2020). Literature shows that physical environments with higher social cohesion can reduce child maltreatment (Abdullah *et al.*, 2020), while more socially interconnected neighbourhoods are linked to a reduction in stressful life events and lower levels of suicidal ideation, anxiety, depression and aggressive behaviour among children (Kingsbury *et al.*, 2020).

A qualitative study conducted in the US on environmental health experiences among children in urban areas showed that resilience was developed and had sub-themes such as trust, leadership, engagement, representation, trust and safety (Bogar *et al.*, 2018), while trust and safety helped them to develop resilience by navigating their local spaces and develop "cognitive risk maps" for finding safer spaces such as community gardens (*ibid.*). Scholars have shown increased interest in studying the relationship between people and their natural ecologies (Seymour, 2016). Studies show that children who spend more time in nature have improved well-being, health development and positive attitudes toward the environment (Gill, 2014). Indeed, even among adults, Wood *et al.* (2017) reveal that public green spaces were linked to increased mental well-being. Hatala *et al.* (2020) show that youths from Canadian indigenous tribes showed that they had a calming influence, offered a sense of hope and helped them deal with anger, fear and general difficulties and stress in their daily lives.

A study conducted in Africa shows that physical spaces and the safety of those spaces influenced how people adapted to their ecologies and how built ecologies are shaped (Watson, 2009). Watson (*ibid.*) reasons that town planning has customarily excluded the poor as is shown by the spatial planning in urban areas during apartheid in South Africa (Maharaj, 2020). Oosthuizen and Burnett (2019) conducted a study on youths in poor townships in Johannesburg and perceived their use of spaces and found categories of space based on activity and

safety: safe activity supportive, unsafe activity supportive, safe activity unsupportive and unsafe activity unsupportive. These scholars concluded that community mapping is useful as stakeholders can pick safe environments where they can conduct physical and sporting activity programmes for youth to increase participation (*ibid.*). The development of such spaces may aid in providing networks of activities that can promote youth resilience (Ungar and Theron, 2020).

Studies also provide evidence of the impact of one's physical neighbourhood on mental health and resilience. A South African study assessing the relationship between social capital and youth mental health utilising family social capital and neighbourhood social capital as its primary variables, outlines that family social capital, as measured by household income, decreased the odds of depression, while higher perceptions of crime in the participants' neighbourhoods increased the chances of depression (Somefun and Fotso, 2020). These findings suggest that although increased family social capital is associated with decreased mental illness, it does not necessarily promote increased mental well-being (*ibid.*).

A study based in Reservoir Hills in Durban, South Africa, a historically Indian middle-income area, examined community members' perceptions of safety regarding urban open spaces (Perry *et al.*, 2008). Parks and open spaces in the neighbourhood were viewed as unsafe by participants, who felt fearful of these spaces due to potential criminal activities, regardless of whether the spaces were well-maintained or not (*ibid.*). This contrasts with research globally, that generally indicates more green space is associated with lower incidences of illegal activity in urban environments (Shepley *et al.*, 2019). These contrasts echo Ungar and Theron's (2020) arguments that resilience must be understood contextually and locally produced, hence no two ecological systems are the same.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Recreational public places are important in developing countries as it is an integral part of child development as it allows children to express both positive and negative feelings.

THE IMPORTANCE OF IMAGINATION CHILD RECREATIONAL SPACES

The Blue Brain Teacher (2023) alludes that imagination is not just a playful escape, but a pivotal tool in a child's mental and emotional development. This fascinating cognitive process not only fuels creativity and fantasy, but also plays a central role in shaping children's understanding of the world around them. *The Blue Brain Teacher (ibid.)* posits that imagination is recognised as a critical cognitive process, integral to the development of social cognition in both infancy and childhood. It is important in adulthood as it generates new ideas from old ones and shapes thoughts about alternatives to current realities. Field (2016) avers that the landscapes designed for children are the stage on which innumerable dramas, comedies, games and imaginative play can unfold and designing spaces that promote imaginative play can help to support children's physical, emotional and social growth. Field (*ibid.*) observes that while few would argue against these efforts, it would be a disservice to the children if the designed spaces were meant only to develop their strength and balance at the expense of emotional and social skills such as creativity, empathy and cooperation.

Yonzon, (2022) asserts that children's play has a central role in everyday educational reality of early childhood settings. As a common practice, play explorations act as tools for supporting children's development. Yonzon, (*ibid.*) alludes that for most infants and toddlers engaging in imaginary play, this constitutes a new reality. Fragkiadaki *et al.* (2021), observe that the early experience of imaginary play involving improvisation and extending stories as part of the institutional practice, poses continuous challenges for infants, toddlers and educators. Vygotsky, (1966) suggests that play is the main source of development in early childhood and children, giving meaning to things when in imaginary play. Vygotsky (= *ibid.*) further suggests that tools play an auxiliary role in individuals' mental functioning, creating a mediating activity which is considered a psychological tool. Play is understood as the most critical activity across home, childcare and school, allowing progressive and significant physical, social, cognitive and emotional development for children (Fleer, 2013; Garner and Bergen, 2015). Imagination play is important for children's ability to

move from modelled real-life actions, relationships with others and concrete objects in social relations to abstracting and enabling playful and symbolic use of objects.

METHODOLOGY

The study employs a literature review method to collect published studies in recreational spaces for children, both in a local Zimbabwean context and internationally. The literature search focuses on published studies in academic publications and a few media outputs. This study collated studies that focused on particular child spaces for recreation and play. The primary databases used to source international literature are the Web of Science and SCOPUS. Key words included in searches, in varying combinations, were “child spaces”, “open spaces”, “recreation”, “children”, “play” and “green spaces” (Pillay, 2023). Search results were screened to include only journal articles and book chapters. The publications are from 1980 to 2023. For more local literature from Zimbabwe and Africa, SCOPUS, Web of Science and SABINET African Journals databases were used. Search results were filtered for journal articles and book chapters. A few relevant media outputs have been included.

FINDINGS

DEFINING PLAY

It is important to define play and recreation. According to Lynch and Moore (2016), play is a primary occupation for children and is recognised as a universal human right. Gill (2021) says play is well-acknowledged as a major feature of a child’s life while activities that delineate children’s play can change with age and context. Play is defined differently by people from different contexts, hence the exercise is not easy and is worsened by trying to compare it to terms such as ‘recreation’ and ‘leisure’. These terms share similar characteristics (including the involvement of some level of physical activities) and outcomes such as reduction in stress and improved health. Nevertheless, McLean and Hurd (2012) note that play can be distinguished from leisure and recreation, although the lines of distinctions can be blurred. While play can be broadly defined as an activity that is self-motivated and undertaken for intrinsic purposes,

leisure refers generally to how an individual uses his or her free time (Henderson, 2010, cited in Adjei-Boadi, 2021; McLean and Hurd, 2012). On the other hand, recreation is defined as activities undertaken during one's free time and these activities are generally voluntary and for pleasure purposes (Henderson, 2010, cited in Adjei, cited in Adjei-Boadi, 2021).

It is important to note that governments in developed countries invest heavily in the subject, that they even define play themselves. According to the Scottish Government (2013:12), "play is freely chosen, personally directed, intrinsically motivated behaviour that actively engages the child". Not to be outdone, the Welsh Assembly Government (2002:3) reasons that play "is performed for no external goal or reward and is a fundamental and integral part of healthy development - not only for individual children but also for the society in which they live" Bartlett (1999) also defines play as children getting involved "passionately in their surroundings through exploration, manipulation, physical exuberance, experimentation and pretence, either alone or with others" For this study, play, leisure and recreational activities are used interchangeably as are playgrounds, open spaces and recreational facilities.

BELIEFS AND KNOWLEDGE ON PLAY AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES

It is important to note that looking at beliefs and knowledge of play is very critical. Governments, parents and stakeholders that value play will promote it and those that do not, will neglect it. Lester and Russel (2010) write that some adult caregivers take play as a socialisation process and have the role of impacting cultural beliefs and may promote it. Nonetheless, some adults believe that play is unsettling, threatening (assuming that children may be bullied) or of no value, leading to prohibitions and sanctions, yet children appreciate play greatly (*ibid.*). However, some parents do not promote play because of their hurried lifestyles, punishing work schedules, preference for their children to use devices like smartphones and their increased emphasis on academics over play (Ginsburg, 2007). Aribino and Muchemwa (2023) argue that in Zimbabwe, there is an emerging phenomenon of the development of new residential settlements such as gated

communities, high-density areas and new schools which do not have recreational spaces for children. They lament that it is clear that those in charge of developing those new suburbs and schools have no working knowledge of the importance of play for children (*ibid.*). According to Chitagu (2021), most local authorities no longer reserve land for child recreational centres because of their lack of understanding of the importance of play.

Moyo and Chipfupa (2021) conducted a study on parents and children in Binga District and report that only 10.8% of children who participated in their study were aware of their rights to play while only 0.7% of the parents interviewed knew that children had the rights to play. This means that most adults and parents in Zimbabwe, or at least in Binga, are not aware that children have a right to play. Alternatively, Čavojová, Šrol and Ballová Mikušková (2022) argue that the main challenge is the lack of scientific reasoning in planning, as scientific evidence is expected to help question unfounded beliefs and the efficacy of alternative policy options, and is instrumental in arriving at its ultimate scientific evidence-based policies.

Lack of proper knowledge on play is due to the unfortunate lack of scientific evidence in policy-making, possibly because of mutual scepticism between local scientists and policy-makers (Strydom *et al.*, 2010) and poor funding for research for local scientists (Ganda, 2017). Stewart (2023) reasons that evidence-informed policies are very critical as they aim to improve societal outcomes and development, reduce harm, raise transparency and, therefore, also governance. Certainly, because of these benefits, there has been a noteworthy rise in investment in activities to increase the use of research evidence in policy in developing and developed countries in recent years (*ibid.*).

Ganda (2017), as did NEPAD (2014); reports that in 2014, Zimbabwe had a budget of only US\$24 million covering salaries and capital expenditures for universities when single universities in the West budgeted for more than US\$3 billion per year for research expenses only (Zalaznick, 2023). In psychology, in the West, research is perhaps the most satisfying

and lucrative divisional field, ahead of all other divisions, while in Zimbabwe, one wonders whether there is a field known as research psychology. For that reason, there is evidence that although almost 90% of all children and adolescents live in developing countries, only about 10% of research on mental health in children comes from these countries (Kieling *et al.*, 2011; Dorsey *et al.*, 2015; Sharma *et al.*, 2022). For that reason, people in developing countries do not appreciate the importance of play because there is little research being conducted there. Ganda (2017), having worked in the higher and tertiary education ministry at director level, observes that challenges for cutting-edge research in Africa, especially in Zimbabwe, include: lack of funding (research is not a priority for budget decision-makers); poor investment in education to PhD level (focus being on basic education); skills migration to overseas institutions; and limited international collaboration. He concludes that the lack of cutting-edge research and the absence of evidence-based policy-making, are major hindrances to development in Africa.

LACK OF PLAY AND PHYSICAL ACTIVITY

According to Manyanga *et al.* (2018), physical inactivity, the fourth leading cause of death worldwide, together with obesity, is increasing globally. In developing countries like Zimbabwe, childhood obesity often co-exists with undernutrition (stunting, wasting and underweight), leading to a “double burden of malnutrition” (*ibid.*). Nonetheless, there is limited literature and mostly unpublished data on physical activity for Zimbabwean children (*ibid.*). Generally, physical activity levels for Zimbabwean children are lower than elsewhere (*ibid.*). Manyanga *et al.* 2023 and the WHO (2022) write that physical activities for children are associated with several benefits that include improved academic performance, adiposity profiles, cognition and mental and physical health. Though there have been calls to increase physical activity (Makaza *et al.* 2016; Makaza *et al.* 2018) and minimise recreational screen time among children and adolescents in Zimbabwe, the present findings indicate that there have not been significant improvements between 2016 and 2022 (Manyanga *et al.* 2023).

Manyanga posits that there is need for more targeted public health messages, delivered in school settings, promoting various forms of physical activity, encouraging ‘breaking sitting time’ and promoting active transportation (regardless of the belief that affluent people should not use public transport in Zimbabwe). Rural children are more active than urban ones due to less access to recreational screens and a lack of vehicular transportation to school.

Pencil *et al.* (2023), as did the WHO (2000), note that overweight and obesity are significant public health concerns, with approximately 5% to 16.5% of adolescents in Africa being obese. Zimbabwe is one of the countries with a rising and unresolved obesity prevalence of 36.6% among adolescents since 2015 (Mukora-Mutseyekwa, Nengomasha and Adjei, 2019). Obesity leads to an increase in non-communicable diseases (NCDs) such as Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM), cardiovascular diseases and hypertension, which are currently part of Zimbabwe’s biggest health threats (Kamvura *et al.*, 2022). Zimbabwe is experiencing a nutrition transition where the consumption of obesogenic foods is high in urban areas and energy-dense foods associated with Western lifestyles have been adopted (Matsungu and Chopera, 2020). The causes of obesity are multifactorial, including individual, environmental and societal factors.

Socio-cultural perceptions and beliefs fuel the increase in overweight and obesity (Pencil, Matsungu and Hayami, 2021). In many African countries, including Zimbabwe, it is commonly believed that healthy people should not be skinny as it symbolises poverty and ill-health (Renzaho, 2004; Reese-Masterson and Murakwani, 2016; Pencil and Hayami, 2021). In Zimbabwe, where physical activity education is part of the school curriculum (Manyanga *et al.*, 2023), increasing adolescents’ physical activity levels should be achieved through both organised and recreational sports activities.

CORRUPT COUNCIL AND NATIONAL PUBLIC OFFICIALS

In Zimbabwe, there is an outcry that local authorities are taking advantage of the rising need for residential stands and are sacrificing space reserved for children’s recreational facilities

and blamed that on greedy local authority officials (Dube and Chirisa, 2012; Marongwe, Mukoto and Chatiza, 2011; Muchadenyika, 2015; Aribino and Muchemwa, 2023). Muchadenyika (2015) writes that at one time the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) party dismissed all their Chitungwiza councillors having found them to be very corrupt. Marongwe, Mukoto and Chatiza (2011) are disturbed to note that one minister responsible for the local government, once identified a piece of land reserved for recreational purposes in the city and influenced council officials to submit to him an application for change of land use and then approved the process himself and paid just US\$2 300 for this stand measuring almost 20 hectares situated in the leafy Borrowdale suburb. In addition, Chatiza and Gotora (2021) write that land earmarked for recreational parks and other uses had been subdivided by land barons without even following appropriate channels. It occurred that individuals and council officials who identified any piece of land, developed it and claimed ownership, had the right to develop it.

Mate, Oosterom and Mpfu's (2023) use of urban space is influenced by authoritarian politics that reflect broader trends in urban politics in Zimbabwe. Since the electoral successes of the MDC in urban areas, the Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) has selectively and strategically used patronage, surveillance, repression and legal manoeuvring to subvert MDC-dominated city councils (Muchadenyika, 2015). Markets are sites of urban ruling party patronage, with ZANU-PF brokers (referred to as 'space barons') granting access to vending spaces in exchange for real or feigned support to ZANU-PF (Ndawana, 2018; Oosterom and Gukurume, 2022). Informal traders occupy and use urban space in a decidedly illegal way as they use open and recreational spaces against their original uses (Mate, oostero, and Mpfu, 2023).

POLICY AND LEGAL FRAMEWORK

There exist laws and policies in Zimbabwe that have mixed signals on play and physical activity, with some promoting it, while others are silent on the subject. Circular No. 17 of 2004 by the Ministry of Local Government, Public Works and Housing set the parameters for regulating housing development in

Zimbabwe using three facets: Planning, Infrastructure and House Construction (Marongwe, Mukoto and Chatiza, 2011; Chatiza, 2012). The Circular, among other standards, directed that each local government authority can set the percentage of area for recreational areas although the national minimum area was put at 5% of the planning area (Chatiza, 2012:14). The Child Rights Barometer (2018) writes that Zimbabwe's constitution upholds the rights of persons with disability and the Disability Act was made law in 2014. Internationally, Zimbabwe ratified the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disability in 2013 (*ibid.*).

Section 83 is dedicated to the rights of persons with disability and obligates the state to take appropriate means within the limit of resources available to enable persons with disability to participate in social and recreational activities (*ibid.*). Furthermore, the Zimbabwean government promulgated a policy on persons with disability (GoZ, 2021). The policy asserts that children with disabilities should have equal access and opportunity with other children to participate in play, recreation, leisure and sporting activities, including in the school system and directed relevant stakeholders to develop national guidelines for ensuring inclusion of children with disabilities (GoZ, 2021).

In 2019, the Zimbabwe government set out the national human settlement policy. The policy developed the national human settlements policy which stipulated that human settlements are areas where people live, work and play and the inhabitants thereof have the obligation to contribute to the planning, development and management of their areas (GoZ, 2019). The government of Zimbabwe (*ibid.*) laments that approved layout plans have been violated to the extent that beneficiaries have been building on undesignated land such as recreational stands and open spaces and indicated that those settled on recreational facilities will be relocated and the land's original purposes restored. The government (2019), in the policy, promised to set up policies to cater for many purposes, including recreational purposes. Additionally, the Zimbabwe government developed the school health policy in 2018. The policy, among other things, sought to provide recreational and

safe play facilities in schools and specified that safe schools should include safe playground spaces (GoZ, 2018). Nonetheless, no other laws and policies spelt out the children's rights to play in Zimbabwe.

NEGLECT OF RECREATIONAL FACILITIES

Chiweshe and Dandah (2021) affirm that most recreational facilities in most urban areas in Harare are in a sorry state and unsuitable for crying out for repairs and maintenance from local authorities. These local authorities have been reallocating businesses, churches or housing premises on lands originally set for recreational purposes, showing the high levels of corruption in the country (*ibid.*). Over the years, the impacts of bad governance, corruption, economic crises and lack of upkeep have led to the deterioration of recreational infrastructure.

Chiweshe and Dandah (*ibid.*) lament that recreational spaces such as the Stoddart Hall in Mbare, Harare, are in a bad state due to lack of upkeep. The two scholars note that most government and local authority facilities lack maintenance due to no maintenance budgets and, therefore, the country cannot host international sporting events. The sorry state of the facilities means sports development and tourism are affected. Perhaps the worst council is Chitungwiza, where council officials engaged in illegal land deals involving selling playgrounds and recreational spaces to home-seekers, with some houses being built very close to grounds' touchlines (*ibid.*). Traditionally, Zimbabwe has used sports to spread health messages in the fight against HIV-AIDS and malaria. Community sports are avenues for unemployed youths to build survival, livelihoods and resilience through leisure and gambling (*ibid.*).

Mangizvo and Rupiya (2021) claim that recreational parks are an important visual element of the urban landscape, traditionally marked by their open access, recreational value and horticultural design. Urban parks came into being in the mid-19th century in the United Kingdom as a response to the intolerable living conditions of Victorian industrial cities (Tzoulas and James, 2004). The parks have important functions and are places where city residents may experience the beauty

of nature, breathe fresh air and have receptive recreation in the form of music and art appreciation. Harare Gardens located in the city of Harare in Zimbabwe, is an example of a park that was not well-maintained during the late 1990s through to 2010 because of limited financial resources. As a result, it has become a haven for muggers, prostitutes, vagrants and street kids (Mbiriya-mveka 2010). The Gweru Civic Centre Park was also said to be in a poor state with the local authority neglecting it as the vegetation wilted while the infrastructure in the park is being vandalised.

INVASION BY SPACE BARONS

The trend is furthermore influenced by authoritarian politics that reflect broader trends in urban politics in Zimbabwe. Since the electoral successes of the MDC in urban areas, ZANU-PF has selectively and strategically used patronage, surveillance, repression and legal manoeuvring to subvert MDC-dominated city councils (McGregor 2013; Muchadenyika 2015). Markets are sites of urban, ruling party patronage, with ZANU-PF brokers (referred to as 'space barons') granting access to vending spaces in exchange for real or feigned support to ZANU-PF (Ndawana 2018; Oosterom and Gukurume, 2022).

Dube and Chirisa (2012) opine that Africa is haunted as it faces a myriad of challenges including, among others, urbanisation, rapid unemployment and poverty, despite the continent's large natural and human resources endowment. Dube and Chirisa (*ibid.*) also reason and quote Kessides (2006) by saying Africa's problems are widely attributed to, and aggravated by, the ever-increasing growth without development commonly described as 'counter-urbanisation' Dube and Chirisa (*ibid.*) further state that recreational and public open spaces have been invaded by innovative unemployed youths and adults.

IMPORTANCE OF RECREATIONAL PARKS

Parks are also established to provide fresh air, greenery, contact with nature and a framework for people from all parts of society to mix and socialise. They provide opportunities for people to engage in sedentary behaviour as they sit and relax while enjoying nature (Cohen *et al.* 2007). Parks are renowned for improving the environmental quality of urban areas (Edwards

and Tsouros 2006). They contribute towards air and water purification, at the same time; they are important in wind and noise filtering and microclimate stabilisation (Chiesura, 20043). The urban green, which includes garden parks, also helps to reduce urban temperatures (Dubbeling *et al.*, 2009).

Urbanites are, therefore, inclined to appreciate this moderation in temperatures in parks and may visit parks just to enjoy the coolness. Parks, by their very nature, attract a high concentration of birds and other wildlife in their vicinity. They, therefore, compensate for the lack of natural habitat in urban environments and, in a way, contribute to the conservation of biodiversity (Goddard *et al.*, 2009). Naturalists find comfort in such environments. As Jim (2004) postulates, cities with high-quality and generous green spaces in the form of urban parks and gardens, epitomise good planning and management. Such cities provide a healthy environment for humans at the same time bestowing pride on its citizenry and government.

It is also apparent that urban parks provide social and psychological services to urban residents. A visit to the park may reduce stress (Hansmann *et al.* 2007). A park experience may enhance contemplativeness, rejuvenate the city dweller and provide tranquillity and a sense of peacefulness (Hami *et al.*, 2011). They offer more than the visual enhancement of scenery. They offer psychological benefits, therapeutic and spiritual qualities (Krenichyn, 2006). Studies reveal that the mere presence of greenery in the form of trees, grass and flowers, is powerful enough to confer psychological benefits (*ibid.*).

Recreational spaces are often undervalued by city officials in the fast-growing cities of developing countries, thereby detracting from sustainable development. Therefore, sustainable planning of open spaces and recreational facilities in cities demands greater attention and care to ensure healthy and vibrant lifestyles for all residents (Khan, 2019:1). Recreational facilities encompass various types of facilities. The major types of facilities that draw particular attention to city planners while preparing physical or layout plans for cities include open spaces, parks, playfields and children's playgrounds. In the

case of Zimbabwe, the stipulated planning standards and provisions regarding open space facilities for cities are generally understood and applied within the context of operative master plans, structure plans or any other relevant local development plan. It must be borne in mind, however, that these statutory plans are prepared and administered in terms of the Regional Town and Country Planning Act (Chapter 29:12 of 1996) and allied legislation and statutory instruments – that impinge on land-use planning and development control. Recreational facilities are recommended to be within walking distance from residents' homes and should cater for all age groups of the beneficiary population.

General guidelines for open spaces prioritise safety and integration, instead of segregation of play areas for different ages, environments and access for people with special needs. Arguably, a review of planning standards for densified residential areas in Harare demands an analysis of the city-wide open space requirements based on socio-spatial and economic audit profiles of both existing and envisioned recreational facilities in the city.

PLANNING IN AFRICA AND URBANISATION

The challenges Africa is facing include unemployment and poverty (UN-HABITAT, 2006-7) and these have not spared its modern cities. This is despite the continent's vast human and natural resource endowments (e.g., diamonds in Marange, Zimbabwe; copper in Zambia; and oil in Nigeria). Indeed, Africa is experiencing a resource curse, as the continent remains underdeveloped and impoverished despite the abundance of natural resources (Mlambo, 2022). Cities in Sub-Saharan Africa are buffeted by novel challenges on a day-to-day basis. These challenges are widely attributed to and aggravated by the ever-increasing growth without development, commonly described as 'counter-urbanisation (Dube and Chirisa, 2012; Crankshaw and Borel-Saladin, 2019)). Local authorities in this region are thus in a fix. Rapid urbanisation in the region is a cause for concern; its shockwaves have a nesting effect (Dube and Chirisa 2012). Along the same lines, Kamete and Lindell (2010) note that unlike in developed countries, where urbanisation, economic development and industrialisation, occurred

simultaneously, in Africa, there has always been a mismatch between the very lethargic economic growth and rapid urbanisation. Resultingly, proper urban life promoted through proper urban planning and reality, that is essentially informal housing, work and lives, caused conflicts linked to illegality, and extra-legality in urban land use became more severe that urban planning systems in Africa became less useful (Kamete and Lindell, 2010).

Muchadenyika (2015) notes that scholars have dealt with the urbanisation of poverty and the informalisation of cities that has led to the deterioration and neglect of recreational areas. Academic views on African urbanisation are diverse. Some scholars reason that the phenomenon of urbanisation without development has made African urban areas hopeless, irrecoverable and degrading places, while authorities note these African towns are marked by limited formal employment, unregulated growth, lack of affordable and decent housing, acute environmental degradation, lack of social services, neglected and failing infrastructure, criminality, pauperisation and poor urban management and rising inequalities.

DISCUSSION

The study defines play and recreation as the primary occupation of children and is recognised as a universal right. The study reveals that the difference between play, recreation and leisure can be difficult to distinguish. The study defines play as children getting involved passionately in their surroundings through exploration, manipulation, physical exuberance and pretence alone or with others. The study reveals that there are different beliefs and knowledge about play with adult caregivers viewing play as a socialisation process which has the role of impacting cultural beliefs and promoting them. The study shows that there has been the emergence of new residential areas with schools which do not offer social amenities such as recreational facilities that socialise children. In support of this study, McCormack (2023) posits that the continuation of the creation of urban centres that lack recreational facilities continues to reduce the chance of psychological and physical fitness of residents.

The study indicated the lack of reserved recreational areas by local authorities and planners. Similar to the present study, Bakar (2016) observes that in most developing countries, there is a lack of recreational facilities and this causes lower participation in recreational activities. The study reveals that lack of proper knowledge backed by scientific evidence in policy-making, has led to poor regional and town planning that has overlooked the importance of play and recreational facilities (Mazhindu and Munanga, 2022). The study observes underfunding and poor investment as the causes of a lack of cutting-edge research which is also leading to the absence of evidence-based policy-making. Consistent with the study is Katowa-Mukwato (2018), who observes that lack of evidence-based research has caused urban problems in Ethiopia, as policy-makers are not wellinformed on the need for social amenities. Lack of evidence-based findings on the importance of recreational facilities is leading to the deterioration of the health of people due to the lack of physical activities.

The study reveals that there is lack of play and physical activity that is becoming, together with obesity, the leading cause of death worldwide. The study shows that child obesity co-exists with malnutrition and physical activity levels for Zimbabwean children are lower than elsewhere. The study reveals that there has been a surge in on-screen play activity among children and adolescents in Zimbabwe. The lack of play and physical inactivity has led to obesity in children across Zimbabwe. In support of the study is Pradinuk (2011), who notes that physical inactivity is inversely correlated with the risk of obesity in children as they do not burn enough calories. Consistent with the study is Bhargava (2016), positing that there is an association between lack of physical activity and overweight and obesity among school-going children as there are no recreational activities. The lack of play is causing multiple problems among children because there has been a surge in on-screen activity rather than physical activities.

The study reveals that there has been corruption in council and national public offices with officials taking advantage of the need for residential stands by people. This has led to the distribution of spaces reserved for recreational facilities. Similar

to the study, *The Herald* (2021) reports that there has been mushrooming of businesses around recreational facilities and parks in Zimbabwe due to corruption by public officials extorting money from unsuspecting business people, giving rise to illegal dumpsites. The study shows that there has been the grabbing of land reserved for recreational facilities by land barons, turning them into residential stands. The study also shows that informal traders usurped recreational facilities for their businesses. The study notes that there has been negligence of sports and recreational facilities in Zimbabwe. Due to corruption in local authorities, sports and recreational facilities have been converted into residential stands and churches.

The study reveals that parks are an important part of the urbanscape but they have not been maintained, thus they have deteriorated. Similar to the study, Razak (2016) observes that parks play an important role in the urban landscape as well as helping people relax and reduce psychological pressure. The study reveals the importance of recreational facilities as these provide fresh air and greenery to urban areas as well as purification for water, while reducing urban temperature. The study shows that parks provide social psychology by providing peaceful areas to urban dwellers to reduce stress. In support of the study, Ellis and Schwartz (2016) observe that parks provide access to recreational opportunities values, spur local economies, combat crimes and protect cities from environmental impact. The study shows that Africa lacks regional and urban planning, even with endowments in natural resources, the continent has remained behind. In support of the study, Simon (2015) observes that in Ibadan, Nigeria, there has been poor planning and housing is encroaching on recreational facilities. Consistent with the study is Ajayi (2022), who alludes that there is lack of planning for appropriate amenities in urban open spaces.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Child and planning-related policies and laws in Zimbabwe offer mixed signals regarding the recreation and play opportunities for children. Some are clear that planners should offer recreational facilities or open spaces for children's play, while

others are silent. This tallies with the lack of research on the area, the view that a healthy and prosperous person should not be skinny and the negative views on active transportation. Most universities in these countries do not consider themselves to be research centres, but graduate-churning institutions, hence the lack of scholarly contributions. Policy-makers, corporate key stakeholders and, sometimes, scholars themselves, do not deem universities as centres for research. Zimbabwe boasts very high literacy rates but very poor research knowledge-generation.

Perhaps the worst finding from the study is that some local councils and national public officials are driven by a lack of knowledge and corrupt tendencies to not set aside recreational facilities by diverting that land to other purposes. Evidence shown in this study implies the likelihood of worsening of current challenges for children, unless conscious efforts are made to address them. Evidence suggests a growing incidence of sedentary lifestyles, less physical activity and increasing health challenges associated with obesity among children and youth in Zimbabwe. Children from rural areas appear to have better physical activities. However, the importance of play remains an overlooked area of research in the planning literature, though it has vital benefits for the mental and physical well-being of children. Future research could engage with the wider interdisciplinary play literature by expanding the scope of the review to include journals including, but not limited to, play, sociology, environmental psychology and early childhood education discourses. Future research can be transdisciplinary, involving local and national planning officials, corporations and academics to focus on age-inclusive and support urban areas. For the planning and play nexus to mature, research must go beyond disciplinary boundaries, age-based assumptions and normative arguments to engage with questions of how planning can create change and meaningfully foster play.

- Local authorities should engage the community on how public facilities, such as garden parks, could be improved and encourage residents to voluntarily participate in planting, maintaining and protecting the park and other green sites. There is need to educate urban residents on the viability and importance of

recreational facilities. The facilities could be utilised to bestow environmental and health awareness and literacy on the residents through taking responsible action.

- The disused and dilapidated recreational facilities should be revamped so that they meet residents' needs. Children's playgrounds must have safe equipment that meets their needs. Recreational facilities should provide for a wider spectrum of activities. They should host functions such as book fairs and cultural and music expos.

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Moulding the Entrepreneurial Graduate in a Landscape of Competing Paradigms in Zimbabwe

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Abstract

This research aims at exploring approaches for developing an entrepreneurial graduate in a landscape of competing paradigms. The research methodology used in this work is qualitative. Data from 84 people were collected through focus groups and in-depth interviews using the convenience sampling technique. The study found that there are two primary approaches used by university lecturers in teaching entrepreneurship education. The information demonstrates the frequency of using a particular teaching method at various universities. Lessons are given in both English and primary local languages, with notes written on a blackboard, taking into account the trainees' socio-economic and linguistic backgrounds. Another method that did not yield the expected results was experiential learning, which involves placing students in different enterprises. This was found to be ineffective because most of the students were engaged in unrelated tasks. The two approaches were not used in line with globally acknowledged and pedagogically acceptable approaches for imparting to pupils the necessary skills and characteristics to become future business owners in Zimbabwe and Africa's manufacturing sector according to the newly introduced Education 5.0 mantra.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, teaching method, experiential learning, lecture method, industry

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INTRODUCTION

Most nations now provide entrepreneurship education (EE) through universities due to its increased need globally, especially in Africa. These institutions have increased the scope of their entrepreneurship education courses to address the unemployment crisis that most African nations are currently facing. Students who receive this EE are better equipped to create business opportunities in the manufacturing and service sectors. The goal of the policy framework for EE, as stated in the National Skills Development Policy, is to empower people by giving them employable skills for the long-term and discrimination-free development of the economy (Mambo, 2010). Reportedly, the primary concern in Zimbabwe regarding these programmes is how instructors apply pedagogical strategies, as they are not successful in encouraging students to think of self-employment as a substitute (Hosho *et al.*, 2013; Dabale and Masese, 2011;). These authors go on to claim that instructors employ inappropriate exam-focused teaching strategies and lack the necessary training and experience to impart EE. Similar opinions are supported by Atef and Al-Balushi (2015), who emphasise that university lecturers lack pedagogical approach training, which leaves them untrained and unable to understand courses.

According to Atef and Al-Balushi (*ibid.*), most of Zimbabwe's university graduates are unemployed due to lack of entrepreneurial skills. This objective of this research is to seek to investigate the options for implementing EE in Zimbabwean universities. The primary motivation for this study was influenced by the authors' relationships with different graduates from Zimbabwean universities. Many of them said they were unable to launch their enterprises or find employment in their fields. The main points made were that Zimbabwe has very few industries which can employ them and that there is a shortage of skills and competencies in the country. It was also found that most of the graduates of these programmes chose not to pursue self-employment following graduation, instead choosing to work in the informal sector. These concerns all motivated the study to investigate the strategies instructors use to make sure students have the necessary entrepreneurship skills to to work for themselves.

This article's goal was to look into how several Zimbabwean universities were implementing university programme methods. This would offer best practices and suggestions for enhancing future university student instruction, together with insights into how these strategies are carried out. The goal of the study is to increase the body of knowledge in this field.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The lecture method, experiential method and online teaching are the independent variables and the teaching and learning environment is the mediating variable, while innovation and creativity are the dependent variables. The study seeks to explore the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variables and the extent to which the teaching methods affect the level of creativity and innovation among learners from different universities in Zimbabwe. The mediating variables, that is, the teaching and learning environment, are crucial factors influencing the level of creativity and innovation among university learners.

Lecturers employ teaching methods, which are more comprehensive techniques, to help students gain thorough knowledge. These instructional strategies can be divided into two groups: child-centred strategies like group and pair work, experiential learning and teacher-centred strategies like the lecture style. Even though popular teacher-centred approaches, like the lecture method, do not foster industrialisation, creativity, or innovation, all of which are components of the new Ministry of Higher Education, Tertiary Education, Research and Innovation, many universities in Zimbabwe continue to employ them. The lecture method is when the lecturer is the chief spokesperson, provider of knowledge and a master of all the relevant data and the learner becomes just an active recipient of knowledge without direct input, creativity, innovation and discovery learning. The experiential teaching method is when students are on industrial attachment and it is learning by doing. Students learn the practicalities of work since they will be placed in the real industry where a lot of experience is gained. However, there are also challenges to implementing this teaching method among university students. Some of the challenges encompass the lack of actual industry exposure by

the learners after completing industrial attachment due to various factors which are going to be explored in this research. Work-related learning is very crucial among university students since it bridges the gap between theory and practice. Online learning is a modern method of learning that has grown due to globalisation, the world now being a global village where learners can learn wherever they are using the Internet.

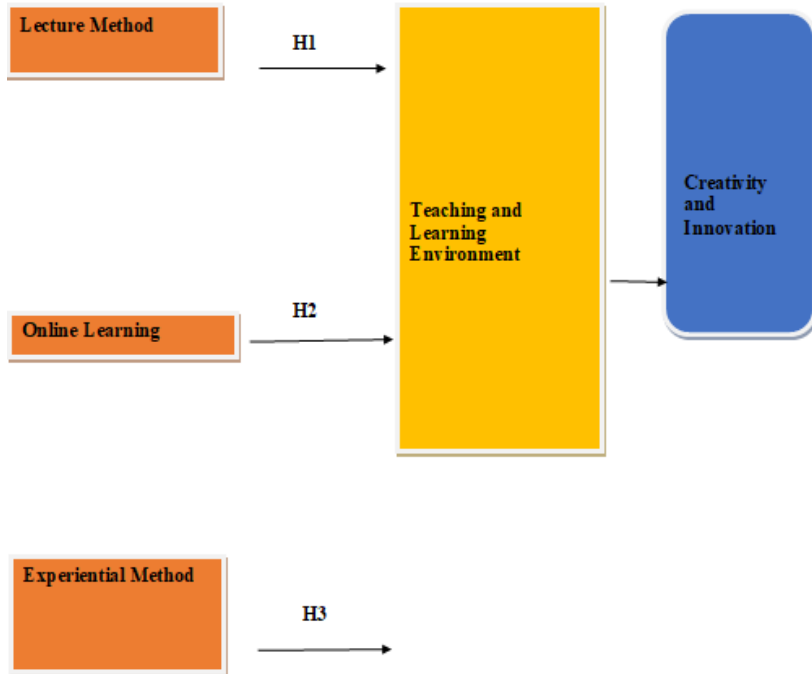


Figure 1: *Conceptual Framework (Primary Data, 2024)*

LITERATURE REVIEW

The use of appropriate teaching strategies by lecturers is a critical factor in any curriculum's efficacy (Mupfumira and Mutsambi, 2012). Using strategies that encourage the development of transferable skills is essential to the successful integration of EE into university curricula. Here, strategies refer to plans of action designed to carry out university curricula with an entrepreneurial education in an efficient manner. One might classify the teaching strategy used by lecturers as a

model, method or principle. Thus, a teaching strategy is an approach to instruction in the classroom that concentrates on achieving the goal of the curriculum. Furthermore, lecturers who teach EE in university curricula must employ effective teaching strategies to help students acquire the requisite competencies and skills. Yet, there seems to be a great deal of dispute over the best way to teach EE in university programmes among academics and business professionals who specialise in the subject (Mbeteh and Pellegrini, 2018).

According to Mbeteh and Pellegrini (*ibid.*), the goal of theory-based education is to increase students' conceptual understanding of business practitioners choosing practice-based entrepreneurship. The assumption here is that university instructors should be encouraged to use practice-based pedagogy to help students develop their entrepreneurial skills. In contrast, practice-based EE focuses on strengthening participants' entrepreneurial abilities using real-life case studies and exposing students to entrepreneurial experiences through incubators and school-based firms (*ibid.*).

According to Jones and Iredale (2010), it is important to support learner-centred teaching techniques that help students understand real-world applications of entrepreneurship. Because learning is an active process and students learn best when immersed in experiencing their surroundings, universities should be supported. This is because students learn by doing. These strategies are believed to be the best for carrying out university curriculum in an efficient manner. It is essential to look into how these strategies are used in Zimbabwean clothing and university courses as an African case study. Similarly, Govender (2008) thinks that because junior enterprise is based on "learning by doing". As per Blenker *et al.* (2006), this method offers a model wherein students oversee small- to medium-sized non-profit consulting projects under the guidance of their university, with support. Students can learn soft skills such as outcomes orientation, people management, communication, stress management and more by putting theory into practice (Bienkowska-Gołasa, 2019). Junior businesses thus provide college students and recent graduates the chance to acquire

crucial real-world work experience while also developing entrepreneurial abilities early.

By using this technique, lecturers may encourage university students to take advantage of new opportunities. This approach fosters self-employment and calls for a high degree of personal creativity and originality. These are the abilities that students at the chosen universities are expected to possess. Barba-Sanchez and Atienza-Sahuquillo (2016), however, contend that there is not enough time allotted for activities. They said there are not enough activities in which every student can take an active part. It could be difficult for lecturers to implement efficient strategies due to lack of resources. This might be the case with Zimbabwe's chosen colleges. University teaching strategies should encourage participatory learning, which gives students total control over their education, claims Esene (2015). For the benefit of their students, lecturers must, therefore, be able to choose the most productive teaching strategies. Hence, lecturers in EE should possess strong decision-making skills and sound judgment when it comes to circumstances in which the methods can be used successfully. The opinions, attitudes, knowledge and teaching style of the lecturers influence how much they participate in strategy selection (Mafa and Chaminuka, 2012). Therefore, to effectively implement EE in university programmes, lecturers need to possess a wide range of skills.

This will enable them to design best strategies that will improve the student's skills in entrepreneurship. Damodharan and Rengarajan (2008) claim that the lecturing method is commonly used by lecturers, especially in large classes. They added that, in the lecturing teaching method, the lecturer controls the instructional process and the content is delivered to the entire class, emphasising factual knowledge. Thus, the students are not very active as they play little part in their learning process. Gwarinda (2016:54) argues that the "only activity that the students can do is to engage in note-taking during the lecture, in which students act like recording machines without digesting the learning material". Therefore, students tend to memorise the information as much as possible without understanding the

concepts. Studies reveal that learners of entrepreneurship who get instruction based on the teacher-centred paradigm, develop an excessive reliance on their instructors. Thus, this can have a detrimental effect on the pupils' ability to investigate and adjust, grow and produce and improve what their teacher has taught them. The fact that Mwasalwiba (2010) agrees that this method is the most often employed conventional teaching strategy in Zimbabwean higher education institutions, is concerning. Using an "array of teaching strategies because there is no single universal approach that suits all situations", lecturers can effectively teach entrepreneurship, according to Maifata (2016:69).

Problem-based learning is one of the active learning strategies that can be used more extensively in higher education institutions, claim Chinonye *et al.* (2015). In contrast to traditional teaching methods, which include the lecturer prescribing the necessary actions, problem-based learning puts the problem out there and has students work in groups to find solutions. Through group work and problem-based learning, students can work through challenges that may come up during their actual entrepreneurial endeavours and reflect on their conclusions (Muhlfelder *et al.*, 2015). According to Mukembo and Edwards (2016), this method of instruction encourages self-directed learning and helps students acquire flexible knowledge, efficient problem-solving techniques, teamwork abilities and critical thinking.

Experiential learning, according to Middleton *et al.* (2014), is a learner-centred approach that considers various learning preferences. Through activities, students gain experience and evaluate the entire process to make sure that the learning outcomes are worthwhile. The process of developing knowledge, skills and values from first-hand experience is known as experiential learning (Maifata, 2016). Consequently, the learner engages in tasks, poses inquiries, carries out trials, resolves challenges, exhibits creativity and extrapolates significance from gained knowledge. As part of the entrepreneurial learning process, students engage in experiential learning by exploring

and experiencing the world beyond the classroom, drawing from the experiences of their peers and other seasonal entrepreneurs (Middleton *et al.*, 2014).

Through the process of integrating their lived experiences into pre-existing cognitive frameworks, students create knowledge through experiential learning, which enables them to alter their thought processes and behavioural patterns (Kolb and Kolb, 2005). In contrast, during a lecture, students are seen as passive consumers of information. School-based enterprises (SBEs) are real or simulated firms that function inside schools and are referred to as entrepreneurial ventures, according to Stratton (2008). Their purpose is to assist students in obtaining real-world experience related to their selected course on entrepreneurship. SBEs are work-based programmes that teach students how to evaluate and build the knowledge, skills and abilities needed to launch and run a small business off college campus, according to Crentsil (2015).

So, these SBEs include students in entrepreneurial activities which introduce them to the reality of starting, growing and managing a business. The purpose of SBEs, or entrepreneurial ventures, is to enable students to participate in business ownership, from idea generation to business operations, according to Smith (2015). As per Crentsil's (2015) findings, students may retain and apply knowledge gained through entrepreneurial endeavours for an extended period. Students thus get knowledge of financial management and become acquainted with business technologies (*ibid.*). This is in line with the concept of entrepreneurial ventures put out by Stratton (2008), who maintains that it provides students with the fundamental information needed to get experience in the workplace. On the other hand, Crentsil (2015) notes that on occasion, certain industries are reluctant to allow students to teach them entrepreneurship. The literature review has shown the wide variety of educational strategies used in university programmes around the world. However, not all these strategies are included in university curricula in Zimbabwe. The two most used strategies are the experiential learning strategy and the

lecture method. This essay concentrates on applying these strategies to deliver pertinent guidance to various stakeholders.

METHODOLOGY

The study employed the interpretive paradigm, which is in line with the qualitative method. The detailed research methodology is described in the following subsections. This study aims to identify the core phenomenon of EE implementation strategies in different Zimbabwean universities. As a result, it requires a qualitative research methodology. Antwi and Hamza (2015) state that qualitative research examines human behaviour from the perspective of the social actors involved. Because of this, the study was able to collect qualitative information regarding the implementation of two teaching approaches in Zimbabwean university programmes by using focus groups and in-depth interviews with participants. In this way, the participants could share what these strategies had worked for them.

A case study design was employed because only three of the 23 universities were selected. It was also favoured because it made it possible for the study to get comprehensive data regarding the application of the recognised pedagogical tactics in university programmes, which would have been difficult to acquire through other kinds of experimentation. A sample of 84 individuals from various stakeholder sectors was selected through the application of purposeful non-probability sampling. Out of the 23 universities in Zimbabwe which offer business-related programmes, three universities were chosen. Purposeful sampling, according to Saunders *et al.* (2012), is predicated on the researcher's assessment that a sample contains typical elements that constitute the most typical qualities of the population. Similarly, people should possess some distinctive qualities that enable them to possess the data required for the investigation (Tracy, 2019). Using this process, 84 participants were recruited from business-related schools, comprising 72 students, six department heads and six lecturers. These participants were familiar with the challenges of incorporating EE into business-related courses from personal experience.

In-depth interviews and focus groups served as the two primary methods of data collection for this project. Along with in-depth interviews with professors and department directors, focus groups with students were also conducted. In-depth interviews are the most effective way to learn about people's experiences, histories and opinions, according to De Vos *et al.* (2013), especially when sensitive topics are being covered. The second method of data collection involved holding focus groups with three distinct student groups from each of the three selected schools.

In each focus group, 12 students from different academic years — six male and six female — participated. Focus group talks are valuable because they make a lot of debate about a topic visible in a brief period and because they highlight the similarities and differences between the members' thoughts and experiences (Wong, 2008).

FINDINGS

PARTICIPANT CHARACTERISTICS

Table 1 presents the demographic information of the participants, which included six teachers/heads of departments and 36 students. The table lists 12 instructors and department heads (six instructors and six department heads). Four of these individuals were selected from each of the universities located in the provinces of Mashonaland Central and Harare. There were only four male teachers and eight female teachers at the selected universities. There were four female participants from one university since there were more female professors than male lecturers. Of the lecturers, six had master's degrees and four had doctorates, and two had undergraduate degrees.

All the others were all degree-holders in business-related fields. Table 1 shows that six lecturers and the majority had four to six years of teaching experience. Four lecturers with between seven and 10 years of experience followed these. For the lowest experience level, one to three years, there were only two participants. In addition, it is shown that 48 female students

and 24 male students took part in the study. Table 1 demonstrates that 20 second-year students and the remaining 36 study participants were second-year students. There were only 12 first-year students. It is crucial to reiterate that during the course of several years of study, there was an equal distribution of students at the three universities selected for the investigation. The findings indicate that there were two main methods used by lecturers in university courses that teach EE. These two strategies are presented and then their application is discussed. Moreover, only the two most popular strategies are looked at and presented. The research revealed two discrete pedagogical approaches: the lecture and the experiential methods. The next subsections address these and how they apply. The lecture technique is perceived as harmful and confusing.

Table 1: *Demographic characteristics (Primary Data)*

Province	Number of participants
Mashonaland Central	4
Harare	8
Gender	
Male	4
Female	8
Educational level	
Bachelors	2
Masters	6
PhD	4
Years of experience	
1-3	2
4-6	6
7-10	4
More than 10 years	0
Gender	
Male	24
Female	48
Province	
Mashonaland Central	36
Harare	36
Year of Study	
Year 1	12
Year 2	24
Year 3	36

Both lecturers and students recognised the diversity of the lecture format, pointing out that teachers prepare lecture notes, slides and handouts on a variety of topics in the syllabus. Lecturers dictated notes, recommended additional reading for the students and highlighted problem areas, while they observed lessons. In other instances, copies of the notes were put up on the board for students to copy. Some of the pupils claimed that this produced problems. During the discussions, students in several focus groups expressed similar viewpoints. In one of the focus groups, it was reported that several students had negative sentiments about the lecture method. A significant number of students conveyed their desire for their instructors to engage them in the educational process through student-centred teaching approaches.

They argued that they were not learning enough about how to launch their firms from the lecture style. The following statements from a student participant corroborate the previously stated findings.

Because our curriculum is so broad and our calendar is so full, we use the lecture format, add discussions and provide homework to students — perhaps in the form of writing a business plan so they can gain real experience. Most of the time, instructors will recite notes so quickly that we cannot record them on paper. Some may prefer that their notes be transcribed onto the whiteboard or handed to a prefect so that they can post it there on our behalf. The lecture style is something that our lecturers use a lot, but I think they should start using student-centred ways instead. To make the content easier for us to learn, they could use more hands-on teaching techniques instead of lectures.

Regarding the diversity or variation of the lecture format, some lecturers revealed that they use PowerPoint as a teaching aid.

HYPOTHESIS TEST TO DETERMINE THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE TEACHING METHODS USED IN UNIVERSITIES AND THE LEVEL OF CREATIVITY AND INNOVATION

A McNemar's hypothesis test was conducted to determine the relationship between the teaching methods used in universities and the level of creativity and innovation. Results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: McNemar’s Hypothesis Test, Hypothesis Test Summary

Null	Test	Significance level	Decision
The distributions of different values on the relationship between the teaching methods used in universities and the level of creativity and innovation	Relevant – Samples McNemar Test	0.000	Reject the null hypothesis

Asymptomatic significances are displayed and the significance level is 0.005 (Research Survey Data, 2024)

Table 2 shows that the test was statistically significant at the .000 level of significance. This is because $p > 0.005$ and, therefore, the hypothesis test rejected the null hypothesis which states that there is no relationship between the teaching methods used in universities and the level of creativity and innovation. This means that there is adequate evidence to accept the hypothesis that there is a relationship between the teaching methods used in universities and the level of creativity and innovation.

WORK-RELATED LEARNING WITH UNRELATED ACTIVITIES

Instead of using lectures, universities can employ more interactive teaching methods to help students understand the material. Regarding the variety or variation of the lecture format, a few lecturers disclosed their usage of PowerPoint as a tool for instruction. One professor claims that one of the instructional strategies employed in the implementation of EE at colleges is industrial attachments.

We occasionally look for student spaces, but most of the time they prefer to have an industrial tie to a business of their choosing. During the attachment term, students study every facet of the business environment. In this academic setting, students are taught how to make a variety of commodities even without the use of computers, something that is not done at all levels of a manufacturing firm.

The department heads stated that the main justification for employing the lecture method is their enormous class sizes, but thought that the experiential learning strategy deserved more consideration. They argue that students ought to be taught employable skills in addition to learning how to pass a course. One head of the department said:

We use the lecture approach the most since it is the most effective. However, lecturers should use the experiential learning methodology when teaching entrepreneurial education. They should also invite company entrepreneurs to speak as guest speakers so that students can rub shoulders with them. This would pique students' interest and motivate them to start their own companies once they graduate.

During focus groups and interviews, students revealed that industrial attachment was another instructional strategy used. According to the interviews, a student participating in an industrial attachment would work for a year at a company of their choice or one recommended by the university to gain real-world experience, applying the theories they had learned in class. Instructors pay students visits while they are on attachment to assess their learning progress. During the attachment phase, assessments take place regularly. While academics lauded the industrial connection as an effective teaching method for integrating EE into higher education, several students expressed unhappiness with their lack of exposure to the requisite practical business competencies. According to the interviews, the majority of students, particularly those who did not attend school in the nation's capital, did not always take part in the creative process. The students indicated that because they were limited to general work and other non-essential duties and not allowed to create genuine products, the industrial attachment was ineffective in developing their entrepreneurial skills. This contradicted what a few lecturers had remarked about how industrial affiliation exposes pupils to the ways the manufacturing industry does business. One of the students lamented as follows:

The knowledge we obtained from the attachment is insufficient to provide us with general experience and prepare us to be entrepreneurs. In other sectors, we do not walk through all of the production lines since there is not enough time with the students.

Another student confirmed the above and added:

People in the sector undermine students. They do not offer pupils the opportunity to use what they have learned. Most of the time, we end up doing jobs that are unrelated to our line of work. The college should inform industries so that we do not end up being treated as servants.

Furthermore, the students stated that during industrial attachment, they were allocated menial activities that take a significant amount of their time. As a result, they did not benefit significantly. Students urged college administrators to ensure that all students are exposed to the same industrial practices and that industries understand what is expected of them.

DISCUSSION

The statistics show that the lecture approach was the most common teaching strategy. This meant that traditional ways of teaching EE predominated in Zimbabwe's garment and textile programmes. This contrasts with Parker's (2018) recommendation for multi-disciplinary and participatory ways to develop entrepreneurial skills in pupils. Fayolle (2013) voices similar issues about classroom-based training approaches. This ancient teaching technique also highlights the system's modernising and technical weaknesses. The use of chalk and board, as well as dictating and copying notes on the board, is out of date and reflect the economy's lack of technological growth.

The findings show that teaching tactics such as company incubators, role play, junior enterprise and seminars, were not widely used in the teaching of entrepreneurship in the business curricula. However, just a few participants reported on some of these teaching tactics, which appear to have been seldom employed. This could explain why several department heads complained that the government should have held wider consultation on how to conduct entrepreneurial education. This demonstrates that the implementation of EE in technical colleges did not involve all stakeholders and adequate consultation was not conducted.

To support their point of view, department heads argued that the time allotted for the subject is insufficient to accommodate various additional teaching styles that demand more time. The data also reflected the outrage of some of the students who reported negative feelings about the lecture technique. As a result, they urged lecturers to employ student-centred techniques and more practical teaching approaches to help students acquire entrepreneurial abilities. This demonstrates that the students were aware that the lecture style would not expose them to an experiential learning environment, which would assist them in developing an entrepreneurial mindset.

As Matlay *et al.* (2012) point out, traditional teaching approaches, such as lectures, are widely used even though they are ineffective in establishing an entrepreneurial culture among students. In essence, students require experience and, to obtain it, they must participate in commercial activities (Bwemelo, 2017). Similarly, the findings support Jones and Iradale's (2010) conclusion that EE is not efficiently taught through pedagogical practices that focus solely on theoretical knowledge. Apparel and business students may lack the practical skills required to become future businesses.

It should be mentioned that there is nothing wrong with the lecture style, but the way lectures are delivered is crude and antiquated, with no current or technical applications. Graduates from such universities are unable to compete in the worldwide arena with those from other countries, particularly developed ones, in today's global community. This situation will continue to make the country and Africa to lag behind because graduates will be unable to become effective entrepreneurs who are expected to create jobs for the country and reduce the endemic unemployment that plagues most African countries.

According to Gwarinda (2016), the lecture approach may appeal to lecturers because it requires less preparation time than practical courses. The demographic data revealed that relatively few have qualifications in EE, which explains why they employ teaching methodologies that do not align with best practices. As a result, according to Smith and Paton (2011), students are restricted from responding to the dynamic business world and,

instead, promote what Crentsil (2015) refers to as book knowledge, at the price of the capacity to apply what they have learned to execute practical tasks.

The findings also show that industry attachment, often known as experiential learning, was one of the tactics employed by universities to teach entrepreneurship in business-related programmes. Although lecturers believed business students were given an understanding of how companies operate, hence increasing their entrepreneurial skills, students contradicted this. Students stated that they did not benefit significantly from the industrial attachment. This is because they were assigned to specific areas. This contradicts Mutirwara's (2015) notion that students should proceed from one topic to another until they have covered all aspects of their study.

Most of the students stated that they were assigned to unrelated jobs that would not benefit them as future businesses. They did activities such as preparing tea and lunch, cleaning offices, sending and receiving mail and functioning as secretaries and office administrators, among others. Furthermore, the job of supervisor was ineffective because most of them did not perform the key duties indicated by Uduma (2016). One potential explanation for this conduct is that some supervisors appeared afraid that students will replace them, as many of them do not have educational qualifications as they became supervisors through experience. In addition, the apparel company owners were unwilling to share their experiences with them due to competition concerns. According to Yin (2009), an attachment may be more effective if business students are attached to small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), rather than large corporations because this allows students to gain practical experience in how to start their businesses.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The application of universal and acceptable tactics of lecturing and experiential learning in EE in Zimbabwe's business-related curricula does not adhere to internationally acceptable pedagogical methodologies. The usage of crude and old methods such as chalk and board reflects the country's technology and

modernisation state. The lecture technique dominates the teaching of entrepreneurial education due to the presenters' claims of big classes. Furthermore, the teaching of EE in business-related programmes is geared toward the academic sphere rather than combining theory and practice. Supervisors and owners of manufacturing businesses have ruined the practical components because of fear of competition.

Although lecturers are satisfied with the pedagogical strategies they used, they are not experts in EE and many lack pedagogical content knowledge and the skills required to select appropriate strategies to teach students to develop entrepreneurial skills. This is detrimental to the students who are on the receiving end, as they lack the requisite entrepreneurial abilities to launch their businesses after graduation. This undermines the aim of EE outlined in Agenda 2030.

IT IS THEREFORE RECOMMENDED THAT

- Students should be exposed to industrial methods through a variety of educational strategies such as field visits and seminars with industry.
- Industrial attachment, or experiential learning, should be used as a tool to teach students practical business skills while also allowing lecturers to become acquainted with the methodologies while preparing students for attachment. As a result, links and cooperation should be established between EE teachers and university and industry employees.
- In terms of policy, the Zimbabwean government should create a policy on EE at universities to guide its implementation in business-related programmes.
- The policy would provide lecturers with a framework for developing appropriate pedagogical methodologies that completely address the EE of commerce students, based on national EE goals and objectives. Furthermore, to improve the implementation of EE in universities, lecturers should receive in-service training focusing on updating their content knowledge and skills to student-

centred (active) methods of teaching that include learning by doing.

- Universities should arrange staff development workshops with various players in the manufacturing sector and appropriate ministries.

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A Review on Territorial Development Planning: Putting the Great Zimbabwe World Heritage Site into Perspective

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Abstract

Cultural heritage stands as a vital driver for sustainable development in the 21st century, embodying historical, symbolic and socio-economic values. This literature review scrutinises the Territorial Development Plan for the Great Zimbabwe World Heritage Site Area, examining the convergence of heritage conservation and local socio-economic development. Through an extensive review of literature from diverse sources, including books, journals, Google Scholar and government policy documents, this study employs textual analysis to elucidate the relationship between heritage policies and urban planning. The analysis reveals a paradigm shift in recognising heritage as a key contributor to national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and a catalyst for sustainable economic progress. The study highlights the necessity of addressing legal gaps and ambiguities to safeguard tangible and intangible aspects of Zimbabwe's cultural legacy. It draws valuable lessons from global, regional and local perspectives, emphasising the integration of heritage policies into urban planning as crucial for fostering global resilience and sustainable development. Major recommendations include collaborative efforts on local, national and international fronts to integrate heritage policies into urban planning, ensuring equitable growth and preservation of cultural identity. The conclusion

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underscores the intricate relationship between cultural preservation and sustainable development, advocating a holistic and inclusive approach.

Keywords: paradigm shift, equitable growth, resilience, economic sustainability

INTRODUCTION

Cultural heritage, embodying historical, symbolic, spiritual, aesthetic and social values, stands as an indispensable driver for 21st-century nations pursuing sustainable development. This literature review intricately explores the convergence of heritage asset conservation and local socio-economic development, with a keen focus on the Territorial Development Plan for the Great Zimbabwe World Heritage Site Area. Acknowledging the global recognition of cultural heritage as an economic development tool, the study navigates the complex landscapes of heritage policies and urban planning, unravelling their profound implications on a global, regional and local scale. Beyond mere aesthetic and historical significance, the cultural heritage asset's value, rooted in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, weaves a rich tapestry of historical, symbolic, spiritual, aesthetic and social dimensions, fostering continuity, cultural identity and social cohesion.

Examining the economic significance in a global context reveals a paradigm shift, positioning heritage as a key contributor to a nation's GDP and a catalyst for sustainable economic progress. Drawing valuable lessons from global, regional and local perspectives, it highlights the integration of heritage policies into urban planning as a powerful catalyst for global resilience and sustainable development. The conclusion underscores the intricate relationship between cultural preservation and sustainable development, advocating a holistic, inclusive and forward-looking approach. The review emphasises collaborative efforts on local, national and international fronts to integrate heritage policies into urban planning, recognising the profound impact of cultural heritage on economic prosperity, social cohesion and environmental sustainability.

THE INTERSECTION OF HERITAGE ASSET CONSERVATION AND LOCAL SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Cultural heritage serves as both an economic development tool and a resource for sustainable development (Grefe, 2005; Rypkema and Cheong, 2011; Auwera, 2015). Embedded within the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, culture contributes significantly to its goals. The heritage value of sites, buildings or objects encompasses historical, symbolic, spiritual, aesthetic and social dimensions (Sable and Kling, 2001; Throsby, 2001). Economically, cultural heritage assets offer direct and indirect benefits, shaping global, regional and local contexts (Serageldin, 1999; Allen Consulting Group, 2005). However, economic value alone does not fully capture the essence of heritage value.

The process of industrialisation, urbanisation and the associated socio-cultural changes that started in the nineteenth century has culminated in the bipolarisation of the relationship between progress and nature (Shmelev, 2009). Local communities are completely excluded from the use of the territory and seen as a threat to the preservation of natural ecosystems, while visitors are allowed access, only to benefit from them for tourism (Peano *et al.*, 2008). This idea of protecting the natural environment is understood as a safeguard action through the imposition of specific legislative constraints provided for protected areas (Salberini, 1999). When the global discrepancies in human development are factored in, issues relating to world heritage and socio-economic development become politically charged. As of 2017, the Human Development Index (HDI) showed that Norway, Australia, Switzerland, Germany and Denmark are ranked high, while African countries are ranked low on the list (UNDP, 2017).

There are 871 protected areas in Italy, covering approximately 32 000 km² (Sturiale *et al.*, 2023). In terms of sustainability and the economy of local communities, this is the true essence of the Italian production model (Scuderi *et al.*, 2017). The Italian National Parks have pushed the growth of wealth in many areas in the north, while in the south, they have still not managed to enhance them in economic terms. A notable case is Etna Park, which 30 years after its establishment, is now adopting a

Territorial Plan. This plan will lead to the complex merging of the local ecosystem and the economic activities traditionally practised in the region. Centuries-old traditions of agricultural activities exist within the park, albeit progressively reducing, but with the expansion of “abandoned” agricultural areas, pastoral forest and undergrowth have increased. However, Etna Park is also a privileged destination for mountain tourists throughout the year. Concerning the worldwide development of the park, this represents an expansive trend because tourism is associated with traditional tourism (i.e., food, wine and more generally rural tourism) (*ibid.*).

Nagahama exemplifies the integration of heritage conservation and urban redevelopment in small and middle-sized Japanese towns (Kakiuchi, 2000). Facing an economic decline in the 1980s, the town initiated a public-private cooperation project to rehabilitate cultural heritage and stimulate a specific cultural industry. Preservation efforts saved the Meiji-era Kurokabe bank from demolition in 1987, leading to the establishment of Kurokabe Inc., a third-sector enterprise funded by the city government and regional companies (*ibid.*). Traditional and modern glassware crafts drove Nagahama's development, with old structures renovated into shops, restaurants and galleries (*ibid.*). The project catalysed cultural development, attracting performing arts and events, leading to the creation of a regional regeneration centre in 1998 (*ibid.*). Nagahama's success demonstrates how heritage restoration and re-use can blend with specific cultural industries for urban revitalisation (*ibid.*). However, challenges like city centre depopulation and low overnight visitors persist, as seen in analogous cases in Kanazawa and Otaru (Kakiuchi, 2003).

India stands as a prime destination for cultural tourism, boasting rich histories and traditions ripe for exploration (Menon, 2014). With 38 sites listed on the World Heritage roster, including 30 cultural properties, India possesses a vast array of heritage assets, along with over 3 600 centrally protected monuments under the Archaeological Survey of India (ASI) (Archaeological Survey of India, 2019). Despite this abundance, urban areas face significant threats to national, state or locally important structures due to urban pressures,

neglect and vandalism (Sharma, 2015, 2018; Sharma and Sharm, 2017). Restoration efforts are visible in select areas, but cultural heritage issues remain largely unincorporated into urban planning frameworks (*ibid.*). Surat, experiencing rapid urbanisation, grapples with demands for sprawl and development, posing challenges to heritage conservation (Archaeological Survey of India, 2019; Rakeshkumar *et al.*, nd.). Historically, Surat's conservation efforts focused on safeguarding architectural remnants, including monuments attributed to Malek Gopi and the establishment of silk and cotton factories dating back to the 1600s (Directorate of Census Operations, 2011).

Interactions between heritage conservation, social cohesion, resilience and local identity are vital for fostering sustainable urban development. Policies focusing on heritage conservation can lead to a better appreciation of traditional housing and local heritage, encouraging a more responsible approach from developers and disaster management agencies (Resilient City and Heritage Conservation). Incorporating heritage-focused risk mitigation policies into urban planning frameworks can establish a discourse on sustainability and inclusive development, particularly in the context of climate change (Council of Europe, 2018). Local planning policies should account for the limitations and constraints regarding the demolition of traditional buildings, ensuring that community values are upheld and conservation policies are consistently endorsed (Gaur, 2012).

Cultural heritage serves as a platform for fostering contacts, exchanges and reciprocity among communities, emphasising active engagement rather than passive consumption (Throsby, 2008). With digital access to global sustainability agendas, younger generations in Surat are increasingly interested in visiting and restoring heritage sites, highlighting the importance of heritage tourism for local development (Rameshkuma, 2017). However, Surat's underdeveloped heritage tourism industry hampers the exploration and understanding of its cultural significance (Nocca, 2017). Despite this, Surat boasts a diverse socio-cultural fabric, with tangible and intangible heritage

elements contributing to its multidimensional identity (Giraud-Labelte, 2015). In Surat, urban heritage plays a crucial role in reinforcing the city's identity and integrating heritage conservation into local development processes (Girad, 2013). Recognising the interconnectedness of economic, social, cultural and environmental systems is essential for positioning cultural heritage as a central component of sustainable development (Throsby, 2008). By leveraging heritage conservation strategies, Surat can strengthen its resilience, enhance social cohesion and promote inclusive urban development, ultimately fostering a more sustainable and vibrant cityscape.

Many researchers have explored the relationship between social capital and cultural heritage (Kinghorn and Willis, 2008; Murzyn-Kupisz and Dziątek, 2013; Lak, Gheitasi and Timothy, 2020). Cultural heritage fosters a distinct sense of place and continuity, leading to higher self-esteem and place attachment (Graham *et al.*, 2009). Tangible and intangible cultural heritage influences social capital by developing local identity and a sense of community (Murzyn-Kupisz and Dziątek, 2013). Heritage sites often serve as cultural centres, facilitating trust and social networks (Sandell, 1998; Van Zyl, 2005; Lak, Gheitasi and Timothy, 2020;). Historic sites provide a foundation for non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and local authorities to promote social development (Harnley, 2005). Heritage organisations incorporate activities like clubs, discussions, exhibitions and tours to encourage new encounters and strengthen social capital (Novy, 2011; Murzyn-Kupisz and Dziątek, 2013). Heritage tourism significantly contributes to the local economy by creating businesses and jobs, and promoting cultural diversity (Harnley, 2005). It also garners public support for protecting cultural heritage properties (Novy, 2011; Murzyn-Kupisz, 2013). Heritage tourism offers visitors historical knowledge and entertainment while contributing to social development and enhancing the quality of life for local communities (Moscardo, 1998). Museums play a crucial role in social inclusion by engaging in cultural activities, civilising young people and providing a platform for social interaction and discussion on important issues (Sandell, 1998). Overall,

cultural heritage plays a vital role in promoting social cohesion, fostering community identity and contributing to the overall well-being of society.

While the UNESCO guidelines offer a framework for cultural heritage preservation, the practical implementation faces challenges in balancing preservation with social and economic development (Al-Hammadi and Alkaabi, 2021). Qatar's rich cultural history, spanning from Mesopotamian artifacts to modern-day developments, underscores the importance of safeguarding tangible and intangible heritage (World Heritage, 2014; Zahlan, 2016). The preservation of immaterial cultural heritage, including identities, languages and traditions, reflects Qatar's commitment to its cultural sensitivity (Al-Hammadi *et al.*, 2021). As Qatar continues its development journey, maintaining a strong emphasis on "Qatariness" remains integral to preserving its unique cultural identity amidst progress.

Despite efforts, heritage buildings in Cairo continue to deteriorate (Fowler, 1995; Ouf, 1995; Gharib, 2011). Previous projects lacked holistic adaptive re-use, lacking technical expertise and scientific methodology (Shehayeb and Sedky, 2002; Afify, 2007; Gharib, 2012). Integrating adaptive re-use into environmental upgrading projects could enhance Cairo's quality of life (Siravo, 2004; Boussaa, 2010). A paradigm shift is needed to integrate socio-economic factors into preservation (Bianca, 2004). Egypt's ancient civilisation underscores heritage conservation's importance for local development (Gerlach, 2009; Abdulhameed, 2017). Adaptive re-use addresses immediate needs, improving economic, environmental and social conditions (Bullen and Love, 2010). Conservation efforts should uplift socio-economic and environmental status (Bianca and Siravo, 2005; Gharib, 2011). Challenges faced by Cairo's old city centre include dense built-up, high residential density and poverty (Gharib, 2012). Poor public awareness and economic resources accelerate heritage deterioration (Antoniou, 2017). Adaptive re-use emerges as a practical conservation strategy (Rodwell, 2007). Integrating socio-economic considerations into preservation efforts is crucial for Cairo's sustainable development (Gharib, 2011).

The linkage between legally recognised heritage assets and tourism is vital for Tanzanian communities' socio-economic well-being. Tanzania boasts rich heritage assets like the Ruins of Kilwa Kisiwani, Zanzibar Stone Town and Ngorongoro Conservation Area (Chami, 2005; Moon, 2005; Kimaro, 2006). These sites, including Husuni Kubwa and Malindi Mosque, are UNESCO World Heritage-listed, offering insights into Swahili culture's growth (*ibid.*). Strategically located near pristine beaches, such as Kilwa Masoko, these sites attract tourists seeking diverse experiences like swimming and snorkelling (Ichumbaki, 2012; Masele, 2012). Tanzania's World Heritage Sites, complemented by scenic Kilwa beaches, promise to blend cultural heritage with tourism, benefiting local communities (*ibid.*). This synergy not only preserves Tanzania's historical fabric, but also fosters sustainable development and international engagement.

Morocco integrates heritage conservation with local development, evident in Fez Medina's UNESCO World Heritage status, promoting tourism while preserving cultural fabric (Istasse, 2016). Despite economic growth, Fez Medina's residents face challenges like rising prices, with 36% living below the poverty threshold in 2001 (Cernea, 2001; Bigio and Licciardi, 2010;). Modernisation efforts disrupt the historic fabric, necessitating vigilance against cultural commodification (Hassan, 2008). The Fez Medina project fosters economic growth, attracting private investment and creating jobs (Radoine, 2008; Bigio and Licciardi, 2010). However, harnessing tourism revenue through taxes remains a challenge (Dixon *et al.*, 1998). Proper taxation could yield around US\$11 million annually, demonstrating untapped financial opportunities (*ibid.*). European willingness to contribute US\$310 million underscores cultural heritage's perceived high value (World Bank, 1998). Tourism significantly contributes to Morocco's economy, constituting about 7% of the GDP and employing many (World Bank, 2001). Fez's craft industry, a major employer, reflects the sector's vibrancy (World Bank, 2001; UNESCO, 2009). Despite economic benefits, modernisation poses threats like foreign ownership and mass tourism's impact

(Bigio and Licciardi, 2010). The Fez Medina case highlights the intricate interplay between heritage preservation and socio-economic challenges. Addressing poverty and cultural commodification is vital for Morocco's cultural heritage's sustainable development.

In South Africa, rock art sites, even those on the World Heritage list, are not attracting high volumes of tourists. For example, Ndukuyake (2012) noted that tourism to three major rock art centres, Didima Camp, Wildebeest Kuil Rock Art Tourism Centre and the South African Museum of Rock Art (SAMORA), had remained subdued in terms of numbers. Duval and Smith (2014) note similar observations concerning rock art tourism in the UNESCO World Heritage uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park, again in South Africa. Elsewhere across the world, the fortunes of rock art tourism vary, with some sites, usually through state-organised visitor entities, faring well and others not (Duval, Gauchon and Benjamin 2017). Many UNESCO World Heritage Sites such as Great Zimbabwe, Tsodilo (Botswana), Twyfelfontein (Namibia), Kilwa Kisiwani (Tanzania) and the Cradle of Humankind (South Africa) have brought about infrastructural developments, employment opportunities and social cohesion and other various benefits to communities (Rivett-Carnac 2011; Ndoro 2015).

Colonial legislation in Zimbabwe lacked provisions for leveraging heritage for socio-economic development (Pwiti and Ndoro, 1999; Ndoro, 2004). Tourism development during colonial times primarily served foreign tourists or district commissioners, neglecting the benefit of local African communities. Despite political independence, heritage management practices have seen limited changes beyond conservation efforts (Ndoro and Chirikure, 2009). The UNESCO Report (YEAR?) highlights cultural tourism as a potential poverty reduction strategy by creating jobs and income. However, in Zimbabwe, political crises drastically reduce visitor numbers, leading to economic instability for entrepreneurs reliant on tourism (Ndoro, 2015). Archaeological heritage sites like Domboshava and Ngomakurira often complement wildlife

and scenic views, but economic viability is threatened by fluctuations in visitor numbers.

Large archaeological sites like Great Zimbabwe have spurred development in their vicinity (*ibid.*). Initiatives by the National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe (NMMZ) and UNESCO promote community involvement in heritage management, fostering projects such as theme parks showcasing traditional Shona life (Shadreck and Pwiti, 2008; Musiba, 2014). UNESCO World Heritage Sites like Great Zimbabwe have brought infrastructural development, employment opportunities and social cohesion to local communities (Rivett-Carnac, 2011). For instance, the Maropeng Visitor Centre at the Cradle of Humankind has generated thousands of jobs (Musiba, 2014).

While heritage sites in Zimbabwe hold significant potential for socio-economic development, challenges persist due to historical legacies and political instability. Collaborative efforts between government institutions, local communities and international organisations are essential for maximising the benefits of heritage tourism while addressing the vulnerabilities associated with economic dependence on visitor numbers. By integrating community participation and sustainable management practices, heritage sites can become catalysts for inclusive growth and cultural preservation in Zimbabwe and beyond.

CASE CONTEXT: GREAT ZIMBABWE WORLD HERITAGE SITE

Great Zimbabwe, located near Masvingo, in southern Zimbabwe, symbolises the historical richness of an African kingdom and holds profound national significance. Listed on the World Heritage List in 1986, the site has seen significant development, presenting both economic opportunities and conservation challenges. Managed under the traditional authority of three chiefs (Ndoro, 2015), the area has witnessed infrastructural improvements such as upgraded access roads, tourist lodges and a craft market, transforming it into a global tourist destination. Private-sector interest, spurred by its World Heritage status, has led to the establishment of hotels like the Great Zimbabwe Hotel by the African Sun Hotel group,

alongside other investments like conference centres and lodges, fostering local employment and economic growth.

However, the emphasis on tourism has adversely affected surrounding villages, leading to a decline in agricultural output and seasonal income fluctuations due to increased reliance on the craft sector (Ndoro, 2005). Moreover, the influx of settlers drawn by economic prospects has strained conservation efforts, resulting in heightened demand for resources like firewood and grazing land. The journey of Great Zimbabwe as a World Heritage Site underscores the delicate balance needed to harness economic benefits from tourism while mitigating negative impacts on local communities and conservation efforts. Achieving this equilibrium is crucial for its sustained success as a cultural heritage destination.

LESSONS DRAWN

The review offers a comprehensive exploration of various aspects related to protected areas, heritage conservation and socio-economic development. This section presents a coherent summary that links the key lessons.

The examination of protected areas demonstrates an evolving concept, transitioning from an exclusionary American model to a more inclusive approach globally. This evolution signifies a broader understanding that extends beyond conservation, now encompassing socio-economic factors and the well-being of local communities. Italy's innovative practices in protected areas illustrate the potential for these regions to serve as laboratories for sustainable and economically beneficial initiatives.

The success and establishment of protected areas are closely tied to political and institutional factors, emphasising the pivotal role of government policies and institutional frameworks. However, regional disparities in economic benefits, exemplified by Etna Park in Italy, reveal the need for targeted policies to address such challenges and ensure equitable growth. The review extends its focus to urban areas, particularly in South Asia, where heritage assets face threats from urbanisation. The case of Nagahama in Japan offers a positive example of how integrating heritage conservation with urban redevelopment not

only preserves cultural heritage, but also stimulates specific cultural industries, contributing to economic revitalisation.

Moving to North Africa, the challenges faced by heritage buildings in Cairo underline the continuous attention required for effective conservation strategies. Failures in previous adaptive re-use projects underscore the importance of comprehensive planning and technical expertise in such initiatives. The recommendation for a holistic approach to adaptive re-use highlights the necessity of integrating socio-economic considerations into environmental projects to enhance overall quality of life. The potential linkage between legally recognised heritage assets and tourism emerges as a crucial avenue for contributing to the socio-economic well-being of Tanzanian communities. This reinforces the economic potential of heritage sites and underscores the importance of leveraging them for tourism.

In Morocco, initiatives intertwining heritage conservation and local development demonstrate the economic growth and infrastructure improvements possible. However, challenges, such as balancing modernisation benefits with heritage preservation and addressing socio-economic inclusivity, need careful consideration. The case of Fez Medina in Morocco further emphasises the delicate interplay between heritage preservation, economic growth through tourism and socio-economic challenges. This underscores the need to balance economic benefits with the preservation of local identity and prevent cultural commodification.

The challenges in rock art tourism in South Africa highlight the importance of understanding and addressing factors affecting tourist numbers globally. The historical context of heritage management in Zimbabwe reveals a lack of consideration for socio-economic development in colonial legislation. This historical perspective underscores the need for inclusive heritage management practices. The UNESCO Report's (2018) argument that cultural tourism could help reduce poverty by creating jobs and generating income is highlighted in the context of Zimbabwe. This suggests the potential of cultural tourism as a strategy for poverty reduction when implemented

effectively. The examples of UNESCO World Heritage Sites, such as Great Zimbabwe and the Cradle of Humankind, bringing infrastructural developments, employment opportunities and social cohesion, underscore the potential benefits for local communities.

The case of Great Zimbabwe exemplifies the delicate balance between reaping economic benefits from tourism and mitigating negative impacts on local communities and the conservation of the site. This case underscores the importance of finding equilibrium for sustained success as a cultural heritage destination. In summary, the review provides a nuanced understanding of the interconnectedness between protected areas, heritage conservation and socio-economic development. It highlights the necessity of holistic approaches, inclusive strategies and the delicate balance required to ensure sustainable and meaningful outcomes for both heritage sites and local communities.

SETTING UP AND MODERATING APPROPRIATE INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS ACROSS DIFFERENT LAND USES

This academic analysis delves into the imperative need for the integration of heritage policies with urban planning, focusing on the city of Surat. Recognising the potential of cultural heritage in contributing to Surat's vision of resilience, smartness and sustainability, the study explores the challenges and recommendations for comprehensive heritage protection within urban planning frameworks. While effective in spatial control and regulation, the National Planning Act requires expansion to encompass cultural assets adequately (Riganti, 2017). Local planning policies must extend beyond monumentalism, considering traditional housing and local heritage, necessitating the integration of conservation principles into planning instruments (Bandarin and Oers, 2012). Recognition and appreciation of both tangible and intangible cultural heritage foster social cohesion, creating a sense of place and belonging. Surat's commitment to becoming resilient, smart and sustainable necessitates centralising heritage protection within urban planning.

Legislation worldwide is guided by three fundamental assumptions: protecting resources for present and future generations, enhancing cultural heritage understanding and extracting scientific information for historical interpretation. Heritage policies fundamentally revolve around the preservation of traditions, identity and culture (James and Winter, 2017). Governments, through specific departments or agencies, bear the responsibility to uphold, implement and advance heritage policies (Pendlebury, 2015). Governments should proactively consider how heritage may be affected and lay foundations through policies to safeguard heritage (Janssen *et al.*, 2014). The challenges identified necessitate a reevaluation of existing frameworks, with recommendations aligned with global perspectives on heritage legislation. The integration of heritage conservation principles into urban planning is pivotal for the sustainable and culturally rich development of cities (Janssen *et al.*, 2014; James and Winter, 2017).

Despite the absence of an official heritage policy in Qatar, concerted efforts by various sectors underscore a commitment to connecting the populace with their cultural legacy. This academic exploration investigates the endeavours of cultural, sporting, educational and natural resource sectors in crafting national heritage narratives with an emphasis on Qatar's original identity. The sports sector, exemplified by Qatar's 2018 entry into the 2022 World Cup, strategically integrates cultural heritage within international events (Timothy, 2011). Qatar's emergence as a global hub prompts the community to seek an understanding of Qatari culture, underscoring the significance of heritage policies (Timothy, 2011; Ashworth, 2014). Heritage policies are linked to increased tourist visits, translating to economic benefits for the retail, hospitality and transport sectors (Ashworth, 2014). Heritage policies contribute to residents' better understanding of their background and history, fostering a deeper connection to cultural identity (Salazar and Marques, 2005). Conservation efforts, especially the preservation of buildings and sites, significantly reduce landfill waste, energy use and pollution (Keitumetse, 2009). Heritage-focused educational programmes ensure future generations are equipped with tools and knowledge for cultural preservation (Henkel *et al.*, 2018). Establishing a centralised

model is imperative, necessitating long-term investment and the involvement of experts and managers for effective heritage policy implementation (Throsby, 2007). Governments play a crucial role in leadership and establishing holistic, practical, sustainable and integrated heritage policies (Pendlebury, 2015). In conclusion, heritage policies in Qatar extend beyond cultural preservation, providing social, economic and environmental advantages. A strategic, centralised and holistic approach is recommended for comprehensive heritage policy implementation, aligning with Qatar's societal and economic aspirations (Janssen *et al.*, 2014; James and Winter, 2017;).

The alignment of culture with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development underscores its multifaceted contributions to societal goals (UNESCO, 2014). Academics, civil society and international organisations, including the United Nations, UNESCO, ICOMOS and the World Bank, have collaboratively crafted policies and practical approaches for leveraging culture in economic development (UNESCO, 2005; Ndoro and Jaquinta, 2006; Marana, 2010; UN, 2012, 2014; Zaman, 2015). The United Nations recognised the imperative of integrating culture into developmental strategies, a sentiment that manifested in its Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (UNESCO, 2014). Empirical studies highlight the substantial contribution of culture to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of nations like Mali, Colombia and Brazil, affirming the economic significance of cultural heritage (UN, 2014). Recent reports indicate that culture and creative industries have the potential to contribute up to 10% of a nation's GDP, emphasising the tangible economic value embedded in cultural heritage (UNESCO, 2018). The global recognition of cultural heritage as an economic development tool signifies a paradigm shift in approaching sustainable development. As nations increasingly integrate culture into their policy frameworks, the economic impact of cultural heritage emerges as a pivotal aspect of a nation's GDP and, consequently, a driver for sustainable economic progress.

In Tanzania, the legal framework for heritage resource protection is intricate, encompassing both cultural and natural properties. The Cultural Heritage Policy of 2008, a cornerstone developed by the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism,

forms the basis for safeguarding cultural properties. Complemented by the Antiquities Law (Amended in 1979 and 1985) and the National Museums Act of 1980, these regulations collectively establish a robust foundation for cultural heritage protection. The legal landscape extends to wildlife, forest reserves and marine parks, each governed by specific laws such as the Wildlife Conservation Act of 1974, the Forestry Ordinance of 1957 and the Marine Parks and Reserves Act of 1994. Tanzania's approach aligns with broader development strategies, emphasising the economic benefits of cultural heritage in tourism and entrepreneurship, as outlined in the poverty reduction strategy Mkukuta II.

Conversely, in Egypt, existing legislations, notably Law No. 117 of 1983 for the protection of antiquities and Law 144 of 2006 for the protection of architectural heritage, primarily focus on physical preservation, neglecting the potential socio-economic benefits of adaptive reuse. These laws establish the legal framework for the protection of antiquities and cultural heritage, imposing strict penalties for unauthorised activities. Historical laws, such as Law No. 14 of 1912 and Law No. 8 of 1918, were introduced to safeguard specific categories of antiquities. However, the focus remains on physical conservation, lacking emphasis on adaptive re-use and broader socio-economic considerations.

At an African level, the African Union (AU) Charter for African Cultural Renaissance (2006) emphasises the role of heritage in the political, economic and social liberation of society. However, practical implementation has yet to fully align with these ideals. Heritage management practices in Africa still bear traces of colonial influence and the ratification of the 1972 World Heritage Convention has reinforced state-based management systems, sidelining local communities. Despite these challenges, culture has found a place in regional developmental policy frameworks, such as the African Union's Agenda 2063, indicating a commitment to leveraging cultural assets for progress.

The challenge of ownership rights to archaeological sites and surrounding land is evident, with current laws designating the

National Museums and Monuments of Zimbabwe as the authority responsible for their preservation. However, the legal framework lacks clarity on the utilisation of cultural heritage as a resource by individuals and communities. The existing legislation is primarily prohibitive, outlining punitive measures for heritage destruction (NMMZ Act 25:11 of 1972). In rural areas, obtaining written consent from traditional chiefs and rural district councils is essential for projects altering communal land use rights. This proactive step can prevent conflicts, especially post-project implementation.

Across Southern Africa, the highest national-level designation for monuments is commonly the "national monument", a classification shared by Botswana, Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe. This designation aims to legally recognise monuments of national significance. While Zimbabwe boasts nearly 12 000 registered sites, including approximately 200 with colonial roots, the focus of the 172 declared national monuments leans heavily toward colonial heritage. Like other Southern African countries (excluding South Africa, which introduced relevant legislation in 1999), Zimbabwe's legal framework remains silent on intangible aspects of heritage.

The definition of an ancient monument underscores the basic criteria for receiving protection under the law. It includes any building, ruin, relic or land area with historical, archaeological, palaeontological, or other scientific value (National Monuments Act (1972) 25, 11). Addressing these legal gaps and ambiguities is crucial for fostering a comprehensive approach to heritage management, ensuring the protection of both tangible and intangible aspects of Zimbabwe's rich cultural legacy.

CASE CONTEXT

Zimbabwe safeguards its cultural heritage through specific regulations outlined in the National Museums and Monuments Act, a pivotal law shaping the country's approach to cultural preservation. The Act delineates the parameters of Zimbabwean cultural heritage, revealing the government's strategic agenda. Notably, there is a proclivity to exclude recent phenomena, resulting in the limited protection of the British presence under

the cultural law's purview (National Museums and Monuments Act, 2001).

The 1984 revision of the National Museums and Monuments Act marked a significant shift, diminishing the influence of the British, as their historical connections lost legal protection. This legislative evolution, encapsulated in the Act, extends its coverage to both the Ndebele and Shona communities (Matenga 2011:59). With the majority of Ndebele presence dating back to the late 1700s and early 1800s, their cultural heritage finds legal protection. This modification could also be construed as an effort to emphasise the Shona people, given that research indicates the predominant contribution of Shona ancestors to monumental cultural heritage. By explicitly highlighting ruins and larger structures, the focus accentuates the cultural legacy left behind by the Shona.

The National Museums and Monuments Act serves a dual purpose: it unifies the black majority by excluding the white minority population, while concurrently reinforcing the historical legitimacy of the Shona people. Examining a specific heritage site protected by this law, Great Zimbabwe exemplifies the quintessential inclusion within the framework of Zimbabwe's cultural heritage. Functioning as a cult site, boasting well-preserved ruins and predating 1890, Great Zimbabwe epitomises a location strategically aligned with the cultural heritage narrative. The revisions to the National Museums and Monuments Act seemingly aimed to anchor Great Zimbabwe more closely with Shona's cultural identity. Thus, the Act emerges as a key instrument in shaping the national discourse on what constitutes Zimbabwe's cultural heritage.

The analysis of heritage policies and urban planning from the broader global, regional and local perspectives yields several valuable lessons. The potential of cultural heritage in contributing to the resilience, smartness, and sustainability of cities must be recognised. Existing urban planning frameworks to adequately encompass cultural assets have to be expanded, moving beyond mere spatial control and regulation. Local planning policies should extend beyond monumentalism, incorporating traditional housing and local heritage and

integrate conservation principles into planning instruments to ensure comprehensive heritage protection. Recognition and appreciation of both tangible and intangible cultural heritage foster social cohesion, creating a sense of place and belonging. Heritage protection must be centralised within urban planning to align with the city's vision of resilience, smartness and sustainability.

Globally, heritage policies revolve around preserving traditions, identity and culture. Governments, through specific departments or agencies, bear the responsibility to uphold, implement and advance heritage policies. Policies contribute to economic benefits in retail, hospitality and transport sectors, linked to increased tourist visits. Conservation efforts, especially in preserving buildings and sites, significantly reduce landfill waste, energy use and pollution. There is need to establish a centralised model for heritage policy implementation, requiring long-term investment and the involvement of experts and managers. Governments play a crucial role in leadership and establishing holistic, practical, sustainable and integrated heritage policies. There should be an alignment of culture with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, recognising its multifaceted contributions to societal goals. Culture should be integrate into developmental strategies, as highlighted in the SDGs. Cultural heritage has a substantial economic impact, contributing to the GDP of nations and supporting sustainable economic progress. Integration of culture into policy frameworks signifies a paradigm shift in approaching sustainable development.

There is need to develop intricate legal frameworks for heritage resource protection, encompassing both cultural and natural properties. Heritage protection must be aligned with broader development strategies, emphasising economic benefits in tourism and entrepreneurship; legal gaps and ambiguities in heritage management laws addressed to foster a comprehensive approach; and ensure the protection of both tangible and intangible aspects of cultural heritage. There is need to recognise the strategic evolution of heritage laws, such as in the case of Zimbabwe's National Museums and Monuments Act and understand the implications of legislative changes, including

shifts in influence and emphasis on specific cultural identities. Heritage laws can play a dual role in unifying communities and reinforcing historical legitimacy, while also excluding specific populations. Inclusivity and respect must be promoted for diverse cultural identities in the development of heritage protection legislation.

CONCLUSION

The analysis of heritage policies and urban planning underscores their profound implications for global, regional and local sustainable development. Integrating heritage policies into urban planning is pivotal for fostering resilient, smart and sustainable cities worldwide. Cultural heritage not only enhances social cohesion, but also drives economic, social and environmental progress. A global consensus on heritage preservation principles prioritises protecting resources for future generations and fostering cultural understanding. Governments play a crucial role in upholding these principles, leveraging cultural heritage for economic growth and identity preservation. Challenges, such as ownership rights and legal ambiguities, persist but are being addressed through evolving heritage laws.

Specific cases like Surat, Qatar, Tanzania and Egypt, highlight the importance of context-specific heritage policies. Inclusivity and addressing regional disparities are vital for effective heritage preservation. Heritage policies serve as tools for connecting communities with their cultural legacy, fostering social well-being and understanding of history. The strategic integration of cultural heritage into international agendas and sustainable development goals demonstrates its multifaceted role in society. A holistic approach to heritage preservation, encompassing economic, social and environmental dimensions, is essential for long-term sustainability. Heritage policies are instrumental in shaping resilient and culturally vibrant communities. Governments, communities and international bodies must collaborate to integrate heritage preservation into urban planning effectively. This approach acknowledges the profound impact of cultural heritage on economic prosperity, social cohesion and environmental sustainability, ensuring a prosperous future for generations to come.

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Succession Planning in International Humanitarian Organisations in South Sudan

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Abstract

The article explores succession planning in international humanitarian organisations in South Sudan, as succession planning is central to business continuity. For organisations to function successfully and sustainably, there is need for a clear leadership succession plan wherein the incumbent prepares their replacement by imparting the knowledge and vision of the organisation. Business leadership was used as the conceptual framework guiding the study. The study utilised a qualitative methodology with a bias towards the descriptive research design. Purposive sampling was used as a sampling method. The study used in-depth interviews and narrative data analysis for data collection. A review of the literature was drawn from facts from books, journal articles and policy documents. For data analysis, the study used textual analysis. The study found that humanitarian organisations use the identification of pivotal positions to plan succession. The findings show that humanitarian organisations use a system of assessing job performance for planning succession. The study indicated that humanitarian organisations utilise strategic leadership development to plan succession.

Keywords: talent pool, business continuity, departure, workforce development, lifeblood

INTRODUCTION

The development of succession plans enables business continuity in an organisation should the current leadership or management leave the organisation for various reasons (Lowan and Chisoro, 2016). However, despite its importance, there

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remains a gap in understanding how succession planning is implemented and its effectiveness within humanitarian organisations. This study aims to address this gap by examining current practices, challenges and implications of succession planning in the context of humanitarian organisations. Business continuity refers to the organisation's ability to ensure that qualified employees are always available and in place to carry out its plethora of job functions (Collings *et al.*, 2017). Developing the potential for business continuity is a top priority in the humanitarian sector. As part of a broader human resource (HR) planning framework, succession planning is just one strategy that can help or support the organisation to address HR issues related to the ageing workforce, increasing retirement eligibility, negative net migration, shrinking population, potential skill shortages and internal competency. Succession planning also ensures a smooth handover of power sharing and knowledge retention when experts leave the organisation (Lowan and Chisoro, 2016). Succession planning is a key strategic tool for organisational survival and competitive advantage in the knowledge economy. Organisations should give due care (Nel *et al.*, 2008). When succession planning policies are in place, employees' needs are balanced and suitable replacements are easily identified to fill senior positions (*ibid.*). To understand the area under investigation, succession planning is defined as the systematic organisational effort to ensure the entity's continued existence to maintain and develop new competencies and to leverage its development based on a strategic view of what is expected (Lowan and Chisoro, 2016). Understanding challenges inherent in succession planning for non-profit organisations is essential for grasping the broader implications of this study. Subsequent sections will look into these challenges, highlighting the complexities faced by non-profit leaders and the potential repercussions of inadequate succession planning strategies.

A mission and vision drive non-profit organisations and they establish themselves in regions around the world to do work that fulfils specific needs (Jules, 2021). The work of non-profits must be long-lasting and consistent as they serve, grow and change over time (*ibid.*). However, grave challenges threaten the non-profit sector, which is likely to either reduce its

effectiveness or bring about the coming in of other non-profit organisations that challenge its failed effectiveness and planning for the inevitable departure of present leaders, also known as a succession planning (Hopkins *et al.*, 2014). Due to ongoing obligations to cover administrative costs and recurring pressures of programme spending, many non-profits are believed to under-invest in their staff development, including leadership development (Selden and Sowa, 2015). It is key to address these challenges to prevent the potential consequences of not having effective succession planning strategies in place.

Norris-Tirrell *et al.* (2018) posit that most non-profits do not have a succession plan to fill leadership vacancies. Succession planning can be defined in two ways. Traditionally, succession planning is a structured process involving identifying and preparing a potential successor to assume a new role (Bozer *et al.*, 2015). Rothwell (2010) defines succession management as an organisation's deliberate and systematic effort to ensure leadership continuity in key positions, retain and develop intellectual and knowledge capital for the future and encourage individual advancement. Succession management is the resourcing strategy that ensures continuity of tasks by balancing organisational needs in terms of competencies and personal attributes with available resources (Galjot, 2018). Succession planning is an ongoing process where future leaders are identified and developed to move them into leadership roles (Jules, 2021). To be more specific to the leadership role, succession planning is the process that plans organisational transference from one executive to another and involves the selection and appointment of successors either with or outside the organisation (Bozer *et al.*, 2015).

A benefit of succession planning is that it ensures continuity of leadership in an organisation to plan and be ready for and manage future challenges by preparing leaders to fill positions of both planned and unplanned leader departure (Varhegyi and Japsen, 2017). Among the many challenges in non-profit organisations' leadership succession planning is scepticism about hiring outside successors to fill vacant leadership positions (McKee and Froelich, 2016). Non-profit leaders are compelled and propelled by a passion for the mission and vision

of their specific organisational culture and being effective in their role (*ibid.*). The speed of change has been increasing. Challenges are becoming increasingly complex and employees, especially those in positions with the most significant impacts on business results, need to make sense of these challenges and fight them (Day, 2007). Furthermore, a talent war has emerged because many retiring are more than those entering the workforce market (Galjot, 2018). The study explores succession planning in humanitarian organisations.

BACKGROUND

DEFINITION OF SUCCESSION PLANNING

Succession planning is anticipating and then planning the replacement of essential employees in an organisation (Cappelli, 2011). Succession planning is creating a plan for what will happen when a leadership gap occurs and a new leader is needed (Jules, 2021). Succession planning is suggested to be a proactive planned and long-term strategy that addresses and meets future leadership needs of the organisation (Vanderbloom, 2015). Essentially, succession planning is a conscious decision by an organisation to foster and promote the continual development of employees and ensure that key positions maintain some measure of stability, thus enabling an organisation to achieve business objectives and continuity (Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 2008). Benefits of succession planning include providing members of an organisation an a career path that is supported and projected towards their success and growth. It retains and develops talent within the organisation while increasing productivity and leaders increase their skills and become motivated. It shows concern for and reinforcement of the organisation's mission, vision and goals while fostering a robust organisational culture. Finally, it allows organisations to receive a return on their investment by decreasing the time and resources used to recruit and orient new employees (Kippist, 2013).

Succession planning is a key ingredient in developing an inclusive and diverse pipeline. Collings *et al.* (2017) observe that succession planning is Talent Management's forgotten but critical tool in the talent-management toolkit because it is the

element of talent management concerned with planning for and putting in place the human capital to perform the tasks necessary to advance the organisation's strategy. Specifically,

Succession planning describes a process of anticipating and then planning for the replacement of important employees in an organisation... It is an organisational practice or system of practices for addressing succession events (Cappelli, 2011:673).

A fundamental assumption of succession planning is that internal development and work-based learning will prepare candidates to fill future openings (*ibid.*).

Organisations can run with a lean staff without well-considered succession planning or maintain surplus workforce capacity (Reilly *et al.*, 2014). If organisations run with a lean workforce, they find it difficult to re-staff after departures and have to quickly identify, recruit, select and train workers (Cappelli, 2011). Waiting until the need arises means that the organisation constantly performs with suboptimal talent. These problems are exacerbated by turnover increases or firms' growth, creating new staffing needs (Reilly *et al.*, 2014). While succession planning can help organise and prepare talent, the implementation of succession plans rarely achieves the desired smoothness of transition (Cappelli, 2008). Naturally, it is often difficult to forecast future talent demand because it requires knowing how the organisation will grow and strategically respond to such growth, neither of which is easily predictable (Cappelli and Keller, 2017).

Training the successor and formulating a vision for the company after succession can be added to this set of activities that are both the responsibility of the incumbent or transitioning leader (Jules, 2021). A succession plan is also essential because, without one, a critical mass of knowledge is leaving the organisation with limited replacement opportunities (*ibid.*). Simply put, by not developing a succession plan, organisations could fail to pass down knowledge about the organisation, including important managerial and leadership skills (Earls and Hall, 2018). Rothwell (2016) posits that succession planning and management are important for several reasons. If the organisation intends to have longevity, it must

make intentional steps to have the right people in the right places. Unfortunately, fewer people are advancing to higher-level positions in their organisations due to changes in their economic structure.

OVERVIEW OF SUCCESSION PLANNING

Rothwell (2005) introduced a succession planning model that identifies seven steps for systematic succession planning and management: to commit, assess present work, appraise individual performance, assess future work, assess future individual potential, close the development gap and to evaluate the succession planning programme. In his model, he mentioned that promotion from within the organisation is vital because, for succession planning to be effective, the organisation must have some means to replace key job incumbents as vacancies occur in their positions. Promotion from within also provides important benefits. The employer can initially check the references of existing employees easily. Second, the cost of promoting from within an organisation is often lower than hiring from outside (*ibid.*). The process of succession planning within leadership and institutions in Africa is faced with various obstacles that arise from distinct socio-economic, cultural and infrastructural factors (Matagi, 2023). There are numerous global polarising agents, but currently, the worst of those are racism, religion, gender, ethnicity and politics which stand as obstacles to succession planning in Africa and the majority of Africans are zealots of either one or others (*ibid.*). These problems are not common in the other global regions, but are limited to Africa because succession planning has not been prioritised with most leaders pulling the ethnic or racial card to stay in office forever (Siambi, 2022).

Around the beginning of the twentieth century, Fayol (1916), a management specialist, suggested that succession planning could be a great strategy for keeping a company stable. The idea behind this technique is to create a pipeline for leadership continuity at all levels of the organisation. Fayol believed that for a company to continue thriving and competing, its leaders should start developing the necessary leadership skills and

traits for long-term success. He warned that if businesses react only to the need for leadership continuity, they risk filling senior positions with unqualified successors (*ibid.*). Fayol (*ibid.*) divided management responsibilities into planning, organising, coordinating, commanding and controlling. Stability is guaranteed by management by having the right employees at the right place as it contributes to the psychological well-being of employees, provides employees with time to understand their work in-depth, increases their efficiency and accountability and plans and, therefore, ensures business runs smoothly when disruptions occur in the organisation (Fayol, 1949). Altogether, these increase productivity and willingness to perform well and contribute to company growth (Galjot, 2018). On the other hand, if the principle is violated, employees might feel unsafe, resulting in under-performance and non-willingness to participate (*ibid.*). Consequently, an organisation must deal with unexploited under-utilised resources or failure to meet business objectives. Time, effort and money spent on recruitment, training and development of unsatisfied workers will go to waste (Fayol, 1949).

Succession planning occurred in Europe after the Second World War due to numerous deaths, followed by promotions in organisations in replacement planning, rather than succession planning (Sloan and Rogelberg, 2016). Rothwell (2010) defined succession planning as identifying critical management positions starting at the level of project manager, supervisor and extending up to the highest position in the organisation. Succession planning also describes management positions to provide maximum flexibility in lateral management moves and to ensure that as individuals achieve greater seniority, their management skills broaden and become more generalised concerning total organisational objectives rather than purely departmental ones (Galjot, 2018). Galjot (*ibid.*) defines succession planning as a systematic information-gathering process aiming to find one or more successors to a position or an employee who carries out tasks that are important for organisational performance. However, finding a successor is not sufficient. The successor needs to be developed, trained and

prepared to take over tasks from a person leaving his position (Day, 2007).

In the African context, many young African managers have expressed their frustration about being present but not having a voice (Matagi, 2023). They feel pressured to act as mere observers, under the guise of being mentored for future leadership roles. The process of succession planning within leadership and institutions in Africa is faced with various obstacles that arise from distinct socio-economic, cultural and infrastructural factors.. Leadership succession planning has become increasingly important and new frameworks and cycles have been developed to advance approaches to this process. These constructs have been introduced to promote the proactive preparation of successors for leadership roles. However, Clark (2015) warns that there can be no success if there are no successors to the mission.

In the majority of academic institutions, management is rarely empowered to identify, archive or retrieve organisational knowledge. Instead, most organisational knowledge is often lost with the resignation or retirement of employees, leading to a steep learning curve for new employees, wasted productivity and redundant employee efforts. Most higher education institutions do not have a formal succession planning framework in place. Any succession planning or knowledge retention practices are ad hoc, at best, uniform format across departments. The lack of succession planning within higher education institutions is the market norm (Villien, 2023)

Mutambara and Mutambara (2012), in a study of challenges of talent management in non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in Zimbabwe, found that 72% of employees felt that their respective organisations were not engaging in succession planning for key personnel. This is a clear testimony that succession planning efforts were deficient. However, comments from the management of these organisations suggest that the nature of humanitarian work and the limited scope of activities, short funding cycles and lack of certainty, defy any logical long-

term investment in employees. Certain issues in the International Federation of the Red Cross (IFRC) leadership in major emergencies were presented in a study conducted in by BRC (2011), which emphasised the need for an experienced pool of humanitarian aid leaders. The study indicated a lack of experienced leaders, leading to unfilled positions on one hand, and to deployments of a small group of experienced people time and again, on the other. The latter caused stress reactions, burnout, rapid turnover of staff in emergencies and poor programme delivery. Also, a need for clear authority to make high-level decisions in the field is mentioned in the study, which raised some concerns, especially in the case of lack of authority in decision-making situations.

SUCCESSION MANAGEMENT

Trends in the global village, such as technology, changing immigration laws and globalisation of production, are changing how organisations conduct their operations (Hill, 2010). The changing demographics of the global village, greater opportunities and deregulation of immigration rules compound the loss of key staff in organisations (Lowan and Chisoro, 2016). The goal of succession management is like one of succession planning. It aims to identify and develop current and future successors (Galjot, 2018). However, succession management considers the dynamics of the business environment. Real-time occurrence plays a role in succession management but is omitted in succession planning (Rothwell, 2010). In comparison, succession management is seen as more proactive, elaborate, deliberate, systematic and integrated (Berke, 2005). These characteristics of succession management result if conducted well in an entire pool of better-prepared employees, instead of just a list of candidates commonly resulting from succession planning (Galjot, 2018).

WHY SUCCESSION MANAGEMENT NOW?

The world of work is changing and no organisation can assume that essential talent will always be available. There are many reasons for this change, including:

- Demographic shifts: In many countries, leadership and skills gaps present an ever-growing challenge as the post-war generation moves into retirement. Younger generations lack the sheer numbers or the necessary skills to fill the void. In many emerging markets, numerous ambitious young workers are offset by gaps in knowledge and skills and the lack of middle and senior management to lead them.
- Skills shortages and mismatches: Despite high levels of unemployment worldwide, many positions go unfilled. Around the world, graduating students often lack the skills and work experience to compete for today's highly specialised roles.
- The rise of globalism: A company is no longer competing with another company down the street for talent, but with companies worldwide. Companies scour the globe for talent and workers no longer need to collaborate with colleagues on the same continent. The best talent has always had options but now, they have even more.
- Lack of engagement in the workforce: The top performers in the organisation are not the only ones with options.
- The changing nature of work: Traditional ideas about "full-time employment" have been obliterated over the past decade. If the organisation has not already, expect to see more contract and contingent labour, flex schedules, job sharing, retirees working part-time and other work arrangements which were unthinkable not that long ago. Further challenging the notion of "traditional careers" are the Generation X and Millennial populations, who carry high expectations for new and challenging work assignments. The relationship between people and where they work has never been less permanent. To attract and retain great talent, you need to show them what is in it for them.

Consequently, succession management requires the most resources and support from top management that can see its value. Hence, it integrates it into daily operations by giving feedback, coaching and helping employees realise their potential

(Rothwell, 2010). Interest in succession management expanded greatly in the 1980s by researching successor origin, organisation size succession rate, post-succession performance, role of corporate boards, decision-making process and the system itself (Galjot, 2018). However, most focused on CEO succession only (Kesner and Sebora, 1994). The importance of succession management has increased significantly over the past 10 years (Berke, 2005). The reason is that when executives were preparing for retirement, critical positions were vacant for too long or ill-prepared people got promoted (Galjot, 2018). Succession management is a resourcing strategy that helps balance demand and supply by tying an organisation's available potential successors to its future needs, encouraging skills analysis and the job-filling process (Day, 2007). As a result, it supports attaining strategic and operational objectives by having the right people at the right time and place doing the right things to achieve the right results. Therefore, it can be a source of competitive advantage (Rothwell, 2010).

It is important to note that contemporary succession planning should not be done without the broader HR/workforce planning process. Specifically, a gap analysis might identify succession planning as one of several priority strategies for the organisation which identifies the competencies required for specific jobs. All positions have a requisite set of knowledge, skills and abilities that are expected of employees filling that function. Thus, knowing the competencies of a job is a mandatory component of recruitment, serving as a general baseline to measure against interested potential candidates. However, succession planning provides an opportunity to review job competencies, particularly concerning current goals and objectives (Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, 2008).

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The concept that laid the grounding for this study is the leadership model developed by companies that wanted to change the existing leadership structure which has dominated business strategies and direction (Ochieng, 2016). Lacoma (2017) observes that a leadership model is a theoretical

framework for how to best manage employees involving how to encourage organisational continuation. Ibrahim *et al.* (2001) affirm that the sole mandate of the leadership concept is to ensure succession planning is in place to maintain redundancy in management and draft retirement programmes for retiring managers (Ochieng, 2016). The model also ensures that new leaders are well-groomed and established to take over an organisation's responsibility to prevent future conflicts of interest (*ibid.*). Consequently, the concept also depicts how thriving organisations can manoeuvre without the presence of their founders. This means that corporations, not-for-profits or cooperatives, have somewhat related projections but are fundamentally separated from the founders (*ibid.*). Bjuggren and Sund (2001) support this by acclaiming that companies should strategise succession planning programmes early by instituting continuous operations which simulate how an organisation will continue to thrive without its founders. However, Bjuggren and Sund (*ibid.*) advise that leadership model theory will highly depend on the leadership style in place, because succession planning varies depending on how an organisation is managed (Ochieng, 2016). This concept was adopted in this study as it provides a useful structure for defining the organisation's management and how organisational continuation can be achieved. The leadership model serves as the conceptual structure that explains what makes a leader great, The style represents the pattern of leadership behaviours such as planning succession for future uncertainties (Robertson, 2016). This theory is appropriate for this study as it depicts what makes great leaders great and succession planning is part of that package. Hongyun *et al.* (2020) observe that the leadership model involves a leadership style that is transformational leadership which involves the leaders achieving success through open lines of communication, communicating even through succession. This makes this conceptual framework applicable to the study as it dives into succession planning.

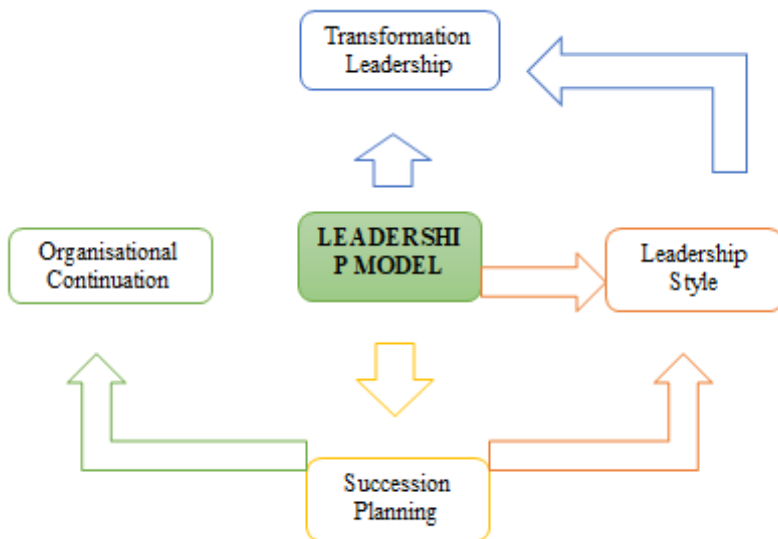


Figure 1: Leadership Model for Succession Planning in Humanitarian Organisations

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology employed in this study was based on a qualitative approach with a descriptive research design. This design was chosen to investigate the current trends in succession planning within humanitarian organisations in South Sudan, as outlined by Kothari *et al.* (2005). The target population consisted of supervisors and field workers affiliated to the International Federation of Red Cross (IFRC) and Red Crescent Societies operating in South Sudan. The IFRC, as the world's largest humanitarian network, provided an extensive context for the study, with a focus on its operations, principles and organisational structure. A sample size of 10 participants, representing 50% of the managerial population in the IFRC South Sudan, was selected purposefully to facilitate in-depth exploration while minimising measurement errors and biases, in line with Creswell's recommendations (2016). The participants, comprising both South Sudanese nationals and expatriates, were selected to provide diverse perspectives on succession planning. The data collection method employed was in-depth interviews, allowing for rich and nuanced insights into

participants' experiences and perceptions. Thematic data analysis was then utilised to identify patterns and themes within the data. Throughout the research process, ethical considerations were paramount, including obtaining informed consent, ensuring confidentiality, maintaining anonymity and respecting participants' privacy, as stressed by Creswell (*ibid.*). Overall, the methodology employed in this study aimed to rigorously explore the phenomenon of succession planning within humanitarian organisations, adhering to sound research principles and ethical standards.

RESULTS

With organisations losing upper-level managers due to retirement, resignations and organisational restructuring exercises, the number of potential upper-level managers is also reduced. Organisations might collapse without a proper succession planning process or find it difficult to move forward. This section presents succession planning in humanitarian organisations. The results discuss succession planning along the lines of identifying pivotal positions for succession planning, assessing job performance to inform succession planning and strategic leader development.

IDENTIFYING KEY POSITIONS FOR SUCCESSION PLANNING

The participants were asked to provide how succession planning was planned for key positions at the IFRC. The respondents indicated that all positions are key and some showed mixed feelings about what they considered key positions. One participant said:

Key positions given special recognition here at IFRC are those of senior level who attend annual general meetings and contribute towards key decisions. I think a procedure is followed for the succession of these positions and it is done at the discretion of leadership. Managers inform employees at their performance appraisal that they have been identified as a successor. It is the managers and upper-level management that identify successors for key positions.

Some participants did not believe there was anything different about positions, as they viewed every position as a key position. The participants argued that every position was key as the

organisation hires for every position, meaning there will be a gap if the position is not filled. A participant said:

Looking at the programme and criteria used to choose a successor, we define a key position as those identified as key project personnel. However, I do not think we should look at that, as I do not believe that is how it should be. It must be understood that everyone is key and our positions should not be driven by work done in the past but by collective organisational goal accomplishment.

Some participants believed that directors determined key positions and it was they who approved the identification of successors for key positions as they were the ones who approved the approach to groom the successor. The participant said:

The key position identification is in the hands of the directors and it is these that determine how key positions are identified for succession planning. These directors approve the training and grooming of the successor by the office's incumbent. Without their approval, a successor cannot be chosen or trained. Competition with other organisations for talent also affects succession planning as some staff resign for greener pastures.

These results have shown powerplays in the succession planning at the IFRC as the successors are chosen after identifying key positions. If the position is not deemed key, there can be a power vacuum after the departure of the incumbent. It is also clear that competition from other humanitarian organisations affects succession planning at the IFRC.

The participants also indicated that potential successors are selected from talent pools. Line managers and senior management undertake this process. One participant noted;

Mainly, successors are selected from talent pools after going through talent reviews. It is the responsibility of supervisors and managers to review the suitability of employees to be in the talent pools. But little is known in terms of the selection criteria.

SYSTEM OF ASSESSING JOB PERFORMANCE TO INFORM SUCCESSION PLANNING

The other category used in succession planning at the IFRC is a system that assesses job performance to inform succession planning. Participants indicated that the organisation's goal is biased towards the ethos of winning or goal accomplishment

and attaining recognition for international standards. One participant said:

I think leaders must know that when they come into the position, there are people under them and as part of your being a supervisor, it is part of your responsibility to groom them. Choosing who to groom is done based on the job performance assessment.

Some participants did not view job assessment performance to inform succession planning but, rather, as evaluating a person for the current job. A participant said:

IFRC does have a system of job performance assessment. However, it is not solely systematised towards grooming successors, but for assessing a person for the job, it is working to see where improvements are needed. We do job performance assessments to evaluate the current position, not career progression.

Another section of the respondents indicated that job assessment performances were used by management to know the performances of the employees and to choose whom to set up for succession. One participant said:

I think the purpose of leadership is to know your performance so that when you get to a certain position, you can work and maximise the output of those under you. Thus, performance assessments are used to measure whether a person is suitable for leadership because they look at how well one works with others in a team.

The findings indicated different views towards job assessment at the IFRC, as some believe this system is used to assess people for promotion and identification of gaps in skills.

STRATEGIC LEADER DEVELOPMENT

The participants indicated this as the succession planning strategy that the IFRC uses. Participants indicated that this is an agency's strategic vision and recruiting strategy. One participant said:

This is a strategic vision identification leadership and managerial skill that the management at the organisation looks for when recruiting a successor. The organisation looks for talented individuals with these skills, especially vision to move the organisation forward after the departure of the current leadership.

For some participants, succession planning within the organisation was a matter of continuity even after the current leaders' departure. For this to happen, there was need for strategic leader grooming. One of the participants said:

It is imperative to use strategic leadership development to choose a leader with a vision and managerial skills and groom him by the incumbent, harnessing his skills in combination with the organisational vision and knowledge imparted by the incumbent.

These findings indicate that for succession planning to generate value, the organisation should have strategic leadership development. Participants indicated that strategic individuals with vision and managerial skills are chosen and trained for succession by the incumbent. According to one participant, the HR unit should create a conducive environment for succession planning in the IFRC. He highlighted that,

HR should be at the forefront of facilitating the succession planning process and discussion to ensure credibility and transparency. Ambiguity is not helpful and creates confusion.

DISCUSSION

The findings indicate that the succession planning used by humanitarian organisations in South Sudan is identifying pivotal positions and grooming individuals with the talent to replace the incumbent upon retirement or resignation. Identifying and assessing potential candidates is the primary focus of succession planning. The key purpose of identifying and assessing employees against core job competencies is to help focus their learning and development opportunities to prepare them for future organisational roles. Traditional approaches to succession planning can result in a one-sided selection process – the organisation identifies a key position. Then, executives select a high-potential individual for preparation or training. Given the potential sensitivity around the decision-making process in these situations, an employee might be advised about their prospective private advancement opportunity. This process is not transparent and can negatively impact the morale of other employees (including the person chosen for succession) and their relationship with the organisation. Modern approaches to succession planning suggest that transparency and accountability are the best practices for an organisation. Recruitment should be based on merit, fairness and respect, which are maintained and supported by the succession planning process. To demonstrate these values, succession planning must be objective, independent of personal bias, merit-based, communicated to and understood by all employees and transparent at all process stages.

The findings show that it is management at the top level that identifies key positions which urgently need succession and grooms successors for these positions to create a smooth transition when the incumbent of such position vacates office. The study reveals that using such a strategy is unreliable as all roles are essential and prioritising key roles can lead to workforce vacuums in the other roles which do not have successors groomed. The identification of pivotal positions is of paramount importance to succession planning and talent management. In line with this succession planning is the conceptual framework of the leadership model as observed by Robertson (2016). Great leaders identify key positions and plan succession before the time arrives. This is evident in Collings and Mellahi's (2009:304) definition of talent management as they describe it as:

the systematic identification of key positions which differentially contribute to the organisation's sustainable competitive advantage, the development of a talent pool of high-potential and high-performing incumbents to fill these roles and the development of a differentiated human resource architecture to facilitate filling these positions with competent incumbents and to ensure their continued commitment to the organisation.

This definition emphasises key positions, defined by their centrality to organisational strategy, their rarity (generally 10-20% of positions in any organisation) and the fact that increasing the quality or quantity of people in these positions is likely to generate value for the organisation. After identifying the positions, the high-potential and high-performing employees, the potential successors, are carefully selected to fill those critical roles (Collings *et al.*, 2017).

Consistent with these findings are Lowan and Chisoro (2016), who observe that when a key staff resigns or retires, it becomes a challenge to replace the critical staff if the organisation does not have contingency measures in place. These results have shown power plays in the succession planning at the IFRC as the successors are chosen after identifying key positions. If the position is not deemed key, there can be a power vacuum after the departure of the incumbent. To give credence to these findings, Sharma *et al.* (2003) observe that succession planning is a process that should include identifying the pool of potential

successors, designating the successor and notifying the successor designate and other management leaders of the decision made.

The findings support the notion that succession planning can improve strategic performance in addition to identifying and replacing talent (Collings *et al.*, 2017). The speedy replacement of key staff is essential for the survival and sustainability of organisations. Thus, succession planning is the key mechanism for identifying strategic talent needs and ensuring the necessary talent to accommodate these needs. Hence, effective succession planning is a key feature for creating, maintaining and sustaining economic value for an organisation.

The findings reveal a system of job performance assessment to identify individuals who can be groomed for leadership succession. The findings show that leadership uses a performance-based assessment to identify individuals who can be trained as successors of some of the leaders. The findings indicate that some employees do not consider job assessment to identify successors but to assess the current position and how it can be developed. The study shows that the job assessment system is vital for leadership to identify successors based on the skills and performances shown by talented individuals. The findings indicate that the organisation uses a strategy, that is, the strategic leadership development aimed at harnessing the personal traits in employees that are groomed for succession. In support of these findings is the conceptual framework as observed by Hongyun *et al.* (2020) that transformational leadership keeps communication lines open which is communicating succession to the employees and rewarding the best performers.

The findings urge the centrality of talent pools in the succession planning process. Identifying and managing talent pools is driven by recognising that shallow or weak pools can put the business at risk by limiting an organisation's ability to deliver on its strategy (Collings *et al.*, 2017). This is followed by talent development that entails targeted investments in those individuals with the most significant potential to build and

deploy capacity to influence the achievement of strategic organisational objectives significantly. A key advantage of talent pools is that they advance organisational practice from demand-led recruitment to recruitment “ahead of the curve” (Sparrow, 2007). A talent pool strategy emphasises the proactive identification of incumbents with the potential to fill key positions as they become available. Cappelli (2008:77), building on the supply-chain management perspective, advocates a talent-pool strategy for succession planning to manage the risks of mismatches between talent supply and demand. It has been observed that human capital accumulation is most valuable when retained in the context where it is developed (Cappelli and Keller, 2017).

The findings reveal that succession planning is closely tied to organisations' Learning and Development Plans. Once the relevant candidates have been identified, based on their interest and potential for success in a critical position, the organisation must ensure that these employees have access to focused learning and development opportunities. Some key points to remember when developing learning and development plans are that plans should focus on decreasing or removing the gap between expected competencies and candidates' current knowledge, skills and abilities. Modern succession planning is based on learning and development to fulfil employee potential, rather than merely filling a vacancy and, as such, there is need to manage expectations. A wide range of learning and development opportunities, including job assignments that develop and improve a candidate's competencies, job rotations and formal training. In addition, the results indicate that there is need to ensure appropriate strategies are in place to support the transfer of corporate knowledge to candidates for key jobs, which can include mentoring, coaching or job-shadowing, documenting critical knowledge, exit interviews and establishing communities of practice.

The findings emphasise the fundamental role played by HR in the succession planning process. HR support is vital to ensure the process happens, manage the flow of information, act as an impartial adviser and liaise with potential successors. In a nutshell, it plays critical roles as a process designer and

process facilitator in succession planning. HR should be involved in discussions with senior management regarding the succession planning process and communicating shared principles. The involvement of top management guarantees the succession planning process is on the right track and implemented well. It is essential to construct a lifestyle with the involvement of top management and personnel that helps and reinforces shared accountability, comments mechanisms and the general significance of leadership improvement (Bano *et al.*, 2022).

In support of this is the conceptual framework of the business leadership model which states leadership should identify successors of the incumbents to ensure continuity (Ochieng, 2016). The findings reveal that the strategy checks for talented employees with a vision that can be sustainable to the organisation and grooms them under the tutelage of the incumbent leaders. This has been deemed a viable succession planning strategy as it ensures organisational continuity. Similar to these findings are Nel *et al.* (2013), who posit that creating plans for all positions on a management team involves several steps. First, the core skills required for each position should be clarified. Each manager creates a skill-building plan to fill any identified gaps in their skill set, as well as professional development plans for any supervisors who have the potential to assume greater responsibilities over time. In support of these findings, Kippist (2013) argues that succession planning is a deliberate use of monitoring, coaching and grooming individuals with the potential to advance their careers. It is an essential organisational strategical process of identifying and developing individuals for critical organisational roles, fostering leadership sustainability for future years.

It is also important to note that succession planning is not without challenges. The findings indicate that some participants were frustrated by the fact that some positions were deemed more important than others. It is, therefore, fundamental for management to ensure that there is clear and consistent communication and criteria for identifying potential successors. Collings *et al.* (2017) point out that succession planning can help organise and prepare.

Talent, the implementation of succession plans, rarely achieves the desired smoothness of transition. It is often difficult to forecast future talent demand because it requires knowing how the organisation will grow and strategically respond to such growth, neither of which is easily predictable (Cappelli and Keller, 2014, 2017). In addition, environmental factors also challenge succession-planning efficacy. As markets become more globally competitive, it becomes more difficult for organisations to plan for future, often unpredictable, events. It requires predicting the future marketplace and figuring out how competitors (including those which do not yet exist) will act (Collings *et al.*, 2017). The South Sudanese context is volatile as the country has just emerged from a prolonged and brutal civil war that displaced millions of people, including a skilled workforce. Regarding strategic forecasting, succession planning in this context is quite challenging due to environmental uncertainty.

There is still competition for scarce skills in South Sudan, akin to what the McKinsey Consultants termed the 'War for Talent' (*ibid.*). Due to the dire humanitarian situation, a multiplicity of international humanitarian organisations operate in South Sudan. Hence, succession planning is influenced by the competitive environment faced by the firm and environmental changes may alter succession-planning strategies. Forecasting supply and demand is even more challenging as organisations try to think about how to fill jobs that may be at two or three higher levels within the organisational hierarchy, while addressing the uncertainties of turnover (e.g., jobs that are not likely to open soon, open unexpectedly or change in volume).

CONCLUSION

The study made it possible to analyse the subject of succession planning in South Sudanese humanitarian organisations. The study analysed the steps taken in the succession planning at yje IFRC. It is concluded here that the succession planning at this organisation has no formal policies, but a series of strategies used to identify individuals to succeed the incumbents, through identifying critical and pivotal positions that need succession. The study concludes that using the key positions' identification strategy has pitfalls, as it can lead to

power vacuums in areas deemed not key positions. The study concludes that there is a job performance assessment strategy for planning succession using the performance of individuals as an indicator of the potential of an individual's leadership traits. The research concludes that these performance-based assessments have shortcomings, as individuals can be good at task accomplishment but not team leadership. The study reveals that the IFRC uses a strategic leadership development succession planning that identifies individuals with a vision aligned with organisational goals and vision to take over from the incumbents and ensure continuity.

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In Quest of Corporate Governance Best Practices by State-owned Enterprises in Zimbabwe

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Abstract

The role played by state-owned enterprises (SOEs) in the delivery of services in the country remains important but the prevalent volatile economic situation that the country is faced with, warrants an investigation of the practices of these entities as corruption becomes rampant in the economic turmoil. The main aim of the study was to investigate the causes of non-compliance with corporate governance best practices by SOEs in Zimbabwe. The study is premised on the argument that lack of accountability in SOEs has led to corruption and mass compensation at the expense of service delivery. The research adopted a quantitative approach with positivist philosophy, while , cross-sectional survey designs in which data were gathered using a structured questionnaire were used. The study found that the remuneration of non-executive members can moderate corporate governance practices. The study reveals that by appointing remuneration committees that looked into the remuneration of both executive and non-executive directors, firm performance and corporate governance practices were enhanced. The study concludes that ineffective board committees are the main cause of non-compliance with best corporate governance practices.

Keywords: corporate malfeasance, internal control, corporate scandals, Public Entities Corporate Governance Act, state owned enterprise performance

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INTRODUCTION

State-owned enterprises play a crucial role in the economic landscape of Zimbabwe, particularly when it comes to the delivery of essential services like water, power, transportation, healthcare and education. Due to the economic significance of SOEs, it is necessary to ensure that they are always accountable, transparent and efficient to maintain economic growth through their contribution to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the country. In a bid to keep SOEs sustained, there is need to ensure that they operate on equal terms with the private sector so that they do not continue draining the fiscus. In Zimbabwe, waves of highly publicised corporate scandals that have occurred in some SOEs have been attributed to deficiencies in corporate governance (Chambari, 2017). Some of these scandals involve SOEs being implicated in the excessive compensation given to Chief Executive Officers (CEOs), financial misappropriation, violation of tender rules and inappropriate recruitment procedures. Such a spate of scandals indicates that SOEs are confronted by a breach in corporate governance rules, which is why such distressed firms in Zimbabwe need to be supported.

The failure to practise strong corporate governance may be the cause of notable controversies in several of the SOEs in Zimbabwe. According to the Auditor General's (AG) 2016 Report to Parliament on SOEs, there appeared to be widespread consensus that SOEs were depressed and distressed. In its report, the AG stated that corporate governance issues were the key problems plaguing SOEs. Reports on SOE performance revealed a fall in the adoption and implementation of sound corporate governance practices. According to reports, certain SOEs engaged in malfeasances, including senior management living lavishly while providing poor services and incapacitating their workforce. In NetOne Telecommunications, where a lot of effort was placed into board members' court appearances rather than reviving the struggling SOE, there have been some significant reports of board fights and disputes. It is against this background that the research investigates the cause of non-compliance with best corporate governance practices by SOEs.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

AGENCY THEORY

A lot of research into corporate governance is derived from the agency theory (Yussof and Alhaji, 2012). The earliest work of Berle and Means (1932) focuses on ownership separation and pedals that resulted in the ignition of principal-agent problems. These problems are prevalent in modern organisations and SOEs are not exempt. As a result, Vitolla *et al.* (2020) define the agency theory as a theory involving a contract in which the shareholders engage the directors to do certain tasks on their behalf. Delegating functions to other agents may be one of these responsibilities. In this way, it is less likely that the agent will not always behave in the principal's best interests if the two sides to the relationship are utility maximisers. In this view, aberrant and deviant activities have been prevalent in SOEs in Zimbabwe where directors sometimes take entities as their properties (Chigudu, 2020). According to Chimbari (2017), corporate malpractices have gone to the extent of getting unauthorised benefits, including remuneration not commensurate with performance and qualifications at the expense of company shareholders. In Zimbabwe, billions of dollars were lost through directors handsomely rewarding themselves in various SOEs in Zimbabwe (Dandaratsi *et al.*, 2022). At SOEs in Zimbabwe, this agency problem was witnessed in the years that showed non-compliance with corporate governance principles.

ACTS ESTABLISHING SOEs IN ZIMBABWE

SOEs in Zimbabwe have been largely established through of Acts of Parliament. Such Acts stipulated how a specific public entity had to be governed and the main objective for the formation of such public entities. In this view, abiding by the dictates of these Acts is important as it is the first step to conforming to best practice of corporate governance. It is evident from Table 1 that many of the SOEs in Zimbabwe were formed through Acts of Parliament which gave specifications of the main functions of the SOEs. Important is the fact that how these entities are run is governed by the respective Acts whose principles are guided by those of corporate governance.

Table 1: Some of the Acts of Parliament establishing SOEs in Zimbabwe (Compiled by researchers, 2023)

Act Establishing	State-owned Entity Name	Objective/Purpose
The Civil Aviation Act [Chapter 13:16].	The Civil Aviation Authority of Zimbabwe (CAAZ)	To promote safe, regular and effective usage and growth of aviation both inside and outside Zimbabwe, in addition to advising the government on all matters relating to domestic and international civil aviation.
The National Social Security Authority Act [Chapter 17:04]	The National Social Security Authority(NSSA)	To oversee the administration of workers' compensation, accident prevention and pension programmes.
Roads Act [Chapter 13:18]	The Zimbabwe National Roads Administration (ZINARA)	To fix, collect and disburse all road funds.
Parks and Wildlife Act Chapter 20:14	Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority (ZimParks)	To oversee, maintain and manage sanctuaries, safari destinations, national parks, botanical reserves and botanical gardens.

THE CONSTITUTION OF ZIMBABWE AND SOES

A constitution is the supreme law of the nation. It is regarded as a set of essential laws or generally recognised principles that govern how a state or organisation is conducted (*Oxford English Dictionary*). As a result, the constitution also outlines the administration and management of public entities. Therefore, Section 194(1) of the 2013 Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment (Number 20) codifies the core ideals and guiding principles of public administration. According to this, all levels of government, including State institutions and agencies, government-controlled corporations and other public enterprises, must administer public affairs by democratic values and principles. In this view, Dandaratsi *et al.* (2022) espouse that chapter 9 of the Constitution of Zimbabwe provides for a uniform mechanism for regulating conditions of

service for members of public entities and their senior employees. Section 194(1) of the Constitution stipulates the values that govern SOEs.

In addition, section 194(2) of the Zimbabwean Constitution highlights how appointments to offices of SOEs are made. In this sense, the Constitution preserves the idea that appointments to posts at all tiers of government, including institutions, agencies, corporations controlled by the government, and other public companies, must primarily be made based on merit. This is crucial to ensuring that these individuals have the necessary qualifications to interpret the many legal frameworks that govern how SOEs are run and managed. The responsibilities of public officers in these public enterprises, referred to as SOEs in this study, are also described under sections 196(1), (2) and (3) of the Constitution.

According to the Constitution of Zimbabwe, a public official's authority is a public trust and must be exercised in a way that promotes public confidence in the office that the public official occupies (Mukonza, 2013). These elected officials must act in a way that upholds their position's dignity, both in public and private, avoiding any conflicts between self objectives and their official duties. Good governance is being encouraged under the 2013 Constitution. The following fundamental ideals and principles, the supremacy of the Constitution, the rule of law and good governance, are outlined in section 3.1 to encourage good governance. According to section 3.2, the State and all institutions and government agencies at all levels, should adhere to certain principles (*ibid.*). These principles include: (e) respecting the separation of powers principle, and (g) being transparent, fair, accountable and responsive. Section 9, which directs the State to adopt and execute laws and policies to promote efficiency, competence, accountability, transparency, personal integrity and financial probity in all institutions and levels of government, emphasises good governance even more. Promoting good governance places a high priority on the need to remove corruption and appoint public officials based on merit.

The constitutional provision known as section 197 of Zimbabwe, emphasises the terms of office of those in charge of

government-controlled entities. In this regard, a Parliamentary act may limit the periods of office of the CEOs or leaders of government-controlled entities, other commercial organisations and public enterprises owned or wholly controlled by the State.

THE ZIMBABWE NATIONAL CODE OF CORPORATE GOVERNANCE (2015)

The Zimbabwe National Code of Corporate Governance (ZIMCODE) was introduced in 2015 with the main purpose of curtailing corporate scandals which had ravaged listed companies because of inadequate corporate governance compliance and were meant to augment the outdated colonial-era Companies Act of 1951 (Nyakurukwa, 2021). Regardless of how they were founded and incorporated, all business entities in Zimbabwe were intended to be covered by the ZIMCODE. It acknowledged the existence of industry-specific corporate governance codes and whose guiding concepts are also derived from the ZIMCODE. The ZIMCODE contains various laws that outline how public entities are managed and are also taken directly from Zimbabwe's Constitution. The following conditions are carried out by the various ZIMCODE chapters (The Zimbabwe Leadership Forum, 2014).

PUBLIC ENTITIES CORPORATE GOVERNANCE ACT [CHAPTER 10.31 OF 2018]

The Public Entities Corporate Governance (PECG) Act's provisions, which when enacted, marked a significant turning point for Zimbabwe, which had hitherto relied on informal corporate governance laws to guide its activities. The disadvantage of basing decisions on corporate governance frameworks and principles is that because they are not legally binding, they cannot be enforced in a court of law. Since the PECG Act entails sanctions and punitive measures in case of violation of the rules, its introduction represented a significant change in the corporate environment. The PECG Act was passed by the Zimbabwean government in November 2018 because of insufficient adherence to best corporate governance procedures. The Act mandated that Chapter 9 of the Constitution apply to the management of public businesses in Zimbabwe. In this sense, the PECG Act offers a uniform mechanism for regulating the terms of service for employees of public institutions (Mthombeni *et al.*, 2023).

EMPIRICAL REVIEW

Chilinjika and Mutizwa (2019) opine that parastatals (SOEs) in Zimbabwe have been underperforming and, as such, have become burdens to the government. Their study, which was aimed at identifying factors hindering the efficient performance of SOEs, had a bias towards the National Railways of Zimbabwe (NRZ) for the period of 2008-2016. Their study used a mixed approach in which interviews were conducted, questionnaires distributed and a review of secondary sources done.

The results were that corporate governance epidemics, poor governance, corruption and poor governance and militarisation of the organisation, had led to the under-performance of SOEs. In the current study exploits the gap in the cause of non-compliance to best practices of corporate governance by SOEs.

The work of Maune (2015) had the overall aim of providing an overview of the current state of corporate governance in Zimbabwe. The study acknowledges that corporate governance had gained much relevance around the globe following world-known corporate scandals that included Enron and WorldCom. The qualitative study employed the use of document analysis in data collection. Maune (*ibid.*) indicates that Zimbabwe was amongst the few countries that did not have a national code of corporate governance. In this view, Maune (*ibid.*) notes that corporate governance in Zimbabwe was being regulated by the Companies Act, the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange Act and the rules of other professional bodies.

Time has lapsed since the studies were done by Maune in 2015, in which a lot of legislative developments, political changes and economic changes have taken place. As such, there is need to conduct a study on how some of the legislative developments, such as the PECO Act, have impacted corporate governance of SOEs in Zimbabwe.

Nyakurukwa (2021) examined the impact of corporate governance provisions on Zimbabwe companies listed on the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange 2013 to 2018 on financial performance. His research focused largely on ZIMCODE provisions, which, according to him, were designed to prevent

corporate crises which devastated listed firms because of poor corporate governance compliance. He claims that the Companies Act of 1951 (now the Companies and Other Business Entities Act) was designed to be complemented by the ZIMCODE (*ibid.*).

The current study adopted a quantitative approach in which results of the study reveal that corporate governance reforms in Zimbabwe by the introduction of the ZIMCODE did not affect the financial performance of Zimbabwean companies much, hence suggesting that regulators needed an overhaul of the code and compulsory compliance. There is a gap in terms of what has caused corporate governance non-compliance by SOEs in Zimbabwe following the latest enactment (PECG, Act).

Chigudu (2021) carried out a study on SOEs that sought to identify the challenges facing the NRZ. The NRZ, as highlighted in the background of the study, is also an SOE, formed through the Railways Act Chapter 13:09. It was established to provide, operate and maintain an efficient system of public transportation of goods and passengers by rail. The study by Chigudu (2021), therefore, sought to identify the challenges facing the NRZ and suggest some measures to sustain the SOE. The study employed a descriptive research design. Data used in the study was gathered from various audit reports, literature reviews and reports by the media on the NRZ. The study looked at the current challenges of governance, transparency and accountability that were bedeviling SOEs in Zimbabwe. This is in tandem with the current study that seeks to identify the cause of poor observance of best corporate governance practices by SOEs in Zimbabwe. The current study fills the gap by also considering other various categories of SOEs in Zimbabwe. This is because challenges of corporate governance at the NRZ may be unique to the nature of the industry in which it is operating, hence results may not be generalised to other entities. Media reports, as a source of data collection, may be subjective sources, hence the current study fills the gap by adopting a mixed methodology to the study of corporate governance challenges by SOEs in Zimbabwe.

In their study, Mutize and Tefera (2020) carried out a scientific analysis of the feasibility of the creation of governance mechanisms in SOEs in selected African countries. The study explored the effective cost of governance failures in Zimbabwe, Kenya, South Africa and Ethiopia. It employed a desk research approach and used sources such as data from the World Bank (2018), the Energy Sector Management Assistance Programme on SOE performance and Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) 2018 Reports. The study focused on Ethiopian Airlines, deemed the largest and fastest-growing airline in Africa (Barlow, 2016), South African Telkom, Air Zimbabwe, South African Eskom Power, DRC Gecamines and the Ghana Tema Oil Refinery.

The findings and conclusions were that the determinant factor in the success of SOEs in Africa was the response of governments to the challenges faced by SOEs. They suggested privatisation as a response to address governance challenges faced by African SOEs. Although desktop research was appropriate for the geographically dispersed nations studied, generalised findings were made that do not speak of a specific country. Therefore, the current study focuses strictly on Zimbabwe SOEs in explaining the cause of poor observance of corporate governance practices which have seen many malpractices happening.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research adopted a quantitative approach with positivist philosophy. The study used cross-sectional survey designs in which data were gathered using a structured questionnaire with the aid of an interview guide. The use of quantitative data allowed for objectivity and reproducibility (Malina, Nørreklit and Selto, 2011). The research targeted top and middle management, board members, board chairpersons and CEOs of SOEs in Harare, Zimbabwe. A sample size of 351 participants for quantitative data were calculated using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) method whilst 16 interviews were conducted until saturation level. In the sampling of quantitative data, the research applied stratified random sampling, whilst in the sampling of qualitative data, purposive sampling or judgmental sampling was used. NVivo version 12 was used to analyse

qualitative data, while SPSS version 23 was used for the analysis of quantitative data.

FINDINGS

The sample size was 351, hence 351 questionnaires were distributed. Accordingly, 230 questionnaires were returned in a completed and usable state. This translated to a response rate of 65.5%. Interviews were conducted up to the 16th interviewee and no significant change in responses was noted. As such, the study conducting of the interviews was stopped after the 16th interviewee.

Testing for normality was necessary to fulfil the assumptions of many of the most suitable statistical tests. In light of this, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were conducted to determine the normality of data as emphasised by Razli and Wah (2011). As shown in Table 1, all the variables for both measures have values far less than 0.05.

This implies that the variables under consideration were not normally distributed, thus paving the way for the use of non-parametric tests to infer association among research constructs.

Table 1: *The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk normality tests (Researcher, 2023)*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
RAB1	.367	230	.000	.620	230	.000
RAB2	.386	230	.000	.625	230	.000
RAB3	.350	230	.000	.636	230	.000
RAB4	.293	230	.000	.717	230	.000
RRNE1	.357	230	.000	.635	230	.000
RRNE2	.345	230	.000	.636	230	.000
RRNE3	.347	230	.000	.652	230	.000
RRNE4	.370	230	.000	.632	230	.000
RDRB3	.379	230	.000	.628	230	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Using SPSS Version 23, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were largely used to determine whether the acquired data were sufficiently representative of the population. These tests were thus performed to determine whether or not factor analysis could be executed. The KMO test was thus conducted to examine the strength of the partial correlation, that is, how the factors explain each other between the variables. KMO values closer to 1.0 are considered ideal while values less than 0.5 are unacceptable (Reddy and Kulshretha, 2019). Scholars such as Reddy and Kulshretha (*ibid.*) argue that a KMO of at least 0.80 is good enough for factor analysis to commence.

Table 2: *Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) (Researcher, 2023)*

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO)		.749
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	122.479
	Df	78
	Sig.	.001

The results in Table 2 met minimum conditions and permitted Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to be performed (Field, 2009).

FACTOR ANALYSIS

According to Bartholomew, Knott and Moustaki (2011) Factor Analysis is hinged on the idea that measurable and observable variables can be reduced to fewer latent variables that share common variance and are unobservable, which is regarded as reducing dimensionality. Such unobservable factors may not be measured directly but are equally hypothetical constructs that are used to represent the variables (Cattell, 1973).

As its main objective, the study, sought to investigate the causes of non-compliance with corporate governance best

practices. As such, EFA was used to discover several factors influencing variables and to analyse the variables that go together. In this study, a large dataset consisting of many variables was reduced by observing groups of variables.

This means that factor analysis was useful in the present study which involved many variables and items from questionnaires which could be reduced to facilitate interpretations (Rummel, 1970). Factor analysis makes use of variances to produce commonalities between the variables. As shown in Tables 3 and 4, the variance is equal to the square of the factor loadings (Child, 2006). In the tables, Principal Components analysis was used to extract maximum variances from the data set with each component, thereby reducing quite a large number of variables into a smaller number of components (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Factors were rotated for better interpretation since unrotated factors are unclear and ambiguous.

The tables show that components with Initial Eigenvalues greater than 1, were assumed to be adequate in explaining the construct under consideration. In the case above, of the seven reasons for non-compliance to reforms, only four reasons fully explained the low levels of implementation of reforms.

Table 3: *Reasons for Non-compliance Factor Analysis*
Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.298	32.835	32.835	2.298	32.835	32.835	1.866	26.664	26.664
2	1.231	17.592	50.427	1.231	17.592	50.427	1.606	22.948	49.612
3	1.023	14.619	65.046	1.023	14.619	65.046	1.080	15.434	65.046

In Table 3, components with Initial Eigenvalues greater than 1 were assumed to be adequate in explaining the construct under

consideration in the case above of the seven reasons for non-compliance to reforms only four reasons fully explained the low levels of implementation of reforms.

Table 4.: *Reasons for non-compliance Factor Analysis. Total Variance Explained (Researcher, 2023)*

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
4	1.909	12.979	78.025	1.091					
5	.696	9.943	87.968		11.124	75.259	1.214	12.421	75.259
6	.476	6.797	94.765						
7	.366	5.235	100.000						

EXTRACTION METHOD: PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS.

Tables 5 and 6 show the mean values and standard deviations (SDs) of items used to investigate causes of non-compliance with corporate governance best practices by SOEs. In this regard, the tables show the mean scores and the SDs of each item. However, before investigating the causes of non-compliance with corporate governance best practices, it was first ascertained if respondents understood corporate governance. Understanding the meaning of corporate governance had a mean score of 4.60 (approximately 5) which corresponds with strongly disagree. However, a very big SD of 0.541 implies that respondents held varied views on this variable, some agreed while others disagreed. From the study, responses were gathered from respondents with different backgrounds and categories of SOEs. The study was conducted from categories of SOEs which included authorities and agencies, boards and commissions, councils, companies and corporations, hospitals, financial institutions and tertiary

institutions. Those who had little understanding were generally from medical backgrounds, where corporate governance could be practised but its definition was unknown. Additionally, the applicability of corporate governance to SOEs had a mean score of 4.57, which is near 5, and corresponded with a strongly agree. However, a very big SD of 0.546 implied that respondents held varied views on the issue of the applicability of corporate governance to SOEs, some agreed while others disagreed. However, overall, there was a general agreement with the fact that corporate governance applied to the context of SOEs.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Table 5: *Descriptive statistics on causes of non-compliance with public entities CG Act (Researcher, 2023)*

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Mean response	Std. Deviation
Understanding the meaning of corporate governance	230	1	5	4.60	Strongly disagree	.541
Applicability of corporate governance principles to SOEs	230	1	5	4.57	Strongly agree	.546
Corporate Governance and performance of SOEs	230	4	5	4.59	Strongly agree	.493
Poorly composed and ineffective boards	230	4	5	4.52	Strongly agree	.501

Table 6: *Descriptive statistics on causes of non-compliance with Public entities CG Act (Researcher, 2023)*

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Mean response	Std. Deviation
Poor remuneration or inappropriate incentives for Directors	230	2	5	4.26	Agree	.753
Ineffective board committees	230	4	5	4.47	Agree	.500
Weak internal control mechanisms	230	4	5	4.51	Strongly agree	.501
Bureaucratic issues in SOEs	230	2	5	4.52	Strongly agree	.526
Board members who are related or friends with CEOs	230	4	5	4.56	Strongly agree	.498
Overall				4.51	Strongly agree	.539
Valid N (listwise)	230					

Tables 5 and 6 descriptive statistics results on corporate governance and performance of SOEs indicate a mean score of 4.59 and a SD of 0.493. This means that respondents had varied views on the subject, but the overall results (strongly agree) concurred that corporate governance reinforced the performance of SOEs. The objective of the study was to investigate the causes of non-compliance with corporate governance best practices, that is, non-compliance to the dictates of the Public Entities Corporate Governance Act Chapter 10.31. As such, descriptive statistics show poorly composed and ineffective boards with a mean score of 4.52 which, again, is approximately 5, corresponding with strongly agree. In that aspect, a very big SD of 0.501 implies that respondents possessed different views on this variable with some agreeing while others disagreeing. The overall interpretation is that respondents strongly agreed that poorly

composed boards and ineffective boards caused non-compliance with best corporate governance practices.

The mean score for poor remuneration or inappropriate incentives for directors as a cause of non-compliance was 4.60 and the SD was 0.753, meaning that the respondents agreed with the assertion that poor remuneration or inappropriate incentives for directors resulted in non-compliance with best corporate governance practices. Although a huge SD of above 0.5 implies that respondents held varied views on variables under consideration, with some agreeing that poor remuneration or inappropriate incentives for directors resulted in non-compliance to best corporate governance practices and others disagreeing, the overall interpretation is that respondents agreed.

Furthermore, ineffective board committees as a cause of non-compliance with corporate governance best practices had a mean score of 4.47, almost 5, and corresponds with an agreement. A big SD of 0.546 implies that respondents held varied views on the issue of ineffective board committees as causes of non-compliance, with some agreeing and others disagreeing. However, overall, there was agreement that ineffective boards resulted in non-compliance with corporate governance best practices.

On weak internal control mechanisms as the cause of non-compliance, the mean score was 4.51 and the SD was 0.501, meaning that the respondents strongly agreed with the assertion that weak internal control caused non-compliance with best practices of corporate governance. A large SD of 0.501 implies that respondents held varied views on the issue of weak internal control mechanisms as causes of non-compliance, as some agreed while others disagreed. Overall, there was agreement that weak internal control mechanisms resulted in non-compliance with corporate governance best practices.

The study sought to investigate causes of non-compliance with best corporate governance principles as enshrined in the Public

Entities Corporate Governance Act. ureaucratic issues in SOEs were some of the factors assumed to be causing non-compliance. As such, a high mean score of above 4 meant that respondents were disagreeable. However, a large SD of 0.526 implies that there was a lot of variation in as far as bureaucratic issues in SOEs were causing non-compliance. Overall, the mean responses indicate that it was strongly agreed that bureaucratic issues in SOEs caused non-compliance with the provisions of the PECG Act which stipulates best corporate governance practices for SOEs in Zimbabwe.

The other item that was deemed to be the cause of non-compliance with corporate governance were board members who are related or friends with CEOs. This had a mean score of 4.56 (approximately 5) and corresponds with strongly agree. In the same view, a very big SD of 0.498 implies that respondents had a lot of variation on this variable as a cause of non-compliance with corporate governance practices. Some agreed while others disagreed. The mean response, however, shows that there was a largely strongly agreed response by board members who were related or were friends with CEOs as the cause of non-compliance.

The tables thus overall illustrate that there is strong agreement with the fact that respondents understood corporate governance. As such, respondents strongly agreed that the items explained the causes of non-compliance with the best principles of corporate governance. Summarily, as indicated in Tables 5) and 6, respondents on all variables were agreeable as evidenced by mean scores of above 4. However, huge SDs of above 0.5 imply that respondents held varied views on variables under consideration with some agreeing to the statement and others disagreeing. This signified variances in terms of the causes of non-compliance with the PECG Act across SOEs. Also, understanding the meaning of governance had a mean score of 4.60, which is close to strongly disagree. However, a very big SD of 0.541 implies that respondents held varied views on this variable, some agreeing while others disagreeing.

DISCUSSION

In testing the hypothesis, the study used structural equation modelling (SEM) in AMOS⁴. Under the SEM, the state-owned enterprise (SOE) category was treated as a mediating construct that moderates the relationship between reforms and corporate governance practices. The research hypotheses that are going to be tested in this section are as follows:

H₁: Reform on Board appointment (RAB) leads to best corporate governance practices in SOEs.

H₂: Reform on remuneration for non-executive members (RRNE) has a positive effect on corporate governance practices by SOEs.

Table 7: Results of hypothesis testing; effect of SOE reforms on corporate governance

Hypotheses	Hypothesised Relationship	SRW	CR	P values	Remark
H₁	RAB → CG in SOEs	.016	13.254***	.000	Supported
H₂	RRNE → CG in SOEs	.271	9.008***	.000	Supported

Notes: SRW standardised regression weight, CR critical ratio, ** significant at $p < 0.05$, *** significant at $p < 0.001$, ns not significant, Adjusted R square 0.682

H₁ hypothesis was supported (SRW = 0.016, CR = 13.254, $p = 0.000$). This implies that reform on board appointments (RAB) led to the best corporate governance practices in SOEs. This finding confirms the association between board appointments and best corporate governance practices. Similar findings to support this view were conducted by Kota and Tomar (2010), who advance that in the era of financial malfeasance, corporate

⁴ Amos is a powerful structural equation modeling (SEM) software.

governance is significant. They examined the effects of corporate governance practices on performance. Their results converged with the present study results by confirming that a significant relationship exists between board appointments and best corporate governance practices.

This finding corroborates the ideas of Puni and Anlesinya (2020), who suggest that reforming board appointments by having both executive and non-executive board members has a positive impact on a company's corporate governance practices. In support of a similar view, Sifile *et. al.* (2014) put forward that the appointment of boards has a positive effect on firm corporate governance practices.

H₂ hypothesis was supported (SRW = 0.271, CR = 9.008, p = 0.000). This means that reform on remuneration for non-executive members (RRNE) has a positive effect on corporate governance practices by SOEs. This finding is in agreement with Sheikh, Shah and Akbar's (2018) findings that show that compensation for chief executive officers in developing nations has an impact on the financial performance of the company and is positively related to corporate governance practices.

The findings observed in this study mirror those of previous studies by Ntim *et al.* (2019) which have examined the remuneration of non-executive members that can moderate corporate governance practices. Ntim *et al.* (*ibid.*) find that by appointing remuneration committees which looked into the remuneration of both executive and non-executive directors, firm performance and corporate governance practices were enhanced.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The objective of the study was to investigate the causes of non-compliance with corporate governance best practices by SOEs. From the results of this objective, it was concluded that non-compliance with corporate governance was triggered by poorly composed boards, poor remuneration or inappropriate incentives for directors, ineffective board committees, weak internal control mechanisms, bureaucracy in SOEs and board members who were related to or were friends with CEOs.

Results of the study indicate that non-compliance has also emanates from issues to do with poor remuneration and inappropriate incentives for directors. In this dimension, it is recommended that the responsible ministry ensures that the budget adequately captures financing of benefits and remuneration for SOE boards.

Various reforms to do with the remuneration of executive and non-executive should be seriously considered. It means that there should be full implementation of the provisions of the PECG Act, to do mainly with conditions of service for the directors, so that they at least match those SOEs from the region or their counterparts in the private sector. The study results have also allude to ineffective board committees as one of the main causes of non-compliance with best corporate governance practices. Therefore, it is recommended that authorities, such as the Corporate Governance Unit in the Office of President and Cabinet or the State Enterprises Restructuring Agency, should organise more corporate governance training for boards. This will help ensure the effectiveness of board committees.

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Rural Electrification - Is the Panacea Working Across Africa?

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Abstract

Rural electrification in Africa holds significant potential as a development tool, offering opportunities for economic growth, improved education and healthcare and enhanced quality of life. However, achieving universal access to electricity in rural areas is a complex challenge that requires careful consideration of multiple factors. This article presents a comprehensive analysis of rural electrification efforts in Africa, focusing on specific case studies to provide a nuanced understanding of the successes and limitations of current approaches. The methodology employed in this research involves a review of existing literature, academic sources and policy documents, supplemented by data sets and case studies from selected African countries. By examining the progress and challenges faced in countries such as Rwanda, Ethiopia, South Africa, Tanzania and Zimbabwe, a holistic view of rural electrification in Africa emerges. The key findings of this study highlight the importance of political commitment, renewable energy sources and community engagement in successful rural electrification initiatives.

Keywords: sustainability, equity, grid extension, mini-grids, off-grid solutions, renewable energy

INTRODUCTION

Across the vast and diverse landscape of Africa, rural electrification has been heralded as a powerful tool for development, offering a range of benefits including economic growth, improved healthcare, enhanced education and an

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improved quality of life. The historical narrative surrounding rural electrification in Africa has been largely optimistic, with the post-colonial era viewed as a time when electrification was seen as integral to agricultural modernisation, industrialisation and overall living standards improvement (World Bank, 2023). Notable milestones include the establishment of institutions such as the Rural Electrification Agency in Nigeria, the Renewable Energy Independent Power Producer Procurement Programme in South Africa and the Rural Electrification Agency in Zimbabwe. However, despite significant efforts, the reality remains stark: millions of people are still unconnected and the transformative potential of electrification eludes many. Moreover, challenges and disparities in electricity access persist in rural areas across the continent. According to the World Bank (2020), approximately 600 million people in sub-Saharan Africa lack access to electricity, with a substantial proportion residing in rural areas. This limited access to electricity hampers productivity, restricts business opportunities and impedes social and human development, exacerbating inequality and perpetuating the cycle of poverty.

Early efforts focused on expanding national grids, often overlooking the remote and sparsely populated characteristics of rural areas. While some progress was made, the high costs and limited financial viability posed significant challenges (Westing, 2015). Furthermore, issues of affordability, maintenance gaps and uneven distribution within communities exacerbated the equity gap and curtailed the overall impact (Sovacool, 2016). More recently, a shift towards decentralised and off-grid solutions has emerged, rekindling hopes of reaching previously underserved areas (IEA, 2022). Mini-grids powered by renewable energy sources and innovative financing models gain momentum, offering greater affordability and sustainability. Nevertheless, challenges persist, including ensuring long-term viability, integrating these solutions with national grids and addressing social and environmental implications associated with electrification (Bazilian *et al.*, 2021).

The history of rural electrification efforts in Africa demonstrates significant progress in expanding access to electricity.

Governments, international organisations and development agencies have invested in infrastructure development, policy reforms and renewable energy initiatives to bring power to rural communities (REN21, 2021). Despite these efforts, the gap between the promise of rural electrification and its actual impact across Africa remains substantial. Inadequate funding, limited institutional capacity and infrastructural constraints have hindered the full realisation of electrification goals (IRENA, 2021). Moreover, the effectiveness of rural electrification in driving sustainable development and improving livelihoods varies across different regions and communities (Eberhard *et al.*, 2020). Nonetheless, the African Development Bank Group (2019) emphasises the need for comprehensive strategies that consider socio-economic factors, technological advancements and policy frameworks to ensure sustainable and equitable progress.

Navigating this complex landscape necessitates a nuanced understanding of the diverse experiences across Africa. This article aims to unpack the paradox of rural electrification through a multi-faceted analysis. By examining both successes and limitations, and drawing on case studies from various contexts, it seeks to move beyond simplistic narratives and shed light on critical factors for achieving sustainable and equitable progress.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

It is important to establish a conceptual framework that defines key concepts and provides a theoretical perspective on the relationship between electrification and development. Firstly, key concepts central to the analysis include development, sustainability, equity and access to electricity. Development refers to the process of improving living standards, economic growth and social well-being (UNDP, 2020). Sustainability emphasises the need for long-term viability, considering environmental, social and economic factors (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). Equity involves ensuring fairness and equal opportunities for all individuals and communities (UNESCO, 2020).

Access to electricity refers to the availability and affordability of electricity services for households and businesses (World Bank, 2017). Different theoretical perspectives shed light on the relationship between rural electrification and development. The modernisation theory suggests that electrification is a catalyst for economic growth and social transformation (Rostow, 1960). The capability approach emphasises the importance of electricity in enhancing individuals' capabilities and expanding their freedom (Sen, 1999). The sustainable development perspective highlights the need for electrification to be environmentally sustainable, socially inclusive and economically viable (UN, 2015). Figure 1 represents the thematic framework.

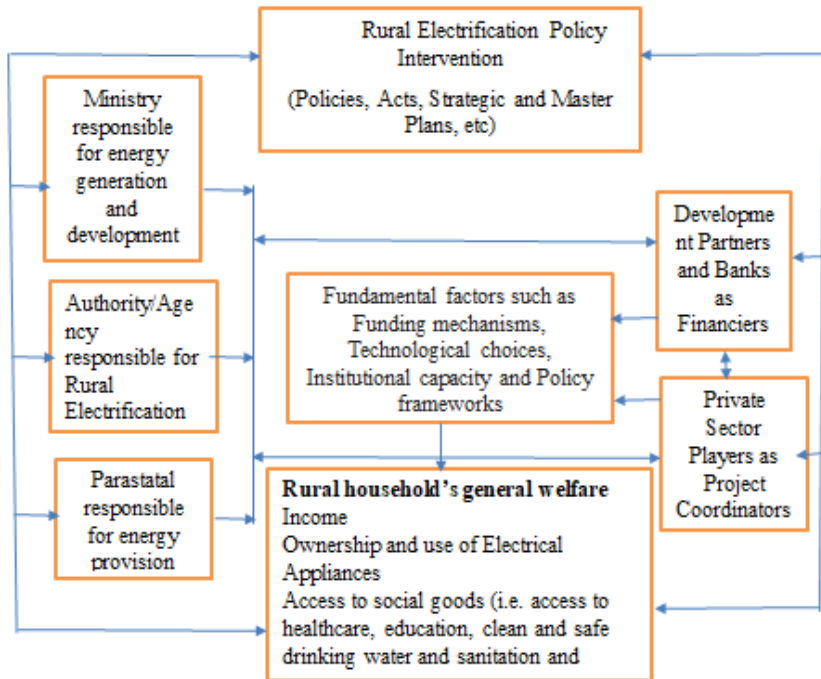


Figure 1: Rural Electrification Conceptual Framework (Author's derivations, 2024)

The diagrammatic conceptual framework (Figure 1) for rural electrification with state and non-state actors is summarised as follows:

State Actors

- **Ministry responsible for energy:** This ministry sets the overall policy direction and provides strategic guidance for rural electrification efforts.
- **Authority/Agency responsible for energy:** This authority or agency is responsible for regulating and overseeing the energy sector, including rural electrification.
- **Parastatal responsible for energy:** This parastatal, such as a state-owned utility, plays a key role in implementing and operating rural electrification projects.

Non-State Actors

- **Development partners and banks as financiers:** These actors, including international organisations and financial institutions, provide financial support and resources for rural electrification projects.
- **Private sectors as implementers:** Private companies and organisations are involved in implementing and operating rural electrification projects, bringing technical expertise and innovation to the process.

Coordination of Players. The coordination of all these actors is crucial to adhering to rural electrification policy interventions through acts, policies and strategic plans. This coordination ensures that efforts are aligned, resources are optimised and progress is monitored effectively.

Policy Intervention. Policy interventions, such as acts, policies and strategic plans, provide a framework for guiding rural electrification efforts. These interventions outline goals, targets and strategies to ensure a cohesive and comprehensive approach to electrification.

FUNDAMENTAL FACTORS

The effectiveness and availability of rural electrification are influenced by fundamental factors:

- The availability of funding sources, such as grants, loans and investments, is crucial to support the implementation and sustainability of rural electrification projects.
- Selecting appropriate technologies, such as renewable energy sources and efficient distribution systems, is essential for reliable and sustainable rural electrification.
- Building the capacity of state and non-state actors involved in rural electrification, including training and knowledge sharing, ensures efficient project implementation and operation.
- Sound policy frameworks provide clear guidelines, regulations and incentives to support rural electrification and create an enabling environment for all stakeholders.

HOUSEHOLD STANDARD OF LIVING

The ultimate goal of rural electrification efforts is to improve the standard of living for households in rural areas:

- Access to electricity enables income-generating activities, fostering economic development and poverty reduction.
- Electricity allows households to own and use appliances for lighting, cooking, communication and productivity, enhancing their quality of life.
- Electricity facilitates access to essential social goods, including healthcare services, education, clean water and sanitation and physical security.

In summary, the diagrammatic conceptual framework highlights the coordination and collaboration among state and non-state actors, their adherence to rural electrification policies and the importance of fundamental factors in achieving effective rural electrification and improving households' standard of living.

In the African context, a chosen framework for understanding the complexities of rural electrification involves considering the unique challenges and opportunities within the continent. This includes recognising the diversity of African countries, each with its own socio-economic and geographical characteristics (Eberhard *et al.*, 2020). It also entails understanding the interplay between centralised and decentralised electrification approaches, renewable energy sources and the importance of

community engagement and participation (Karekezi and Kimani, 2002). By utilising this conceptual framework, the analysis of rural electrification in Africa can take into account the multidimensional nature of the issue and provide a comprehensive understanding of the complexities and potential solutions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Rural electrification in Africa has been the subject of extensive academic literature with scholars examining various aspects of the issue, including its impact on development, the challenges faced and strategies for achieving sustainable progress. This literature review provides an overview of key theoretical and empirical contributions in the field.

One important theoretical framework is the concept of energy poverty, which highlights the multidimensional nature of the lack of access to electricity. Scholars such as Sovacool and Dworkin (2015) argue that energy poverty goes beyond the mere absence of electricity and encompasses aspects such as affordability, reliability and energy efficiency. This framework emphasises the need for integrated approaches that consider not only infrastructure expansion but also address the broader energy needs of rural communities.

The role of renewable energy sources in rural electrification has also been widely discussed. Authors like Bazilian *et al.* (2013) emphasise the potential of decentralised renewable energy solutions, such as solar and wind power, in overcoming the challenges of extending the grid to remote areas. These studies highlight the environmental, social and economic benefits of renewable energy for rural electrification, including reduced emissions, job creation and local empowerment.

In terms of policy and governance, scholars have examined the importance of political commitment and institutional frameworks in driving successful electrification efforts. Bhanot and Jha (2017) argue that effective governance structures, supportive policies and regulatory frameworks are crucial for achieving sustainable and equitable rural electrification

outcomes. They emphasise the need for participatory decision-making processes that involve local communities and stakeholders to ensure their ownership and engagement.

Furthermore, literature has also explored the potential impacts of rural electrification on various sectors. For instance, studies by Barnes and Floor (2017) and Bensch *et al.* (2015) highlight the positive effects of electricity access on education, healthcare and income-generation in rural areas. These studies demonstrate how electrification can improve educational outcomes, enable better healthcare services and enhance income-generating activities, thereby contributing to overall development and poverty reduction.

Overall, the theoretical literature on rural electrification in Africa underscores the need for nuanced and multidimensional approaches. It emphasises the importance of considering factors such as energy poverty, renewable energy solutions, governance structures and sectoral impacts. By drawing upon these theoretical frameworks, policy-makers and practitioners can develop context-specific strategies that address the complexities and challenges of rural electrification, ultimately leading to sustainable and equitable outcomes.

Empirically, existing studies have explored various aspects of rural electrification, ranging from its impact on economic development and social well-being, to its environmental sustainability. However, several research gaps and missing links still need to be addressed. One major debate in the literature revolves around the effectiveness of rural electrification in promoting economic development. Some studies highlight the positive correlation between electrification and economic growth, emphasising the role of electricity in stimulating productive activities, job-creation and income-generation (Bhattacharyya, 2011; Dinkelman, 2011). However, there are also contrasting perspectives that argue for a more nuanced understanding of the relationship, considering factors such as the quality of electricity supply, affordability and the local context (Khandker *et al.*, 2012; Barnes *et al.*, 2018).

Another key area of research is the social impact of rural electrification. Studies have explored the benefits of electricity access in improving education, healthcare and overall quality of life in rural communities (Alstone *et al.*, 2015; Mulugetta *et al.*, 2017). However, there is need for a deeper analysis of the socio-cultural dynamics and gender dimensions of electrification, as well as the potential social inequalities that may arise (Bensch *et al.*, 2017; Mills *et al.*, 2019). Environmental sustainability is also a significant aspect of rural electrification. Research has examined the potential of renewable energy sources, such as solar and wind, in providing clean and sustainable electricity to rural areas (Jacobson and Delucchi, 2011; Kammen *et al.*, 2018). However, the literature lacks comprehensive studies that assess the long-term environmental impacts of electrification projects, including issues related to resource depletion, carbon emissions and land use (Liu *et al.*, 2019).

Existing studies have addressed issues of affordability, sustainability and equitable access to varying degrees. Affordability is often examined through the lens of the affordability gap, which measures the difference between electricity tariffs and the ability of rural households to pay (Vagliasindi, 2011). Sustainability is frequently considered in terms of the use of renewable energy sources and energy efficiency measures (Mubiru *et al.*, 2014). Equity is addressed by analysing disparities in electrification rates between urban and rural areas and investigating strategies to bridge the gap (Karekezi and Kimani, 2002).

However, there are missing links in the scholarship that require further investigation. Firstly, there is need for more rigorous impact evaluation studies that employ robust methodologies and longitudinal data to assess long-term effects of rural electrification on various dimensions of development. Additionally, there is limited research on the role of governance, policy frameworks and institutional capacity in shaping the outcomes of electrification projects. Furthermore, the literature lacks adequate attention on the role of community engagement, local participation and cultural factors in the success of electrification initiatives.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology employed in this study involves a comprehensive review of existing literature, academic sources and policy documents related to rural electrification in Africa. Data sets from reputable sources, such as international organisations and national statistical agencies, were analysed to gather quantitative information on electricity access, infrastructure and socio-economic indicators in rural areas. This quantitative analysis provided a broader understanding of the current state of rural electrification and allowed for comparisons and trend analysis across different regions.

Furthermore, case studies were conducted in selected African countries to gain deeper insights into the challenges, successes and specific contextual factors influencing rural electrification efforts. These qualitative methods provide a rich understanding of the experiences, perspectives and lessons learned from stakeholders involved in rural electrification projects, including government officials, project implementers and community members.

FINDINGS

The research on rural electrification in Africa yielded significant findings that provide insights into the diverse experiences and outcomes of electrification efforts in different African contexts. These findings are derived from a combination of data analysis, including case studies, surveys and analysis of existing data sets. This section presents the main findings, drawing evidence from five selected case studies that exemplify the diverse contexts and factors influencing the success or limitations of rural electrification efforts.

RWANDA

Rwanda has made remarkable progress in rural electrification through its national electrification programme, known as "Rwanda Energy Group", documented in the National Electrification of Rwanda 2020-2024. The country aims to reach 100% electrification by 2024. In this case, electrification has improved from 10% in 2010 to 43% in 2018 and almost reached 60% in 2023 (de Abajo Llamero, 2023). However, rural electrification remains a challenge since 77% of the urban

population is electrified but a circa 84% of the rural population has no access to electricity as of 2023 (*ibid.*). The case study conducted in a rural area of Rwanda reveals that the electrification efforts had a transformative impact on the community (Alegre-Bravo and Anderson, 2023). The findings indicate that access to electricity led to improved educational opportunities, as schools were equipped with electric lighting, computers and audiovisual aids. This facilitated better learning environments and enhanced educational outcomes. Additionally, electrification stimulated economic development by enabling the operation of small businesses, such as milling machines and welding workshops. The availability of electricity also improved healthcare services by powering health centres, refrigerating vaccines and allowing for medical equipment usage.

The success of electrification efforts in Rwanda can be attributed to a combination of factors. Firstly, the government's strong commitment to rural electrification, backed by effective policies and strategies, played a pivotal role. The establishment of dedicated institutions and the engagement of multiple stakeholders ensured coordinated efforts and efficient implementation. Secondly, the adoption of innovative solutions, including the use of mini-grids and off-grid systems, allowed for rapid deployment of electricity to remote areas where grid extension was a challenge. Lastly, the inclusion of local communities through community-based initiatives and cooperatives fostered a sense of ownership and sustainability.

ETHIOPIA

Ethiopia, with its vast rural population, has faced significant challenges in electrification efforts. Although the country has managed to achieve universal access to all urban areas, rural electrification is very limited. The electrification rate is 40% for all households in the country (Gebremeskel, Ahlgren and Beyene, 2023). The findings indicate that despite government efforts to extend the grid, progress was slow and access to electricity remained limited. The reasons for these limitations included inadequate financial resources, technical challenges and the geographical remoteness of rural communities. Insufficient funding hindered the construction of transmission

and distribution infrastructure, while technical challenges, such as maintenance and reliability issues, affected the sustainability of electrification projects. Furthermore, the challenging geographical terrain and scattered nature of rural settlements posed significant logistical challenges for grid extension.

The analysis of the Ethiopian case study highlights the importance of addressing these limitations to achieve successful electrification. Firstly, securing adequate funding through domestic and international sources is crucial to overcoming financial constraints. Additionally, the adoption of appropriate technologies, such as off-grid solutions and decentralised renewable energy systems, can provide reliable and sustainable electricity access in remote areas. Moreover, customised approaches which consider the unique challenges posed by the geographical terrain and dispersed communities are necessary for effective implementation.

SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa provides an interesting case study of electrification efforts in a country with diverse social and economic contexts. The findings reveal minimum disparities in electricity access between urban and rural areas, with urban areas having higher electrification rates of 87% than 85% in the rural areas (Sarkodie and Adams, 2020). However, the study also highlights successful initiatives in rural electrification. For instance, the case study in a rural community in South Africa demonstrated the positive impact of the government's electrification programme, that aimed to provide grid access to remote areas (Department of Energy, Republic of South Africa, 2019). The findings indicate that increased access to electricity led to improved socio-economic conditions, including enhanced educational opportunities, increased agricultural productivity and expanded business activities.

The success of electrification efforts in South Africa can be attributed to several factors. Firstly, the government's commitment to rural electrification, backed by policy frameworks and dedicated funding, played a crucial role. Secondly, partnerships with the private sector and non-

governmental organisations facilitated the implementation of electrification projects in remote areas. Additionally, the involvement and participation of local communities, through community ownership models and capacity-building initiatives, contributed to the sustainability of electrification efforts.

TANZANIA

Tanzania presents a case study of rural electrification efforts that combine grid extension and off-grid solutions. The findings indicate that government's efforts to extend the grid have resulted in increased electricity access in rural areas (Ministry of Energy, Tanzania, 2020) through the establishment of the Rural Energy Board (REB), Rural Energy Fund (REF), Rural Electricity Agency (REA) and the Electricity Act of 2008. Resultantly, rural electricity access improved from 24.5% in 2008 to 48.7% in 2020 (Rural Energy Agency, 2020) However, challenges and limitations persist. The analysis reveals that affordability of electricity remains a barrier for many households. High connection costs, monthly tariffs and limited income levels hindered the uptake of grid electricity. In response to these challenges, the government implemented the Rural Electricity Agency (REA) programme, which introduced off-grid solar systems to complement grid extension efforts. The findings show that off-grid solar solutions have played a significant role in providing electricity access to remote areas, particularly where grid extension is not feasible.

The analysis of the Tanzanian case study underscores the importance of addressing affordability concerns to ensure the success of rural electrification efforts. Government interventions, such as subsidies or financing mechanisms, can make grid electricity more affordable for low-income households. Simultaneously, off-grid solutions, such as solar home systems or mini-grids, can provide cost-effective and sustainable alternatives for areas where grid extension is challenging or economically unviable.

ZIMBABWE

Zimbabwe represents a unique case study of rural electrification efforts in a country that has faced significant economic and political challenges (Ministry of Energy and Power Development,

Republic of Zimbabwe, 2017). The findings reveal a mixed picture of electrification outcomes in rural areas. While some communities have experienced significant improvements in electricity access and its benefits, others still face challenges in accessing reliable and affordable electricity. Access to electricity stands at 40%, with 16% rural and 78% urban (World Bank, 2023). The analysis identifies several factors influencing the success or limitations of electrification efforts in Zimbabwe.

- i. Firstly, the economic constraints and limited financial resources have posed significant challenges to rural electrification. The economic downturn and hyperinflation in Zimbabwe have impacted government's ability to invest in electrification infrastructure and maintain a reliable electricity supply. Limited funding has resulted in delays in grid extension projects and inadequate maintenance, affecting the sustainability of electrification efforts.
- ii. Secondly, the political and governance landscape has influenced the success or limitations of electrification. In Zimbabwe, political instability and governance issues have impacted the implementation and management of electrification projects. Lack of transparency, corruption and mismanagement have hindered the efficient and equitable distribution of electricity, affecting rural communities' access.
- iii. Thirdly, the availability and utilisation of renewable energy resources, such as solar and hydroelectric power, have played a role in successful electrification initiatives. Where renewable energy sources have been harnessed effectively, such as in mini-grids or off-grid systems, rural communities have experienced improved electricity access and reliability.

To enhance the success of electrification efforts in Zimbabwe, addressing the economic and governance challenges is crucial. Ensuring stable and transparent governance, along with attracting investments and international support, can help overcome financial constraints. Additionally, promoting the utilisation of renewable energy resources can enhance energy security, reduce dependency on fossil fuels and improve the sustainability of rural electrification.

The analysis of the five case studies underscores the complex and varied nature of rural electrification efforts in Africa. The findings reveal both success stories and challenges faced in different contexts. Several common factors emerge that influence the success or limitations of electrification efforts across the case studies:

- Financial resources play a critical role in the success of electrification initiatives. Insufficient funding can hinder infrastructure development, maintenance and service delivery. Therefore, securing adequate and diversified funding sources is crucial to ensure sustainable electrification efforts.
- Technology choice is another influential factor. The adoption of appropriate technologies, such as off-grid solutions or decentralised renewable energy systems, can overcome the challenges posed by geographical remoteness, technical constraints and affordability issues.
- Community involvement and ownership have consistently been identified as key factors for successful electrification. Engaging local communities in the planning, implementation and maintenance of electrification projects fosters a sense of ownership, sustainability and social acceptance.
- Effective project management and coordination are vital for overcoming challenges and ensuring timely and efficient implementation. This includes proper planning, monitoring and evaluation, as well as coordination among stakeholders at various levels.
- Policy frameworks, political commitment and good governance are critical enablers for successful electrification. Clear policy direction, supportive regulations and stable political environments, create an enabling environment for investment, implementation and long-term sustainability.
- Affordability remains a significant barrier to electricity access in rural areas. Addressing affordability concerns through subsidies, financing mechanisms, or innovative business models is essential in ensuring equitable access to electricity.

It is important to note that the findings presented here are context-specific and may not be directly applicable to all African countries. Each country and community has its unique challenges, resources and opportunities. Therefore, a tailored approach that considers the specific socio-economic, political and geographical factors of each context is essential for successful electrification efforts.

In conclusion, the findings from the research on rural electrification in Africa highlight the diverse experiences and outcomes of electrification efforts in different contexts. The case studies presented exemplify the factors influencing the success or limitations of electrification initiatives. By understanding these factors, policy-makers, practitioners and stakeholders can design and implement effective electrification strategies that address the specific challenges and opportunities of rural communities in Africa.

DISCUSSION

Comparing the findings discussed with existing literature, reveals several areas of convergence and divergence. The literature generally agrees on the importance of rural electrification for socio-economic development and the challenges faced in achieving universal access in Africa. The findings align with existing research that highlights the significant progress made in countries like Rwanda, Ethiopia and South Africa, where concerted efforts have been made to expand electricity access. Similarly, the literature acknowledges the role of renewable energy in promoting rural electrification, as observed in Tanzania, Zimbabwe and other countries.

However, there are also some areas of divergence. The existing literature often emphasises the barriers to rural electrification, such as limited financial resources, inadequate infrastructure and policy and regulatory challenges. While these challenges are mentioned in the findings, the case studies focused more on the progress and strategies implemented by the respective countries, providing a more positive perspective. Additionally, the literature often highlights the need for community

engagement, capacity-building and innovative financing mechanisms, which are not explicitly discussed in the findings. This research contributes new evidence by presenting specific case studies from Africa that showcase successful rural electrification efforts. It highlights the progress made in countries like Rwanda, Ethiopia, South Africa, Tanzania and Zimbabwe, providing insights into the strategies and policies that have been effective in expanding electricity access. By focusing on specific examples, this research offers a more nuanced understanding of the challenges and opportunities in rural electrification, serving as a valuable resource for policy-makers, practitioners and researchers interested in this field.

The findings have several implications for policy and practice. Firstly, they underscore the importance of political commitment and strong leadership in driving rural electrification initiatives. Governments should prioritise rural electrification in their national development plans and allocate adequate resources to support implementation. Secondly, the findings highlight the significance of renewable energy sources in achieving sustainable and equitable electrification. Policy-makers should promote the deployment of decentralised renewable energy solutions, taking advantage of the abundant renewable resources in Africa. Additionally, the research suggests the importance of community engagement and capacity building to ensure the long-term success of electrification projects. Finally, it is crucial to establish effective regulatory frameworks and encourage public-private partnerships to attract investment and foster innovation in the rural electrification sector.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this article aimed to explore the progress and challenges of rural electrification in Africa, through a series of case studies. The key conclusions drawn from the research indicate that several African countries have made significant strides in expanding electricity access to rural areas. Successful strategies include strong political commitment, the promotion of renewable energy sources and community engagement. However, challenges such as limited financial resources,

inadequate infrastructure and policy barriers persist and require attention.

RECOMMENDATIONS:

- Governments should prioritise rural electrification in their national development plans and allocate sufficient resources to support implementation. They should also establish effective regulatory frameworks and foster public-private partnerships to attract investment and promote innovation.
- Development agencies and international organisations should provide financial and technical support to help countries overcome the barriers to rural electrification. This support should prioritise projects that leverage renewable energy sources, encourage community ownership and build local capacity.
- Private sector actors should actively participate in rural electrification initiatives by investing in renewable energy projects, offering innovative financing solutions and collaborating with local communities to ensure sustainability and inclusivity.
- Local communities should be engaged throughout the electrification process, empowering them to actively participate in decision-making, project implementation and maintenance. Community capacity building and awareness programmes can strengthen the long-term success of electrification projects.
- This research should assess the socio-economic benefits, environmental implications and equity outcomes of electrification efforts. Findings from such studies can inform future strategies and ensure that rural electrification contributes to sustainable development in Africa.

Overall, by implementing these recommendations and continuing to study the progress and impacts of rural electrification, stakeholders can work towards achieving sustainable and equitable electricity access for all communities in Africa.

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Wildlife Conservation and the Law under the Impact of Climate Change in Zimbabwe

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Abstract

The inarticulate major premise of the article is to examine the role of wildlife conservation in mitigating the impact of climate change. This article is premised on the foundation that wildlife plays a pivotal role in mitigating climate change. Since the beginning of time, humans have regarded wildlife as a means to an end. However, in the fight against climate change, there is need for a significant shift of the human mindset as wildlife is important in fighting climate change. This article discusses the effects of climate change, especially on wildlife and also how wildlife can contribute to mitigating climate change in Zimbabwe. It seeks to show how the law can be used as an instrument to protect wildlife threatened by the impact of climate change. The article focuses on wildlife conservation and the law under the impact of climate change in Zimbabwe. The study will show the current legal regime relating to wildlife conservation and determine whether the prevailing laws are sufficient to deal with wildlife conservation, especially under the impact of climate change.

Keywords: legal provisions, climate variability, policy, management

INTRODUCTION

The modern world is battling with the phenomena of climate change. Climate change has been a phenomenon since time immemorial. Human activities such as the burning of fossil fuels and agricultural activities leading to the production of

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greenhouse gases have been linked with climate change. The effects of climate change are being felt in the current contemporary world. Climate change has had various effects on the global environment such as frequent droughts, increases in rainfall from tropical cyclones and rampant wildfires. Wildlife has been directly affected by climate change as it affects the natural environment of the wildlife and wildlife must adapt to suit the changing environment. This has led to diseases, death, increased migration of wildlife and a decrease in wildlife reproduction, just to mention a few. The law is of paramount importance in regulating human conduct. The law has been instrumental in wildlife conservation by regulating human conduct towards wildlife. This is the reason for laws that criminalise conduct that endangers wildlife. It is the inarticulate major premise of this article to determine how the interplay of wildlife conservation and the law can be used against climate change. Therefore, this article discusses the role of wildlife conservation and the law under the impact of climate change in Zimbabwe.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

DEFINITION OF KEYWORDS AND CONCEPT

Keywords identified in this study are wildlife, wildlife conservation, law, climate change and the impact of climate change. Wildlife refers to animal and plant species occurring within natural ecosystems and habitats (Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement, 1999). In this study, wildlife is restricted to undomesticated animals and plants in their natural habitat. Wildlife includes animals, birds and insects that live on their own in the natural environment. Wildlife conservation is the protection, maintenance, rehabilitation, restoration and enhancement of wildlife and includes the management and use of wildlife to ensure the sustainability of such use (Schmitz, 2023).

The law refers to a set of rules and regulations that govern human conduct and other societal relations and is enforceable by the state (Madhuku, 2010). The law, in this case, is seen as a medium which can be used to mitigate the effects of climate change towards wildlife conservation. The law is regarded as a

social catalyst for reform. Climate change means a change of climate attributed directly or indirectly to human activity that alters the composition of the global atmosphere and is in addition to natural variability, observed over comparable periods (United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, 1992).

The impact of climate change means adverse changes in the physical environment or biota which have significant deleterious effects on the composition, resilience or productivity of natural and managed ecosystems or the operation of socio-economic systems or on human health and welfare. The impact of climate change will be focused on the effects of climate change such as increased global temperatures and changes in rainfall and wind patterns (*ibid.*).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The desk research methodology was used since there was no need to conduct physical research such as interviews and questionnaires. The study made use of secondary information such as textbooks, online articles and publications. Legislation, international conventions, case law and newspaper articles were used as sources of information.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The world's wildlife population has declined significantly in the last century. On average, wildlife numbers declined by 68% between 1997 and 2016 (Chami *et al.*, 2020). Causes of the wildlife decline include exponential human population growth, increasing livestock number, declining rainfall and a striking rise in temperature, but the fundamental cause seems to be policy, institutional and market failures (Ogutu *et al.*, 2016). If such a state of affairs is allowed to continue in the next 50 years, there will be no wildlife to talk about in this world.

The New York Times (Rogers, 2015) reported the killing by Andrew Palmer, an American dentist, of Cecil the iconic black-maned alpha male lion from Hwange National Park and this sparked debate on the issue of trophy-hunting. Cecil is just part of the statistics as a vast number of animals are killed due to trophy-hunting in Africa. From a disinterested perspective,

trophy-hunting can be a source of revenue for economically less developed countries such as Zimbabwe. However, the reality is that trophy-hunting is significantly contributing to the wildlife population decline in Africa. The population of African lions has markedly declined as research shows that there has been a decline of 75% over the last five decades (Loveridge *et al.*, 2022).

The African elephant is being threatened by severe poaching. It is estimated that more than 25 000 elephants were poached in 2011 (Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora, 2011). Even if the current onslaught of poaching stopped, viable populations of *in situ* wildlife in Africa will not survive due to habitat loss. Habitat loss is an African wildlife silent killer (Fitzgerald, 2015). Plants are also part of wildlife. The importance of plants in the natural ecosystem is underestimated. Plants are key for food and habitat that they provide. Plants are key in the purification of air. The world is recording significant declines in plant populations. Half of Britain and Ireland native plants have declined in the past 20 years (Horton, 2023).

Climate change and biodiversity crises are not separate issues and the restoration of animal populations should be included in the scope of nature-based climate solutions. Rewilding animal populations to enhance natural carbon capture and storage is known as animating the carbon cycle (Cromsigt *et al.*, 2018). Wild animals play a critical role in controlling the carbon cycle in terrestrial freshwater and marine ecosystems through a wide range of processes, including foraging, nutrient deposition, disturbance, organic carbon deposition and social dispersal. The dynamics of carbon uptake and storage fundamentally change with the presence or absence of animals (Schmitz *et al.*, 2023). This shows that wildlife is key in reducing climate change and there is need to fight climate change through nature-based solutions such as rewilding.

Wildlife is crucial in fighting climate change. This can be seen by wildlife such as African forest elephants helping reduce carbon by trampling smaller aggressive growing plants and allowing slower-growing trees to become well established and grow taller and such trees store more carbon from the air than

smaller trees (*ibid.*). The African forest elephants have been nicknamed the ‘Gardeners of the Congo’. African forest elephants also been termed ‘environmental engineers’, are providing \$150 billion worth of carbon capture services every year (Chami *et al.*, 2020).

IMPORTANCE OF WILDLIFE CONSERVATION

Wildlife has existed since the beginning of time. Biblical reference shows that wildlife existence predates the creation of human beings (King James Version, 1769). Humans and wildlife have existed together since creation. Wildlife is usually sought by humans for skins, horns and as a source of food. As human needs increased, wildlife has been diminished as these needs have to be satisfied at all costs. The major cause of wildlife destruction is the conversion of natural wildlife habitats into agricultural land and related infrastructure. Vast tracks of forests are being cleared to pave way for human settlement.

Wildlife plays an important role in the existence of human beings. Wildlife is crucial in the maintenance of ecological balance and biological diversity. The term ‘biological diversity’ means the variability among living organisms from all sources, *inter alia*, terrestrial, marine and other aquatic ecosystems, and the ecological complexes of which they are part. This includes diversity within species, between species and of ecosystems (Convention on Biological Diversity, 1993).

The Convention on Biological Diversity echoes the importance of biological diversity in the economic and social life of human beings. Wildlife plays a key role in biological diversity through processes such as pollination, seed dispersal and decomposition. Wildlife is an asset in biological diversity as can be seen by the way some animals prevent overpopulation in an ecosystem. Herbivores are crucial to biodiversity as they help plant reproduction. Carnivores, on the other hand, are crucial in keeping herbivore populations in check. Decomposers and scavengers are key in breaking down dead organic matter.

Wildlife plays an important part in most countries’ economic activities through wildlife tourism. Wildlife tourism can be a catalyst for community development and benefit rural

communities by stemming rural-urban migration. Wildlife tourism facilitates investments in infrastructure and livelihood opportunities in rural areas, increases demand for agricultural and artisanal goods, employs and empowers women and provides an economic incentive for conservation for communities living alongside wildlife (World Bank, 2018). It is estimated that 80% of trips to Africa are for wildlife watching, making it the most important tourism segment in the region (United Nations Trade World Organisation, 2015).

It is of paramount importance to note that wildlife conservation and climate change are seen as different issues in most cases, but both are intrinsically connected. Fighting climate change positively saves wildlife across the world and while wildlife conservation helps in dealing with climate change. Humans should be aware of the logical fact that climate change harms the very existence of human beings and also wildlife. Ironically, humans and wildlife now have a mutual enemy as the survival of wildlife is key to fighting climate change and, hence, humans have to be the custodians of wildlife.

IMPACT OF CLIMATE CHANGE AND WILDLIFE

The impact of climate change is being felt across all facets of the human existence. The ozone layer is being depleted by greenhouse gases. Temperatures are increasing, leading to the world being warmer. Glaciers are melting resulting in increased sea levels. Droughts are now frequently more prolonged and severe. Wildlife, which has since time immemorial been under human threat, is now suffering a double jeopardy as wildlife is now also being affected by the impacts of climate change.

The rising of global temperatures negatively affects vegetation and water. Wildlife is affected by the changes in temperatures. Herbivores, which depend on the plants, lose their primary source of food. Once there is a problem in any part of the ecosystem, the whole ecosystem is affected. Water challenges in an ecosystem affect the whole ecosystem. Animals require drinking water and any shortages will be detrimental. In 2019, it was reported that 55 elephants had died in Zimbabwe at watering holes showing that such elephants would have walked a great distance to access the water (Al-Jazeera, 2019). In the

year 2022, hundreds of animals died in Kenya preserves as a result of lack of food and water (France24, 2022) This shows that the impacts of climate change are being felt by wildlife significantly.

Most rural communities in Zimbabwe are now battling with the issue of human-wildlife conflict as wild animals are coming into their communities scavenging for food and water. In Kariba, it is common to find elephants and zebras in human settlements (Svotwai *et al.*, 2007). Thus, from this, it can be deduced that there is now increased human-wildlife conflict due to climate change. Humans and wildlife are now in fierce competition for resources required for both their survival such as food and water. Wildlife that finds itself in human settlement is killed in most cases, leading to further losses of wildlife.

In Mberengwa District, hyenas invaded local communities and decimated donkeys, goats and cattle, leading to the impoverishment of the affected people (Ndlovhu, 2023). In November 2020, it was reported that an elderly man had been killed by a pack of hyenas after they pulled him from his bed while sleeping in Chirumanzu central Zimbabwe (Kolirin, 2020). Climate change has had a significant impact on wildlife reproduction (Pilakout, 2023). The shifts in season affect the reproduction of wildlife as some animals can reproduce only during wet seasons and others in dry seasons. As such, the shifts in the weather greatly affect the reproduction of wildlife leading to a decrease in wildlife population. Due to climate change, heat waves have become normal. Heat stress can affect all aspects of reproduction, including gamete development, fertilisation success, parental care and offspring survival (Pilakout, 2023). The net effect of reduced reproduction of wildlife is that there will be an inevitable wildlife population decline.

Wildfires are caused mostly by increased temperatures and heat waves (Chinembiri, 2022). Wildfires harm wildlife habitats and, as such, fires consume large areas of forests which are the primary habitats for wildlife (Chinamatira, Mtetwa, Nyamadzawo, 2016). The direct effects of wildfires can be seen through the high mortality of animals, especially slow-moving

animals through flames and smoke. Once animals lose their natural habitats, they become vulnerable to starvation and predation.

Emerging infectious diseases are now on the rise due to climate change and wildlife is on the receiving end. Increases in temperature and humidity affect wildlife and make them susceptible to infectious diseases. The danger of infectious diseases, such as Sars and influenza, is that they are easily communicable to humans..

Through wildlife migration, infectious diseases are easily transmitted from one geographical location to another. The diseases contribute massively to the death of animals causing an increase in wildlife population decline. Wildlife cannot be immunised or vaccinated against infectious diseases as can be done for humans. In 1994, a climate change-linked canine distemper virus (CDV) decimated a third of the lion's population in the Serengeti National Park in Tanzania (Yong, 2008).

THE FUNCTIONS OF LAW IN SOCIETY

Laws have been in existence since time immemorial. The emergency of the law can be traced back to creation. All human societies have had laws in one form or another. The law qualitatively changed as societies progressed in the course of history. Then, the law was primitive in communal societies. However, it progressed qualitatively over time and the law in the modern world is sophisticated. The major function of the law has been to preserve law and order (Madhuku, 2010). It is propounded that without law, the society would break into unprecedented chaos and anarchy. It is propagated that society is much safer and more civilised through the medium of the law. Without law, it would be survival of the fittest.

The development of the law has been linked to the rise of private property (Marx and Engels, 1847). It is argued that in primitive societies, the law was less developed as all affairs of the society were communal. In a communal setup, there was no private property and the resources and means of production were all shared. This changed drastically with the introduction of private property. There was no great need for law to protect

those with private property. The law changed from being communal to protecting the interests of those with property (Marx and Engels, 1848). This theory is evidenced by the way the law has been protecting a particular group at all stages of human development, from feudalism to modern-day capitalism. During the feudal period, the law protected feudalism. In the slave era, the law protected the slaves. Colonialists were also protected through the medium of the law. In the modern-day capitalist era, the law favours capitalism.

The law has also been seen as a function to oppress certain groups in society (Engels and Marx, 1848). Radical feminists argue that the law has been a means to promote patriarchy since the historical defeat of matriarchy. This argument is given life by how the law has historically oppressed women systematically (Thomas, 2021) It was only in 1920 that there was women's suffrage in the United States (United States Constitution, 19th Amendment). In South Africa, the law was used to entrench apartheid, a system that legitimised racial segregation resulting in political, economic and social domination of native South Africans by the white minority population (Constitution of Republic of South Africa, 1988).

THE LAW AND WILDLIFE CONSERVATION UNDER THE IMPACT OF CLIMATE CHANGE

The law can be used as a positive tool in the fight for wildlife conservation under the impact of climate change. The law is useful in setting standards for wildlife conservation. It is submitted that the law is reactionary in most cases and comes into play only after a problem has emerged. Most laws are promulgated to deal with a particular mischief. This can be seen by the way governments reacted to the global Covid-19 pandemic and set out laws to mitigate its effects.

It is submitted that the law has not responded swiftly to the worldwide reality of climate change. The law has been silent on wildlife conservation under climate change. As such, there is a gap in the law concerning wildlife conservation. The laws on wildlife conservation with particular attention on the impact of climate change are not enough or do not exist at all. There is need for the law to react to and address the challenges being

actuated by climate change so that wildlife protection and conservation can be possible. The way the law may prescribe the amount of carbon content being released to mitigate the depletion of the ozone law, is the same way the law should have measures in place to protect wildlife under the impact of climate change.

In Zimbabwe, the Parks and Wildlife Act [Chapter 20:14] commenced on the 1st of November 1975. This is the principal legislation on wildlife in Zimbabwe. It is important to note that this piece of legislation was promulgated during the colonial era. During this historical period, there were no international legal instruments on wildlife conservation and climate change.

The prevailing international instrument dealing with wildlife in 1975 was the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES) (1975), which was meant to ensure that international trade in species would not threaten the survival of such species. The CITES does not make any reference to species being endangered by climate change. The spirit of the CITES probably informed the text of the Parks and Wildlife Act. It is important to note that the Stockholm Declaration (1972) focused only on the environment and did not pay special attention to wildlife and climate change.

It was only in the early 1990s that the world started realising that the natural environment was changing due to climate change. The world was caught unprepared. The Rio Declaration and the United Nations Framework on Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) (1992) were internationally promulgated. The Convention on Biological Diversity (1993) was targeted at biodiversity and not specifically related to climate change and wildlife conservation.

The Paris Agreement (2015), also known as the Paris Accords, is an international treaty under the UNFCCC, which is concerned with mitigation of climate change effects such as reduction of carbon and temperatures. Zimbabwe is a signatory to the Rio Declaration, the UFCCC, the Convention on Biological Diversity and the Paris Agreement. Zimbabwe is a dualist state and all international treaties have to be signed first at international

level and then domesticated in Zimbabwe through an Act of Parliament (Constitution of Zimbabwe, 2013).

The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement was promulgated by the Southern African Development Community (SADC). Zimbabwe is a signatory to this Protocol. However, the Protocol has not been made law in Zimbabwe. The thematic concern of this Protocol was to establish a common framework for the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife in Southern Africa. This was a positive Protocol as far as wildlife is concerned, but it did not pay attention to how climate change was affecting wildlife conservation. This was a significant drawback given that the greatest threat to wildlife, alongside humans, is climate change. The UNFCCC had already shown how climate change was a reality and affecting the world and, as such, the Protocol ought to have recognised the issue of climate change. This shows that climate change was not regarded as an issue in Africa from the onset. The effects of climate change which are now being felt more in this day were present two decades ago.

Apart from the Parks and Wildlife Act, the Environmental Management Act [Chapter 20:27] is also another principal legislation that is concerned with the environment. The Environmental Management Act, despite being promulgated in 2002 and being amended in 2004 and 2006, fails to acknowledge climate change. This is a significant drawback of the Act. Equally important is that the Act does not concern itself with wildlife conservation.

Not to escape mention is the Forestry Act [Chapter 19:05], which came into force on the 9th of December 1945. This piece of legislation is supposed to be the one dealing with the conservation of forests in Zimbabwe. Forests are important because they are the natural habitats for wildlife. The conservation of forests is key for the preservation and conservation of wildlife. The Forestry Act is silent on climate change and wildlife conservation.

There is an international legal framework focused on climate change as can be seen from the UNFCCC and Paris Agreement.

The international community has responded swiftly to the issue of climate change. The international community is now aware of the fact that there is great need to take urgent action against climate change. In as much as the international community has been alive to the reality of climate change, there has not been much emphasis on wildlife conservation under climate change. Wildlife has not been given full attention, yet it is key in fighting climate change.

At a municipal level, there is no legal framework to deal with climate change. The legal regime in Zimbabwe does not refer to climate change at all. The conventions, protocols and declarations that have been held and made at an international level, have not been made part of the municipal law. There is great need for having these international instruments made part of the Zimbabwean law for purposes of enforcement. The effects of climate change are being felt in Zimbabwe and there is no justification why there should not be urgent action to be taken in the fight against climate change.

The legal regime dealing with wildlife conservation in Zimbabwe is limited. The Parks and Wildlife Act is outdated. The Act does not have any provisions on the impact of climate change. It does not have sufficient provisions for wildlife conservation. At the time the Act came into force, the prevailing concern was to reduce the destruction of wildlife by human beings and hence the criminalisation of specific acts. The greatest modern-day threat wildlife is facing is climate change. Most wild animals in Zimbabwe are dying because of drought and diseases. Gone are the days when poaching used to be a major threat to animals.

It is interesting to note that the Act defines wildlife as all forms of animal life, vertebra or invertebrates, which are indigenous to Zimbabwe and the eggs or young thereof, other than fish. Under this definition, plants are not defined as wildlife and such is incorrect. There is need for the amendment of the Parks and Wildlife Act so that it has a proper working definition of the phrase 'wildlife'.

The legal regime must be sensitive to the plight of wildlife, especially when it comes to climate change. Wildlife is

particularly vulnerable to the effects of climate change. There is need for laws to deal with the conservation of wildlife under the impact of climate change. Law reform can be done through criminalising the commercial sale of wild fruits and wild plants. Humans are making profits through wildlife, while wild animals are suffering due to a lack of food. It should be noted that wild animals are protected only when they are in national parks and once they are outside such boundaries, they are no longer protected. This is how Cecil the iconic lion was killed. Thus, there is need for law reform in this area so that the law is clear on that hunting wild animals, even outside game reserves and national parks, is a criminal offence.

The Parks and Wildlife Act does not have enough financial provisions. For the Act to be administered efficiently, there is need for a Wildlife Fund to be established in the same way the Environmental Management Act creates an Environmental Fund. A Wildlife Fund will then cater for the provision of food and water for wildlife during periods of drought and also veterinarian provisions in cases of diseases.

A Wildlife Fund will also capacitate the Parks and Wildlife financially so that it can have the necessary personnel and equipment. The issue of wild animals escaping can be minimised if there is funding as this can be used to adequately fence parks and protected areas. If there is enough funding, technology can be used through the use of CCTVs and wildlife animal tagging. Rhinos can be saved from poaching through de-horning as dehorned rhinos are not targeted by poachers. Such a process requires funding and hence the need for the law to enable the establishment of the Wildlife Fund. As of this day in Zimbabwe, wildlife protection is dependent on donor funding. The challenge with donor funding is that it is not sustainable as such funding can be withdrawn, hence the need to have a specific Wildlife Fund.

The major challenge wildlife is facing is the loss of their natural habitat. Vast tracks of land are being cleared to pave way for agricultural activities and human settlement. Human settlements are being created in forests and mountains which are the traditional habitats of wildlife. Wildlife is being displaced

from its natural habitat. It is important that before such land is cleared, there be a wildlife impact assessment to consider if such human developments will not affect wildlife and if the same is affected, how best the situation can be ameliorated.

Thousands of wildlife perished during the construction of Lake Kariba (Svotwa, 2007). This could have been easily prevented if there had been a wildlife impact assessment. The wildlife impact assessment can be a provision that is inserted into the Parks and Wildlife Act. The importance of a wildlife impact assessment is that it protects humans settled in traditional animal habitats who are sometimes at the mercy of wildlife such as snakes. Human-wildlife conflicts have been induced by climate change. Wildlife and human beings are now competing for scant resources. Due to limited pastures, communal farmers are now trespassing into parks and protected areas for grazing land. On the other hand, wild animals are now straying into communal areas for food and water. There is need for laws that specify areas for human settlement. Areas close to parks and wildlife should be reserved to prevent human-wildlife conflict.

CONCLUSION

Climate change is a reality. The world is feeling the impact of climate change. Wildlife is especially vulnerable to climate change. There is a significant wildlife decline been actuated by climate change. The climate change and biodiversity crises are interlinked. Wildlife can be used as a tool to combat climate change. There is need for law reform so that the legal regime dealing with wildlife is sensitive to the plight of wildlife under the impact of climate change. The current legal regime as alluded to above, is outdated and does not provide for the protection and conservation of wildlife.

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Who Makes a Good Ward Councillor? The Ongoing Debate on The Local Government System in Zimbabwe

PRECIOUS SHUMBA¹

Abstract

This article examines the role of councillors as overseers, representatives of the electorate and policy-makers in Zimbabwe's urban local authorities using document analysis and key informant interviews with local government experts and former ward councillors. The study unpacks the criteria set in legislation and the Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment (Number 20) Act of 2013, examines the role of councillors within local authorities, the residents' expectations of ward councillors and concludes with debates on the minimum educational requirements for councillors. Councillors play three critical roles, those of policy-making, representation and oversight, as well as facilitating community development within their respective wards. The study scrutinises the criteria required for one to effectively deliver in their role as ward councillor. To have an appreciation of the functions of a councillor and the criteria needed to be more effective and efficient, the article highlights the key functions of the local authority as the institution through which councillors conduct their work to meet social service delivery needs of the citizens.

Keywords: local authority, democracy, criteria, electorate

INTRODUCTION

This article examines the criteria for election into the office of ward councillor in Zimbabwe based on the provisions of the Electoral Act (Chapter 2.13) and the Urban Councils Act (Chapter 29.15), the UCA. In the Zimbabwean context, most councillors are initially chosen through political party-driven primary elections, where various interested candidates from the

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same political party compete against each other with one emerging as the winner to represent the party against candidates from other political parties in harmonised elections. For one to be chosen as the winner, the political parties allow everyone interested to contest to stand in the primary elections without any limitations based on education, experience or record of service to the people but based on popularity and loyalty to the political party.

However, the role of a ward councillor is beyond popularity and loyalty to one's political party leaders. It remains a critical determinant of the success or failure of a local authority in meeting service delivery needs of the electorate. When elected into office, councillors find experienced and more knowledgeable bureaucrats leading the various council departments, which sometimes breeds conflict between them. It is mostly after councillors are in office that the electorate begins to ask critical questions about the competence and experience of individual councillors, service delivery, project priorities, resource allocation, strategic planning, budget formulation and recruitment of key personnel. Therefore, for one to be a ward councillor, they simply have to meet the criteria set in the Electoral Act and the UCA.

What qualifications should one possess to be an effective and efficient councillor? The Harare Residents' Trust (HRT) in 2013 and 2018 reiterated calls for the government to set up a definite criterion in the election of councillors. This did not succeed and the status quo remains. There have been efforts to introduce minimum academic and professional qualifications by the government of Zimbabwe (Murwira, 2023). The Zimbabwe Cabinet received, debated and approved principles of the Rural District Councils Amendment Bill which sought, among other things, to fix the qualifications of councillors for local authorities in Zimbabwe. Shumba and Zinyama (2013) argue that the more experienced bureaucrats within local authorities manipulate the inexperienced, and sometimes naïve, councillors for their benefit. The authors, therefore, propose a minimum educational qualification as the best way to improve the quality of policy-makers in local authorities. They concluded that the Zimbabwe political system has let down the people by allowing

the political party system to dictate who becomes a councillor, instead of setting a meritocratic system to elect a mayor and councillors to enhance service delivery.

Traditionally, Zimbabweans vote for political party-selected candidates, making them passive voters who are not necessarily involved in the selection of the candidates by the political parties in the first place.

There were significant changes to the local government system after independence in 1980. The Urban Councils Act (Chapter 214) was repealed and replaced by the Urban Councils Act (Chapter 29.15) in 1997. The changes ushered in the executive mayors directly elected by residents. Maybe concerned with the quality of policy and decision-making among councillors, the government of Zimbabwe inserted a section in the Local Government Amendment Laws of 2008 that allowed for the election of one of the councillors or another person from outside council to be elected by the councillors as mayor of a city or a municipal council, abandoning the executive mayors. Former Harare mayors Advocate Muchadeyi Masunda and Bernard Manyenyeni bemoaned the functional illiteracy of most councillors in Harare (Razemba, 2015).

However, this changed in 2008 ahead of the harmonised elections, returning to the period of ceremonial councillors and mayors (Parliament, 2008). Section 274(5) of the Constitution of Zimbabwe of 2013 states that an Act of Parliament may confer executive powers on the mayor or chairperson of an urban local authority, but such a mayor or chairperson should be directly elected by registered voters. The assumption is that executive mayors wield more executive authority to supervise and preside over the affairs of their respective local authorities. In this article, the focus is on the criteria for one to be a ward councillor, therefore the executive mayoral position is not thoroughly investigated.

Before the 1997 amendments to the UCA, one was required to be a property owner, above the requirements of being registered as a voter in the ward one is interested in and be 21 years of age and above. While this study argues for a set of minimum

academic qualifications for one to be elected as a ward councillor, there is another school of thought that posits that having academic qualifications alone is insufficient to make one a successful councillor. Democracy promotes inclusivity and even uneducated policy-makers can articulate the aspirations of their constituents.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The electorate elects into office their ward councillor from among a host of candidates presented by political parties. Other candidates contest as independents to represent the electorate in the local authority ward elections. In this article the focus is on the political party-chosen candidate who contests against candidates from other political parties until one of them emerges as a winner, becoming a ward councillor. A ward councillor is the one directly elected by the electorate to represent a ward within a local authority. This is the smallest unit of representation in Zimbabwe’s electoral democracy. There are 1 970 such wards in Zimbabwe.

This study argues that for one to be an effective and efficient councillor within a local authority, they have to have a minimum level of education that enables them comprehend the most basic of council documents in their policy-making, oversight and representative roles.



Figure 1. *Conceptual Framework on Councillors*

As visualised in Figure 1, the election of ward councillors is an inclusive service delivery outcome where the citizens experience positive public goods and services from the local authority. For this to happen, political parties have to adopt and implement transparent, accountable and meritocratic candidate selection processes, thus limiting opportunism in the office of ward councillor. The result is that educated and experienced councillors can develop good corporate governance within the local authority, resulting in inclusive service delivery outcomes.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study used the human rights approach, democracy and the rational choice theory in examining the criteria used to select ward councillors and the roles of councillors in Zimbabwe's local authorities. Hausen and Launiala (2015:8) assert that a human-rights-based approach has two distinct objectives to achieve which are:

[to] empower people to claim and exercise their human rights and to strengthen the capacity of duty-bearers who have a particular obligation or responsibility to respect, protect and fulfil the rights of the poorest, weakest, most marginalised and vulnerable and to comply with these duties and obligations.

The human rights-based approach (HRBA) to development includes civil and political rights and freedoms, as well as economic, social and cultural rights. The HRBA is a lens, through which barriers to development and patterns of discrimination, can be identified, according to Hausen and Launiala (2015). It considers the rights-holders as individuals or social groups that have specific entitlements concerning specific rights. Some duty-bearers are mainly the state and official authorities who have the duty and obligation to respect, fulfil and protect the rights of the citizens.

According to Haugaard (2010:1056), democracy is a “system for moving conflict from coercion to regularised institutional procedures”. The contestation for political power by candidates and their political parties is done within a system of conflict containment. The contestation for political power begins within political parties which create the rules and procedures for contestants to fight for majority votes to earn the right to represent the respective political party in the national

harmonised elections, in the case of Zimbabwe. When political parties contest for power, they promise to serve the interest of all citizens from whom they seek the mandate to govern. However, in each election, there is only one winner, thus losers and winners can reproduce the democratic system by agreeing to respect the rules of the game of politics. As Haugaard argues (*ibid.*), democracy constitutes a ‘stable decision-making process’ anchored on the principle of equality and impartiality, where all contestants and participants are treated objectively as equal stakeholders in the electoral processes.

Cincotta (2007) says that the word ‘democracy’ is derived from the Greek word *demos* or “people” and defines it as a government whose supreme power is vested in the people. He asserts that in small associations or communities, democracy can be exercised directly by the people who make the decisions as a collective whole while in bigger societies like nations, democracy is exercised through representatives chosen by the people to represent them in public policy. Councillors are representatives of the people, elected first through political party primary election systems before they participate in local authority elections conducted by the Zimbabwe Electoral Commission (ZEC) in terms of Zimbabwe’s Constitution and electoral and local government laws. Under the governance system of democracy, a set of ideas and principles about the freedom of the people have been developed over a long time through undergoing significant transformation. Citizens within a democracy not only have rights, but also have responsibilities to fully participate in the “political system that in turn protects their rights and freedoms” (Cincotta, 2007:3).

In the electoral processes, councillors are thinking beings and in everything that they do in pursuit of their political objectives, they are purposive and considerate. The study uses the rational choice theory propounded by Friedman and Hechter (1988) as cited in Ritzer (2010). According to Ritzer (*ibid.*), actors take action intending to achieve objectives that are consistent with their preferences. However, in taking these actions or decisions, the actors are constrained by the opportunity costs and the scarcity of resources. Ultimately, the behaviours and conduct of potential councillors in their campaigns for political office are

influenced by their desire to achieve their political objectives, within their reach and will avoid contestations for political office where their prospects of emerging victorious are slim. This, therefore, helps to explain why council candidates contest elections in the wards that they contest in.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Elections in Zimbabwe are highly contested. Political parties field their preferred candidates, presumably the best among their members. Independent candidates also take part in the elections. However, the majority of the people still vote for political party-chosen candidates. Zimbabwe is dominated by the ruling Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF), while the opposition is presently dominated by the Citizens Coalition for Change (CCC). To be elected as a ward councillor in Zimbabwe is a matter of being 21 years of age, being a citizen of Zimbabwe and being a registered voter in the ward being contested.

Citizens of a country have the right to participate freely in the affairs of their government, directly or indirectly through freely chosen representatives, (Organisation of African Unity, 1986:5). This is achieved through legally provided citizen participation where the citizens are provided with the opportunity to elect, in a democratic, free, transparent and credible election, their preferred candidates (Mapuva and Takabika, 2020). The Zimbabwean scenario offers everyone who disqualifies, the opportunity to elect or be elected into public office. Within a democratic state, democracy is government by debate and discussion by the people as opposed to rule by arbitrary will or dictatorship by an individual or a few individuals, (Opuamie-Ngoa, 2010). This, therefore, shows that the Zimbabwean system provides fundamental freedoms to the citizens to elect councillors of their choice, irrespective of their levels of academic qualifications.

The minimal qualifications of elected councillors are specified in legislation but exclude the requirement for minimum academic qualifications. In research done by the Institute for Democratic Alternative for Zimbabwe (IDAZIM) in July 2010, they

established that one of the major sources of poor performance by local authorities in the country was the lack of competent and experienced technocrats. The situation was worsened by the inexperienced councillors whose policy-making, oversight and representative roles were found wanting in the formulation of council budgets, development of strategic plans and other important policy documents, (IDAZIM, 2010). These findings are consistent with the earlier research by Jonga (2009) who argues that the high demands on local authorities can be complemented only by councillors with high academic and professional qualifications who could correctly interpret problems faced by people and their development needs.

In their study in assessing the role of councillors in service delivery at the local government level in South Africa, Paradza *et al.* (2010) establish that literate, experienced and skilled councillors performed far much better than those without much experience and education. Despite the South African system not providing for any minimum academic qualifications for one to be a councillor, the majority of councillors are chosen because of their competencies and their capacity to articulate residents' issues. The Municipal Turnaround Strategy that the Ministry of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs launched in 2010 following a review of the state of local governance in South Africa identified internal and external factors that contributed to municipal service delivery problems. They identified the internal factors over which the municipal council had direct influence. These included the quality of decision-making by councillors, the quality of appointments within the municipal administration, procurement and financial governance, (Paradza *et al.*, 2010:6). The study's focus on the quality of decisions by the councillors dwells on their academic qualifications, experiences, skills and competences and how this contributed to resolving municipal service delivery challenges.

According to Paradza *et al.* (2010), councillors who previously worked in other professions like teaching, public relations, engineering, municipal and banking, significantly drew from

their experiences to enhance the performance of their roles in the council. They said:

For example, a former city engineer felt his understanding of municipal managers enhanced his interaction with municipal management, whilst a councillor who had previously worked as an administrator in the provincial government, felt the experience increased her capacity to understand municipal structures. As there are no minimum qualifications for councillors, it is assumed that councillors can read, understand and analyse the large reports that they are presented with before the Portfolio Committee meetings.

The South African study focused on four municipalities of Khara Hais, Northern Cape Province; Randfontein Municipality, Gauteng Province; Phumelela Municipality, Free State Province; and Madibeng Municipality in the North-West Province, (*ibid.*).

In the 2020 study, the Randfontein Municipality Speaker decried the shortcomings displayed by councillors with lower educational qualifications. It was found that they struggled with comprehension of council documents and legislation to perform their work. Councillors with lower qualifications and literacy levels have limited capacity to interrogate council technocrats, scrutinise their work and hold them accountable, (*ibid.*). Council workers are recruited based mostly on their expertise, experience and skills.

In Botswana, there are no academic qualifications required for one to be elected into office as a ward councillor. According to Sharma (2010), the country does not have many experienced and highly qualified people to run their local authorities. However, the Government of Botswana, through the Local Government Service Management (LGSM), focuses on staff in local authorities and is responsible for recruiting, posting, training, transferring, disciplining, promoting and setting the conditions of service, thus making local authorities deconcentrated units (*ibid.*). The competencies and capacities of councillors drawn from political parties leave a lot to be desired (*ibid.*). This has limited the participation of communities and local-level grassroots structures. The Government of Botswana has been involved in increasing the capacity of technocrats in local authorities without similar efforts at developing the capacities of the elected councillors.

METHODOLOGY

The article is based on data collected through a review of literature from South Africa, Botswana and Zimbabwe, the Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment (Number 20) Act of 2013, the Urban Councils' Act (Chapter 29.15) and the Electoral Act (Chapter 2.13), key informant interviews with participants conveniently selected for their willingness to participate and their availability and because they are experienced and knowledgeable in local government. According to Bowen (2009), document analysis is an important social research tool in its own right, which is useful in triangulation and used in most schemes of triangulation and a combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon.

NUANCING THE EVIDENCE ON THE GROUND TO TRUTHS

The importance of councillors in the life of residents is not reflected in the requirements for one to qualify to be elected as a ward councillor. A thematic approach was used to critically analyse the findings of this research.

QUALIFICATIONS SET IN THE ELECTORAL ACT (CHAPTER 2.13)

According to Section 119 (1) of the Electoral Act (Chapter 2.13), the criteria for one to qualify or be disqualified from being nominated to contest as a council candidate in an election is stated. Subsection (1) states that “Any person who— (a) is a citizen of Zimbabwe; and (b) has attained the age of twenty-one years and (c) is enrolled on the voters roll for the council area concerned; and (d) is not disqualified in terms of subsection (2), shall be qualified to be elected as a councillor.” It further states in subsection (2) that one is disqualified, among other reasons, for being a Member of Parliament, having been convicted of dishonesty, or being declared insolvent in the past five years. This makes it very easy to contest as a councillor in Zimbabwe. In a country with high levels of unemployment, one simply needs to be 21 years old, a citizen, a registered voter and without any criminal conviction to qualify for office. Viewed from a democratic perspective, this appears to be inclusive and reasonable.

It is consistent with section 3(b) of the Electoral Act on general principles of democratic elections, which asserts in (i) that every citizen has a right to

“participate in government directly or through freely chosen representatives and is entitled, without distinction on the ground of race, ethnicity, gender, language, political or religious belief, education, physical appearance or disability or economic or social condition, to stand for office and cast a vote freely”.

Maouva and Takabika (2020) recognise that the Constitution of Zimbabwe, the Electoral Act and the UCA do not provide for any academic qualifications, maybe as a recognition of section 56(3) of the constitution which states that every person has the right not to be treated in an unfairly discriminatory manner on any grounds.

ELECTIONS IN LOCAL AUTHORITIES

For the past decade, Zimbabwe had 1 958 wards covering 60 rural and 32 urban local authorities until the 2023 delimitation exercise, which increased the number of wards to 1 970. Councillors, Members of Parliament, Senators and the President come into office through elections held simultaneously every five years in terms of the Electoral Act and the Constitution. Local authorities are one of the three tiers of government and are the closest to the people. At the helm of policy-making are councillors, both elected and the 30% women’s quota representatives (Government of Zimbabwe, 2023). Beginning on 23 August 2023, 30% of women councillors were chosen based on proportional representation using political party lists to work together with the directly elected ward councillors, according to section 277(4) and (5) of the 2013 Constitution of Zimbabwe.

The last harmonised elections were held on 23-24 August 2023. Zimbabweans voted along political party lines. Councillors are not elected based on their experience or academic or professional qualifications, but on the strength and popularity of their respective political parties. Based on these concerns, one is persuaded to argue that an enlightened policy-maker is easier to train on several aspects of local government than an uneducated councillor. On the contrary, there is very little evidence to suggest that any particular councillor was elected based on their brilliance, track record or competence other than

party affiliation. This trend, therefore, demonstrates that Zimbabweans are a highly partisan people whose electoral choices are either the major opposition or the ruling party, without any scrutiny of the capacities of the elected officials.

RESIDENTS' UNDERSTANDING OF THE ROLE OF WARD COUNCILLOR

Residents understand the role of a ward councillor to be that of a community developer, community representative, policy-maker and one who oversees the work of council workers. It is the community development role that is most prominent in the view of the majority of residents. When evaluating the performance of a councillor, residents talk about tangible projects and other deliverables that the respective ward councillor did. Residents endure poor service delivery by local authorities, yet their understanding of the role of councillors remains elusive and unclear. They expect councillors to make a difference and improve their quality of life. Therefore, it suggests that mere age, citizenship and registered voter criteria do not resolve the challenges facing local authorities in Zimbabwe.

The HRT (2021) asserts that residents are totally confused about the roles of a councillor, especially between being a benefactor to residents and being their representative in the council. Residents expect their councillors to bring tangible community developments and touch individual residents' lives by responding to their practical needs. The councillor is expected to do more than what the law currently provides. An Eastlea resident expects the ward councillor to attend to cultural sites, recreational facilities, provision of social services and low rates for services. This has meant that councillors have to consent to the electorate's demands to get the vote. Once they are voted into office, they forget and neglect the residents. It may not be neglect as such, because the law is silent on the monitoring and evaluation of a councillor in office. However, after the vote, councillors concentrate more on their council committee and full council meetings and they rarely conduct ward feedback meetings, thus making them seem like council workers instead of being representatives of the residents in the council.

Residents observe their councillors changing their lifestyles while their service delivery conditions worsen. The implication is that councillors benefit more as individuals in their positions than improve the living conditions of residents. Therefore, one may conclude that councillors serve their interests mostly when elected into office, instead of representing the interests of residents. From a rational choice theory perspective,² the explanation is that councillors use their positions as a means to an end. They consider getting into office more important than serving the electorate's interests.

FUNCTIONS OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES TO CITIZENS

The Urban Councils Act (Chapter 29.15) allocates 54 duties and powers which urban local authorities can perform in their areas of jurisdiction, as stated in the Second Schedule (section 198). Section 71 of the Rural District Councils Act (Chapter 29.13) confers upon rural local authorities 64 functions where the council may exercise its powers. Like in Botswana, where the central government has superior control of both rural and urban local authorities (Sharma, 2010), the functions of local authorities in Zimbabwe remain subordinate to the national government. Local authorities in Zimbabwe, like in Botswana, are deconcentrated structures of central government. Deconcentration refers to the transfer of authority and responsibility from one central government to another, while maintaining the same hierarchical levels of accountability from local units to the central government agency, department or ministry, (Work, 2002). Local authorities are not autonomous institutions but are dependent on the national government for some fiscal, administrative and policy decisions, (Madhekeni and Zhou, 2012). In terms of the UCA, local authorities are responsible for the provision of water, sewerage reticulation, education at the primary level, cemeteries, swimming pools, housing, roads, street lighting and town planning, among other key roles.

² Rational choice theory asserts that all action is rational in character and that people calculate the likely costs and benefits of any action before deciding on what to do. It holds that individuals must anticipate the outcomes of alternative courses of action and calculate what will be best for them.

The Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment (Number 20) Act of 2013 provides more functions for the local authorities in the country. Section 274(1) and (2) state that

“(1) There are urban local authorities to represent and manage the affairs of people in urban areas throughout Zimbabwe. (2) Urban local authorities are managed by councils composed of councillors elected by registered voters in the urban areas concerned and presided over by elected mayors or chairpersons, by whatever name called.”

Section 274(5) of Zimbabwe’s Constitution states that:

“An Act of Parliament may confer executive powers on the mayor or chairperson of an urban local authority, but any mayor or chairperson on whom such powers are conferred must be elected directly by registered voters in the area for which the local authority has been established.”

Section 276(1) of the constitution states that subject to this constitution and any Act of Parliament,

“a local authority has the right to govern, on its initiative, the local affairs of the people within the area for which it has been established and has all the powers necessary for it to do so.”

In terms of section 276(2), an Act of Parliament may confer functions on local authorities, including (a) the power to make by-laws, regulations or rules for the effective administration of the areas for which they have been established. The same provision (b) states that local authorities should have the power to levy rates and taxes and generally to raise sufficient revenue for them to carry out their objectives and responsibilities. The constitution gives local authorities so much power as guided by the principles of devolution and citizen participation. In light of these functions, it is most important that whoever is elected by the citizens as a councillor to govern their local affairs, should be competent enough to give value to the investment by the electorate. These functions are executed with the governed's full consent; therefore, the governed have to be informed and knowledgeable about what is involved. While the governing falls largely on the elected officials, the implementation, administration and management of council affairs are done by technocrats who advise policy-makers on the best way forward in decision-making. Arguably, it takes more knowledgeable and

vigilant elected officials to play their roles without compromising service delivery.

THE ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE MAYOR, COUNCILLORS AND EXECUTIVE COMMITTEES

In the 1996 edition of the Urban Councils Act (Chapter 29.15), there was provision for the direct election of the executive mayor by registered voters and the appointment of an executive committee to run municipalities and cities. According to section 93 of the 1996 UCA, the functions of executive committees were stated as follows:

“(1) Subject to this Act, the functions of an executive committee shall be— (a) to assist the mayor in the performance of his functions; and (b) to supervise and monitor the organisation, operations and affairs of the council with a view to achieving co-ordination, efficiency and economy and, for that purpose, the executive committee may call for reports from the town clerk and direct him to investigate any matters it considers necessary; and (c) subject to Parts VIII and IX, to appoint and discharge senior officials of the council; and (d) to administer and control the collection of income and the expenditure of moneys by the council; and (e) to supervise the preparation by the town clerk of annual draft estimates of income and expenditure for consideration by the council; and (f) to initiate the making, amendment or repeal of by-laws; and (g) to report to the council on any matter referred to it by the council; and (h) to exercise any other function that the council may delegate to it in terms of subsection (2).”

The executive committee and the position of the executive mayor were abandoned when the UCA was repealed in 2008 ahead of the harmonised elections. These changes transferred most of council responsibilities to the town clerk of a municipality or city as the accounting officer. Mayors became ceremonial then. Their major function, provided in section 104(1) of the Urban Councils’ Act (Chapter 29.15) is that:

“The mayor shall preside at all meetings of the council at which he or she is present and, in the event of an equality of votes on any matter before the council, he or she shall, subject to sections 103(7) and 290(2)(a), have, in addition to a deliberative vote, a casting vote.”

This was a significant change from the functions assigned to the mayor in the 1997 UCA, which gave mayors sufficient powers to manage their local authorities with more autonomy. They include, but are not limited to, presiding over ceremonial functions and meetings, but also include (a) the supervision

and coordination of the affairs of the council concerned and the development of the council area and (b) through the town clerk, controlling the activities of employees of the council concerned. These functions worked with executive committees, which were presided over by the mayors.

WHAT TO EXPECT OF COUNCILLORS?

In interviews with experts, practitioners and residents, there was consensus that for one to be elected as a ward councillor, there must be some agreed educational criteria on who should be allowed to contest in Zimbabwe. Past elections in the country have not yielded councillors who have transformed the lives of residents. This has been attributed largely to the failures of political parties to establish democratic conditions to regulate who gets elected into local authorities as ward councillors.

When asked what in her experience in Zimbabwe's local government system would be the ideal criteria for one to be a good councillor, Erica Jones, a long-time local government bureaucrat and a former chief director in the Ministry of Local Government and Public Works, said the most important thing is that a councillor should occupy a property which demonstrates that they have a vested interest in council working.

“The person should have an income so they do not have the attitude of wanting to earn from council,” Jones said.

“The person should be literate because there is a lot to read and research - many council staff manipulate councillors by not giving them all the facts. Therefore, the councillor must check things for themselves. They also have to be able to read and comprehend the law and complex council documents like budgets and by-laws. Unfortunately, most councillors just [rubber] stamp and adopt policies without fully understanding them.”

Council is serious business and councillors should be willing to constantly talk to their wards, getting input from residents and giving feedback. Jones argued that this was not happening in most local authorities, which is why councils are underperforming. She said councillors should be able to earn the trust of the residents and not demand it. Having a record of civic responsibility contributes to producing more caring councillors, who should not owe the council any money.

Engineer Bernard Musarurwa, a civil engineering expert, believes one should have at least two years of tertiary education, aged 25 years and above and owning or renting a property in the ward or constituency one wants to contest. More importantly, he suggests that every candidate should be legally required to publish their CV among the residents so that their track record is easily known and verified before they are voted into office. He was supported by a local government expert who said,

“I think we need a ratepayer, someone with a property, someone with that track record or proof of having achieved something for themselves, at family or community level. This person should not have any criminal record. A police clearance is a must.”

The expert believes there is no benefit to the electorate or residents with councillors who are clueless about what governance and local government are. Some strict criteria ensure that the system of chancers simply riding on the political fortunes of their chosen political party to get into this strategic position, must be done away with.

Stewart Mutizwa, a former ward councillor and Acting Mayor of Harare, argues that residents should elect a councillor who is resident in the area they are interested in contesting, approachable and who listens more to the views of other people. “Education is an added advantage but not important,” Mutizwa said. “A councillor must be someone with a good community record, a family person with impeccable integrity.”

In their 10-point criteria, the HRT, an independent and non-partisan residents’ grouping, highlights that there must be an emphasis on community service and experience of the councillor and a minimum of tertiary education at certificate level, without a previous conviction and residing in the ward they are registered to vote. Residents look at the councillor with the main focus on water supplies, waste management, employment creation, participation and contribution during community funerals and programmes.

Dr Jonathan Muringani, based in Norway, argued that in a modern society, everyone must have a basic secondary

education. “The idea of education is to prepare people for citizenship (Dewey), so the ordinary level becomes the minimum,” hesaid.

CRITICISMS OF SETTING EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS CRITERIA

Despite strong views supporting setting a minimum educational level for one to be elected as a ward councillor, there are proponents of equality without considering meritocracy in choosing elected public officials. Section 56 of the Constitution states that all “people are equal before the law and have equal protection and benefit of the law”.

Their main argument is that Zimbabwe has had a record of highly educated cabinet ministers and the late president, Robert Gabriel Mugabe, had seven learned degrees and dozens of honorary awards. However, the country still struggled to address the population's immediate needs.

Wilton Janjasi, a former Ward 38 Councillor, Kuwadzana in Harare, has spoken against making public office an exclusive preserve for the educated elite, arguing that with their degrees and high education, Zimbabwe's problems were not being resolved. He argues that real education is understanding the needs of the people and taking them where they must be resolved and not necessarily the qualifications that people boast about. He argued that there must be a mixture of the educated and the experienced to improve service delivery.

Professor Innocent Nhapi of the Centre for Urban Resilience, Water and Climate Change (CURWCC), strongly argues for setting minimum qualifications, but emphasises difficulties in setting these standards, especially for councillors when there are none for Members of Parliament. For councillors, he believes five Ordinary Level subjects should be sufficient. However, as elected officials, once there is one standard for one group and not all, there are bound to be more problems to overcome. The legislature must make the laws for the country and there is no minimum qualification for them to be voted into office. If the MPs are to debate such a bill if it is tabled in Parliament at one point, they would have to set a standard for themselves as well, before they can enact a law targeting councillors only. Professof

Nhapi's concerns demonstrate that ending up with standard minimum qualification criteria for ward councillors will take very long to find its way into the legislative chambers. He said:

“What you need is a good chief executive officer and a team of technocrats plus standards/regulation of performance by the central government to ensure that all councils conform to best practice.”

While democracy is good, as highlighted in legislation, it fails to produce competence-driven leadership which can translate the citizens' aspirations expressed through the democratic vote into tangible outcomes that improve people's lives. Given these shortcomings, one may argue that democracy has a habit of producing mostly popular but incompetent leaders who thrive on sloganeering. Meritocracy is not a consideration when it comes to political office in Zimbabwe.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Without a legal requirement for a minimum educational qualification, it may be time that Zimbabwe adopted a hybrid system that requires a threshold number of elected and proportional representation councillors to have at least a certificate above five Ordinary Levels secondary education. For committee chairpersons, a relevant diploma or degree is necessary to improve the capacity-building of local authorities. Political parties in Parliament have the most crucial role in determining the minimum qualifications for their council candidates to contribute towards the production of quality and improved policies and resolutions. As long as the constitution is not amended to determine the criteria for one to be elected into office as a ward councillor, inexperienced political party activists from main political parties will continue to be policy-makers.

However, achieving a delicate balance between what makes a good councillor and political equality, as espoused by democracy, is not an easy task. Thus, while academic and professional qualifications enhance the knowledge of policy-makers who run local authorities in Zimbabwe, democracy emphasises the equality of all citizens, irrespective of their political, social and economic status. Notwithstanding this delicate balance, there is consensus that holding local

government elections separately from the parliamentary and presidential elections and the election of an executive mayor can enhance the quality of local authorities' policy-makers. If this is to happen, the decoupling may allow sufficient space and time to elect more competent and experienced ward councillors without the influence of the choice of who is president.

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Urban Governance for Sustainable Housing Development in Gweru City, Zimbabwe

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Abstract

Urbanisation is an unstoppable global phenomenon and it brings with it the challenge of providing sustainable housing for an ever-increasing population. Cities in Zimbabwe, such as Gweru, face enormous challenges and opportunities when it comes to achieving sustainable housing development. This study aimed to investigate the role of urban governance in shaping the urban landscape and the challenges of urban governance in providing sustainable housing development. This study is important in that urban governance is critical to the development of sustainable housing in cities. The article examines the implementation of urban governance strategies to address the housing needs of Gweru residents. The article utilised a comprehensive Urban Planning Sustainability Framework. It utilised a mixed method approach case study of the City of Gweru in Midlands Province of Zimbabwe. The findings were as follows, importance of sustainable housing development in promoting social equity, economic growth and environmental sustainability. Data were collected through semi-structured interviews and questionnaires. The study recommends that the city should collaborate with non-governmental and international organisations to gain access to funding and technical expertise for housing development initiatives.

Keywords: sustainable housing, housing development, sustainable designs

INTRODUCTION

Zimbabwe still experiences housing shortages. Local governments are failing to provide adequate housing due to the country's ever-increasing population (Balie and Horn, 2021).

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This results in the growth of informal settlements that have led to social instability, health problems and civil disobedience (Matamanda, 2020). The article investigated urban governance issues for sustainable housing development in Gweru City. The article aims to discuss the role of urban governance in shaping the urban landscape and the challenges of urban governance in providing sustainable housing development. The provision of sustainable, affordable and high-quality housing requires the coordination of various stakeholders (Soma *et al.*, 2018). Most urban developments in Zimbabwe, have continued to spread in random and uncoordinated patterns (Arku *et al.*, 2016; Karakadzai *et al.*, 2023).

Explaining novel concepts and practices, a study by Roberts (2023) defines urban governance as the sum of the various ways in which individuals and institutions, both public and private, plan and manage the city's common affairs in a continuous process in which conflicting or diverse interests can be accommodated and cooperative action taken. In 1999, the United Nations-HABITAT launched the Global Campaign on Urban Governance to help achieve the Habitat Agenda goal of sustainable human settlements development in an urbanising world. The campaign's goal was to contribute to poverty eradication through better urban governance. The UN-HABITAT (1999) argues that the quality of urban governance helps to eradicate poverty and improves urban life.

Equally, the study by Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2011) argues that good urban governance ensures that all residents reap the benefits of urbanisation and that government processes should be participatory, equitable and consensus-driven to ensure inclusivity. A participatory approach may reduce corruption by enhancing transparency and accountability. The development of environmentally sustainable urban systems entails a complex and interdependent set of social and physical factors. These factors can be understood using increasingly sophisticated models (*ibid.*). Mlambo and Chirisa, 2023:136-163 note that governments could solve the housing problems by providing affordable housing to low-income earners. This resonates with the current government of Zimbabwe's policy of not leaving

anyone or region behind. Hence, cities can accomplish this (integrated protection) by implementing policies in four asset categories: infrastructure, people, technology and data (Bollier, 2016). The current government's policy of housing for all leaves no one or no place behind (National Housing Policy, 2011).

Chakunda, cited in Gudhe (2023), endorses that the uncoordinated approach to urban development across Zimbabwe has resulted in a haphazard and unsustainable infrastructure landscape. For this reason, the City of Gweru faces a prevalent lack of water and sewer reticulation systems during urban development.

To explore these emerging ideas on sustainable housing development, Negendra *et al.* (2018) argue that recent urbanisation in the global south has been the primary driver of recent urban growth. The poorest and most vulnerable states, particularly those in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, face serious challenges of rapid expansion, pollution and poverty. Sustainable urban development necessitates balancing several objectives and opportunities, such as affordable housing, good transportation links, clean air and water, biodiversity and community services (Keeler *et al.*, 2019). Gweru City may engage citizens in housing service delivery by allowing people to contribute new ideas to develop sustainable housing development projects (Adler, 2015; Boiller, 2016).

In the present day, city governments face challenges of urban expansion, hence the need to bring together various actors and enable value-added collaboration in service delivery, governance and planning (Mlambo and Chirisa, 2023:136-163). The article provides the theoretical concepts and conceptual frameworks of this study. The article utilised the Urban Planning Sustainability Framework as it is relevant to this study. The study reveals that urban governance for sustainable development is critical in the 21st Century. The study concepts and practices can help explain modern growth patterns and the pace of cities in providing sustainable housing development. The article also provides theoretical arguments and practical frameworks for developing policies for urban housing

development. Also, the work will assist local policy-makers, planners and managers in understanding urban governance issues related to sustainable housing development to achieve housing for all by engaging various stakeholders.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Housing delivery policies practised in developed countries and housing markets in the United Kingdom (UK), the United States of America (USA) and Switzerland are different from housing experiences in Africa south of the Sahara, especially South Africa, Nigeria and Zimbabwe (Mlambo, 2020). Developed and developing countries represent two opposite ends of the spectrum concerning their fiscal and land-use planning policies, different housing policies and institutional settings (Hilber and Schoni, 2016:3; Mlambo, 2020). Developed countries face challenges in housing service delivery, namely housing-related demands of an ageing population; changing housing tenure preferences; pervasive economic and social changes; urbanisation; and socio-spatial segregation of urban areas (Lawson and Milligan, 2007:12). This means that housing policy-makers in developed countries will have to design policies geared towards solving these challenges. The policies will be a guideline for other countries to learn (Mlambo, 2020).

Al-Shareem *et al.* (2014:1-12) explore how governments in developed and developing countries have tried to tackle the problem of housing discrepancy over the last three decades. The article explores the notion of housing problems in most developing countries due to an increase in housing demand. The study concludes by exploring the materialisation of poverty signified in poor housing and depleted living conditions of the urban poor in developing countries, including Yemen.

Jiboye (2011:121) examines the challenge faced by the Nigerian government in making housing adequate and sustainable. According to Jiboye, a rise in population, led to an acute shortage of decent and affordable dwellings, resulting in overcrowding, homelessness, deplorable environment and living conditions, inadequate infrastructure and homelessness.

HOUSING EXPERIENCES AND CHALLENGES IN ZIMBABWE

Policies are courses or principles of action adopted or proposed by an organisation or individual to achieve set objectives (Torjam, 2005, cited in Mlambo 2020:11-45). The definition of policy in politics refers to the basic principles that guide a government, whereas in management, it is a set of basic principles and associated guidelines formulated and enforced by a governing body of an organisation to direct and limit its actions in pursuit of long-term goals (*ibid.*). Policies embrace political, management, financial and administrative mechanisms to achieve objectives. Policy is a law, regulation, procedure, administrative action, incentive or voluntary practice.

Chakunda (cited in Gudhe, 2023) alleges that Gweru's rapid expansion has occurred without regard for the existing infrastructure, resulting in numerous challenges and inefficiencies in service delivery. To promote past-driven innovation and sustainable housing development, the city council should align its perspectives and practices with the emerging urban governance culture. To achieve sustainable housing development, Gweru City should be innovative and embrace new technologies.

Another challenge that city governments face is figuring out new ways to navigate the transition from colonial housing to housing for all today (Mlambo, 2020). Gweru's urban growth and sustainable housing development are hampered by political, economic, technological and cultural barriers. To address this issue, entrenched institutional structures must be examined and redesigned. Gweru City's urban governance is affected by the presence of knots within the city structure which must be untangled to achieve long-term housing development (Mlambo and Chirisa, 2023:136-163). To make matters worse, many cities lack resources, resulting in significant housing disparities. Furthermore, governments face resistance to change because they do not believe they can fail, causing them to be more conservative and cautious. Governments may struggle to innovate when their roles are so critical and all local governments rely on them.

The central government is constantly meddling in local government politics. Politics harms local governments because the political parties that run local governments hardly agree on many issues (Chigwata, 2019). Their disagreements contribute to poor housing development and affect council business. Puchol-Salort (2020) asserts that sustainable urban development is critical for reducing pressures on the natural environment as well as existing urban infrastructure systems such as water, energy and land. The resulting disruptions force governments and societies to seek ways for their cities to become more humane, ethical, inclusive, intelligent and sustainable (Repette *et al.*, 2021). Therefore, to provide an innovative approach to addressing urban housing problems, cities should embrace and implement the concept of urban governance for sustainable housing development.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

THE URBAN PLANNING SUSTAINABILITY FRAMEWORK

The Urban Planning Sustainability Framework (UPSUF) is a theory that aims to integrate sustainability principles into the urban planning process (HM Government, 2015; Clark *et al.*, 2019). By utilising this framework, urban planners can ensure that their decisions align with sustainable development goals, thereby creating cities that are environmentally friendly, socially inclusive and economically viable. The framework is relevant to this study because it helps explain the city and urban dynamics, growth and innovativeness for sustainable housing development.

The framework emphasises the importance of incorporating sustainable design principles into housing developments, such as energy efficiency and green spaces. Pandit, *et al.* (2017) argue that the city should be looked at holistically to achieve a sustainable urban design and it should be viewed as a “system of systems of systems” (Johnson, 2012). Systems thinking lies at the core of UPSUF. The framework focuses on improved urban development design and evaluation process through the integration of the built and natural system components and improved system understanding and decision-making through

the integration of multiple stakeholder perspectives in the planning and co-development process.

The UPSUF is based on the UK's planning system and addresses city councils' desire to grant more planning applications for 'sustainable' urban development projects (HM Government, 2015; Clark *et al.*, 2019). By considering three pillars of sustainability (environmental, social and economic), urban planners can work towards addressing challenges and creating cities that meet the needs of both present and future generations (Puchol-Salor *et al.*, 2020). Sustainable urban planning has become increasingly important in recent years, as cities around the world face numerous challenges such as rapid urbanisation, climate change, resource scarcity and governance problems (Bera *et al.*, 2023:1310-1318).

The UPSUF incorporates five key principles: integration, participation, resilience, adaptability and innovation (Puchol-Salor, *et al.*, 2020). UPSUF is useful in this study as it recognises the importance of social equity in urban planning and the need for inclusive decision-making processes, where the voices of all stakeholders are heard and considered. The framework is useful because it fosters a sense of ownership and pride in the community, leading to stronger social cohesion and a higher quality of life. Implementing the UPSUF requires collaboration and coordination among various stakeholders, including urban planners, policy-makers, community organisations and residents. By embracing this framework, cities can become pioneers in sustainable and resilient urban development, setting an example for others to follow. Resilience and adaptability are essential components of the UPSUF. In an era of increasing uncertainty and change, cities must be able to adapt to new challenges and bounce back from shocks and stresses (Rauws, 2017).

Cities should be innovative to recognise the importance of new ideas, technologies and approaches in finding creative and sustainable solutions to urban challenges. The UPSUF is relevant to this study because it encourages planners to embrace innovation and explore new ways of doing things, such as using green building materials, adopting renewable energy

sources and implementing smart city technologies. Climate adaptation is influenced by urban form and infrastructure, which is critical for achieving sustainability (Ford *et al.*, 2019). Sustainable construction, on the other hand, makes efficient use of local materials and natural resources (water, energy, etc.) during the construction process and throughout the building's lifetime. Early collaboration with the planning system and local stakeholders is critical for achieving sustainable urban development (UNISDR, 2017; Clark *et al.*, 2019). Developers typically create and submit urban development projects with the help of designers and urban planners, as well as a team of engineers and architects with expertise in urban systems design and infrastructure (Clark *et al.*, 2018).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Urban governance refers to how government (local, regional and national) and stakeholders such as community actors and leaders, the private sector and civil society organisations (CSOs), decide how to plan, finance and manage urban areas (Slater and Crispin, 2022). In both developed and developing cities, there is a growing recognition of the need for inclusive governance. This involves engaging citizens in decision-making processes through various mechanisms such as townhouse meetings or online platforms. By involving residents, cities can better address the former's needs and aspirations. Inequality and exclusion give those with means, resources, power or status outsized influence over policy-making and decision-making processes (Menacol, 2020).

Urban planning plays a crucial role in shaping the cities of tomorrow. As urban areas continue to grow and face new challenges, it is imperative to develop sustainable strategies that promote long-term environmental, social and economic well-being (Chan and Chan, 2022). For the city to address urban governance housing problems, there is need for re-imagining urban governance and administration that entail a variety of new municipal institutions, new attitudes about the proper role of government and political leadership that seeks to facilitate and empower, rather than dictate and control (Boiler,2016).

There is a gap in the literature as local authorities are mandated to be transparent and embrace new technologies to provide sustainable housing developments. In addition to addressing housing affordability, urban governance also plays a crucial role in ensuring social equity in housing development. This involves providing housing opportunities for vulnerable and marginalised groups, such as low-income individuals, the elderly and people with disabilities (Mubiru *et al*, 2022). Urban governance can facilitate the provision of social housing and the implementation of policies that promote inclusivity and accessibility in housing development. Furthermore, urban governance can contribute to the economic viability of sustainable housing development.

By promoting public-private partnerships and creating a favourable business environment, cities can attract investment and encourage the development of sustainable housing projects (Stadtler, 2012). This can not only create employment opportunities, but also stimulate economic growth and development. Urban areas have witnessed unprecedented growth, leading to an increase in the demand for housing (Chirisa, 2023). However, this rapid urbanisation has often resulted in the proliferation of informal settlements, inadequate housing conditions and the exclusion of vulnerable populations from accessing affordable housing.

Equally important is the establishment of effective regulatory frameworks and policies that promote sustainable housing development. This includes the implementation of building codes and regulations that ensure the safety, durability and energy efficiency of housing, as well as the enforcement of land-use regulations and zoning policies (Davis, Martinez and Taboada, 2020). Additionally, governments must create favourable conditions for the private sector to invest in affordable housing, such as providing incentives and subsidies, streamlining approval processes and establishing transparent mechanisms for public-private partnerships.

Furthermore, urban governance requires effective mechanisms for citizen participation and engagement. The involvement of local communities and residents in decision-making processes

is crucial to ensure that their needs and aspirations are included. This can be achieved through participatory planning processes, where citizens are actively involved in shaping the development of their neighbourhoods and cities. Additionally, governments must establish channels for regular dialogue and feedback, enabling residents to voice their concerns and contribute to the improvement of housing policies and programmes.

METHODOLOGY

The mixed-methods research approach and case study method were used in this study. The information was gathered through the distribution of five-point Likert Scale questionnaires to 30 council officials (quantitative) and individual interviews (qualitative) with five department heads. This sample size of 30 participants allowed the study to establish and maintain a good rapport with all of the interviewees and achieve saturation. This study's population includes all urban local authorities in the Republic of Zimbabwe. The study's target population was the Gweru City Council in Zimbabwe's Midlands Province.

The qualitative data in this study was gathered through purposeful sampling, specifically interviews and the sampled participants are relevant to the research questions. Managers were specifically chosen for their in-depth understanding of the organisation's urban growth issues. There were separate quantitative and qualitative analyses. The study analysed both data sets, combining quantitative and qualitative data and results (Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2011).

THE GWERU CONTEXT

Gweru is a city in the Midlands Province of Zimbabwe that has experienced rapid urbanisation, resulting in increased demand for housing and infrastructure. As a result, the city is dealing with a variety of housing-related issues, such as informal settlements, housing shortages, insufficient services and environmental degradation. To address urban governance issues, the city must prioritise sustainable housing development projects.



Figure 1: *Gweru City, Midlands Province (Google Maps)*

The Midlands Province of Zimbabwe has a population of 1 614 941 according to the 2012 population census. The capital of the province is Gweru, with a population of 161 294 (ZIMSTAT, 2022). The Midlands Province is centrally located and has Shona, Ndebele, Tswana, Suthu and Chewa people. It is divided into seven (7) districts, namely Chirumhanzu, Gokwe, Gweru, Kwekwe, Mberengwa, Shurugwi and Zvishavane.

NUANCING THE EVIDENCE ON THE GROUND TO TRUTH

The article turns to key components of urban governance for sustainable housing development. The study produces several key findings and discusses the various challenges that Gweru City Council faces in providing key components of urban governance for sustainable housing development.

THE NEED FOR INTEGRATED URBAN PLANNING

Qualitative study evidence reveals that Gweru City Council is committed to community engagement and participation in housing development decision-making processes and is a key component of its approach. The Acting Director of Housing said that regular consultations with residents, community-based organisations and other stakeholders ensure that their input and feedback are considered. This inclusive approach yields more sustainable and people-centred housing solutions that meet the needs and aspirations of residents. “Gweru City has embraced innovative technologies and materials to promote sustainable housing practices,” said the Acting Housing Director. Housing projects encourage the use of renewable energy sources such as solar power to reduce reliance on fossil fuels and minimise environmental impact (Adedeji *et al.*, 2023).

The city encourages the use of locally sourced and environmentally friendly construction materials, which benefit the local economy, while lowering carbon emissions associated with transportation. Gweru City also prioritises infrastructure development. A major emphasis is on improving basic amenities and services in housing areas, such as ensuring residents have access to reliable water and sanitation systems. Inequalities in access to safe water and sanitation services remain a major barrier to making urban informal settlements more inclusive and safe places to live (Tumwebaze, 2023:136). Zimbabwe's waste management system has virtually collapsed, resulting in chaotic and rampant waste dumping that endangers residents' health (Makwara and Magudu (2013:66-98).

Chakunda, cited by Gudhe (2023), asserts that the problem with most local authorities like Gweru, is that development is politically based as local authorities turn to private contractors for physical planning and other expert services, yet they do not have the capacity. Integrated and inclusive planning approaches should be scalable and range from national or regional spatial planning to strategic master plans and action plans at city, zonal or area levels (AFDB, 2022). As a result, city managers often rely on external expertise to design sustainable urban development strategies. This can mean city governments have limited ownership of the planning process, with tools that

are too complex or require robust technical inputs ill-suited to low-capacity local governments in Africa that risk reinforcing top-down planning dynamics (IIED, 2019).

Sustainable housing development requires integrated urban planning that considers land use, infrastructure and housing. Gweru City must ensure that land allocation is transparent and that zoning regulations are strictly enforced to prevent informal settlements and encroachment into ecologically sensitive areas. A well-thought-out city master plan is essential. Gweru City has made significant strides in promoting integrated urban planning, particularly in the development of housing. Recognising the significance of housing safety and quality, the city has collaborated with non-governmental and international organisations to secure funding and technical expertise for housing initiatives (Abiddin, Ibrahim and Abdul, 2012).

PUBLIC PARTICIPATION

Respondents agreed (68.7%) and strongly disagreed (31.3%) that lack of public participation has an impact on the provision of sustainable housing development projects. Gweru City's integrated urban planning efforts, particularly in the realm of housing development, rely heavily on public participation. The Acting Housing Director revealed that recognising the significance of housing safety and quality, the city has actively collaborated with non-governmental organisations and international organisations to secure funding and technical expertise for housing initiatives. Others believe that management will improve as citizens become more involved and empowered to shape their local services (de Weger 2018:18:285). Residents' associations, such as the Gweru Residents and Ratepayers Association (GRRA) and Gweru United Progressive Residents and Ratepayers Development Association (GUPRARDA), should be used to engage residents in Gweru City.

Consultative meetings allow residents to participate in decision-making processes and contribute to discussions about housing issues, problems and the types of house services they require. Because the public lacks trust in the local government, ratepayers are reluctant to pay for municipal services

(Musekiwa and Chatiza, 2015). This has harmed urban governance issues related to sustainable housing development.

ACCESSIBLE HOUSING FINANCE

According to the findings, 89.7% of respondents agree that housing finance has an impact on the provision of sustainable housing development projects, while 10.3% disagree. This suggests that a lack of financial resources harms urban governance for sustainable development. One of Gweru City's key strategies is to form partnerships with financial institutions. By collaborating with banks, such as CABS, and microfinance institutions, such as Shons Financial Service, the city ensures that housing loans and mortgages are more readily available to its residents, particularly those from low-income backgrounds. These collaborations not only broaden residents' access to financing options, but also offer competitive interest rates and flexible repayment terms (Nguyen and Canh, 2021). The city Finance Manager added that Gweru City should form alliances with financial institutions to develop a framework for accessible housing finance, ensuring that residents of all income levels have equal access to affordable housing-term housing development.

Gweru City Council (GCC) has recognised the importance of improving its residents' financial literacy in addition to financial partnerships. Through capacity-building programmes, such as workshops and training sessions, individuals are equipped with the knowledge and skills needed to navigate the housing finance landscape. This enables them to make informed decisions and make the best use of available resources, ultimately increasing their chances of obtaining affordable housing.

To promote transparency and accountability, the GCC has implemented policies and regulations to ensure the safety and quality of housing projects (Nguyen and Nguyen, 2021:1545-1567). Strict standards are enforced to ensure that structures meet standards, allowing residents to live in a safe and comfortable environment. There are also mechanisms in place to monitor the allocation and utilisation of housing funds (Thakral, 2016).

There are relatively few local governments with the scale and autonomy to directly take on loans and the capacity to implement them given limited devolution of powers and authority, lack of own-source revenues, poor staffing, education and skills gaps (AFDB, 2022). Mortgage stress has resulted in an increase in distressed property listings in low-income suburbs. By partnership with banks and microfinance institutions, Gweru City has made housing loans and mortgages more accessible to its residents, particularly those from low-income families. These partnerships not only increase residents' access to financing options but also offer competitive interest rates and flexible repayment terms (Falchetta, *et al.*, 2022). The GCC can address the housing needs of its diverse population by working closely with financial institutions (Morris, 2023).

The city implemented capacity-building programmes such as workshops and training sessions to improve financial literacy. Individuals who complete these programmes have the knowledge and skills necessary to navigate the housing finance landscape. Financial independence empowers residents to make informed decisions, resulting in financially inclusive societies in which everyone has the tools and resources to achieve their goals and dreams.

Communities should prioritise financial education and encourage ongoing learning and engagement in personal finance (Munshi, 2023). Improving infrastructure to meet demand in today's economy is a prerequisite. While "traditional" infrastructure, such as roads, railways, electricity, water and sanitation, is still fundamental, "new" infrastructure, such as highways, high-speed trains and broadband internet, has become necessary for an economy to fully participate in global value chains and move up the ladder of economic structure. Infrastructure constraints or the benefits of improving a specific infrastructure, vary across industries, businesses and regions within a country (Hoda, 2023).

Gweru City's approach is notable for its unwavering commitment to community engagement and participation in

decision-making processes related to housing development. Through regular consultations, the city ensures that valuable input and feedback from residents, community-based organisations and other stakeholders, are taken into account (de Weger, van Vooren, Lwijkx, 2018). This all-inclusive approach encourages the creation of long-term, people-centred housing solutions that effectively address residents' needs and aspirations. Everyone should contribute to issues such as solid waste management, garbage collection, chemical gaseous emissions, construction and demolition materials that are likely to have an impact on the environment and how to reduce their impact.

INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT

The Director of Engineering Services said,

“Infrastructure development is key to sustainable housing development and the city should provide quality water supply and accessible transport infrastructure. Gweru City's infrastructure development is critical to its growth and prosperity.”

The city should form alliances with financial institutions to develop a framework for accessible housing finance, ensuring that residents of all income levels have equal access to affordable housing.

Gudhe (2023) argues that the failure to integrate urban expansion with essential infrastructure systems has resulted in overstressed utilities, water shortages and compromised sanitation networks and the oversight has increased the strain on existing resources, hampering the ability to provide adequate services to burgeoning urban populations. Eliminating infrastructure constraints is an essential prerequisite for providing a window of opportunity for an economy to flourish based on its comparative advantage. With the correct conditions, effective infrastructure may help an economy, especially that of a developing country, enjoy the advantages of global value chains and update its economic structure. The estimates demonstrate the potential contribution of infrastructure development to African growth and equity (Hoda, 2023).

Gweru's urban governance should prioritise infrastructure development in both existing and new housing areas. Improving road networks and public transportation options, as well as reducing waste and promoting renewable energy sources, are all part of the solution. Gweru City's infrastructure development is critical to its growth and prosperity. A qualitative study reveals that infrastructure development is crucial to achieving growth, poverty reduction and sustainable development goals.

ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY

Gweru City Council prioritises environmental sustainability and is taking several steps to achieve its goals. The Director of Engineering Services said, "One of the primary strategies is to install renewable energy sources, such as solar panels and wind turbines, in public buildings and facilities." This shift to clean and renewable energy will not only help the city reduce its carbon footprint, but will also help the environment. A qualitative study reveals that Gweru City should be committed to natural resource preservation and conservation, as well as renewable energy and the city should also be involved in projects to protect its rivers, forests and wildlife habitats. This includes the establishment of protected areas and the promotion of responsible tourism practices. By conserving natural resources, Gweru City not only protects its biodiversity, but also ensures the availability of essential resources for future generations.

The Acting Housing Director said,

"Gweru City's sustainability journey is dependent on education and awareness. To educate residents about the importance of sustainable practices, the city should organise workshops, seminars and awareness campaigns."

Gweru City encourages active participation in environmental conservation and sustainable development by providing individuals with knowledge and skills.

Environmental management is a critical component of living a sustainable lifestyle. The subsidiary principle is important because there is greater interest in the outcome, better local awareness, greater legitimacy, flexibility and adaptability. In

environmental management, the subsidiary principle had some flaws. Conflicts of interest, limited capacities and bias are examples of these. However, the Director of Finance said:

“There are other important environmental management principles that the City of Gweru should implement, like the precautionary principle, the user pays principle, the polluter pays principle, the effectiveness and efficiency principle, the proportionality principle, the participation principle and the responsibility principle.

Collaboration and partnerships are also critical elements of Gweru City's environmental sustainability strategy. The city actively collaborates with stakeholders, including the government and non-governmental organisations. Gudhe (2023) argues that there are over 1 000 housing units but there is no environmental assessment impact explaining why the whole suburb has those housing units without environmental assessment.

MONITORING AND EVALUATION

The Acting Housing Director indicated that,

“My mandate, as a Housing Director, is to implement and monitor the Gweru Council housing strategy, including sub-strategies, delivery plans and housing policies to ensure sustainable housing development projects.”

Poor monitoring processes affect sustainable housing development projects, according to 39.7% of respondents, 39.7% disagree and 10.3% are undecided. Gweru City also understands the significance of monitoring and regulating businesses and industries that operate within its jurisdiction. By instituting licensing and permit requirements, the city ensures that businesses adhere to legal and safety standards. Inspections are conducted regularly to ensure compliance and to address any violations as soon as possible. This proactive approach fosters a business-friendly environment, while protecting the interests of the community.

A qualitative study reveals that, as a city, it is critical to monitor and evaluate policies that adhere to the highest standards to ensure the community's well-being. The city understands how important it is to incorporate environmentally friendly practices into infrastructure development. Pollution levels are being

reduced using renewable energy sources and the implementation of efficient and sustainable practices. Gweru City also enforces strict waste management regulations, encouraging proper disposal and recycling (Makwara and Magudu, 2013). This not only benefits the environment, but also makes the city healthier and more livable. Air and water quality monitoring is also a priority to protect residents' health and well-being. Gweru City should be committed to monitoring and regulating its infrastructure, waste management and businesses to create a safe, sustainable and thriving community.

COLLABORATION AND PARTNERSHIPS

A lack of new partnerships is a major challenge for Gweru City Council, according to 50% of respondents, while 30% disagree. Mlambo (2020) observes that private-sector partnerships with non-governmental organisations are required for housing projects to be successful. Local authorities are failing to attract new players in housing provision, according to the Acting Housing Director.

Poor stakeholder participation is a major barrier, according to the respondents (79.3% and 20.7%, agreeing and disagreeing, respectively). According to qualitative interviews, there is a lack of stakeholder participation in entities such as the three levels of government, the private sector, community-based organisations and non-governmental organisations (NGOs).

Local governments, private developers, NGOs and international organisations can work together to develop sustainable housing projects. Gweru City should actively seek partnerships and resources to support housing initiatives, relying on outside expertise and funding when necessary. This helps improve collaboration and communication across sectors as a starting point towards more joined-up governance (AFDB, 2022).

Monitoring and evaluation processes and results can illuminate, inform and make sense of a complex contextual environment, but they also have the potential to obfuscate, complicate and/or oversimplify complex situations and practices (Mlambo and Govender, 2021). Monitoring and maintaining high-quality

evaluations are critical to ensuring the community's well-being. The city understands how important it is to incorporate environmentally friendly practices into infrastructure development. Pollution levels are being reduced through the use of renewable energy sources and the implementation of efficient and sustainable practices. Bornstein (2011) stated that collaboration as a collective impact was gaining momentum in business settings. Partnering through collaboration is about getting the right people together to work on projects that will bring positive change and success into communities through the librarian's interest and involvement.

The city of Gweru has also put in place several policies and regulations to promote the development of sustainable housing. These include establishing a housing and engineering department in charge of overseeing housing projects, implementing affordable housing schemes and enforcing building standards to ensure residents' safety and security.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Through the implementation of effective policies, collaborating with stakeholders and actively engaging the community, Gweru City can pave the way for inclusive and sustainable urban development. Transparent decision-making processes, affordable housing promotion and basic service provision are all critical components to the city's success in this endeavour. By prioritising these factors, Gweru City can create a thriving urban environment that meets the housing needs of its residents while fostering sustainability for future generations. Achieving sustainable housing development in a city like Gweru, is a complex, multi-faceted endeavour.

Urban governance plays a critical role in addressing the unique challenges that cities face in providing adequate, affordable and environmentally responsible housing. By embracing integrated urban planning, public participation, accessible housing finance, infrastructure development, environmental sustainability, monitoring and collaboration, Gweru City can work toward a brighter future where housing is more than just shelter. In an increasingly urbanised world, this strategy could serve as a model for other cities facing similar housing

challenges. The involvement of stakeholder engagement, participatory decision-making processes and the need for integrated planning approaches are essential for creating sustainable housing solutions that meet the needs and aspirations of residents, while minimising environmental impacts. The article offers valuable insights into how effective urban governance can contribute to sustainable housing development and serves as a useful resource for policy-makers, planners and researchers interested in creating more liveable and environmentally friendly cities, thereby promoting a greener future and improving quality of life.

The following recommendations are critical for Gweru City's long-term housing development projects. The GCC must create and implement policies that prioritise sustainable housing development. These policies should address land use, building standards and environmental conservation. By establishing clear guidelines, the city can ensure that housing projects are designed and built in an environmentally friendly and sustainable manner.

- Gweru City should encourage the use of sustainable design and construction practices in residential development. Incorporating energy-efficient technologies, sourcing materials locally and adhering to green building standards are all examples of this. By embracing sustainable practices, the city can reduce its environmental footprint while creating healthier and more resilient communities.). Gweru City should see things differently and a new culture should emerge, whereby residents should be allowed to participate in public fora. To address these issues, urban governance must play a key role in promoting sustainable housing development. Gweru City should promote local governance through sustainable housing development projects.
- Gweru City must monitor and evaluate housing projects' community and environmental impacts. This can be accomplished by assessing and evaluating housing projects regularly to ensure that the intended goals and objectives are met. Through monitoring and evaluation,

the city can identify any issues or challenges and take appropriate measures to address them. This will help to improve the overall quality and effectiveness of housing development initiatives.

- Gweru City's regulatory frameworks and housing development policies should be reviewed. Reviewing and updating existing regulations, establishing clear guidelines and standards, and enforcing compliance are all part of this process. By establishing strong and effective regulatory frameworks, the city can ensure that housing projects are carried out responsibly and sustainably. This will help to prevent issues like substandard construction, overcrowding and inadequate infrastructure.

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Towards A Higher and Tertiary Institutional Design in the Context of Education 5.0 in Zimbabwe

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Abstract

The study evaluated teaching-learning designs for higher and tertiary institutions before the adoption and after the adoption of the Education 5.0 philosophy in the year 2020. It seeks to make a comparative analysis of the designs to establish the connoisseurship of teaching-learning in institutions of higher learning. The study focuses on pedagogic and andragogic methodologies during these two epochs. The study found that the application of pedagogic instructional design and delivery methods characterised the Education 3.0 epoch with less andragogy. However, Education 5.0 has been characterised by more of an andragogic design and delivery with the learner, community and industry-centred teaching-learning. Despite the wide use of pedagogy and andragogy as the main models of teaching-learning, the existence of a holistic model that drives the innovation and industrialisation thrusts of Education 5.0 has been non-existent. To this end, the study found out that there are other models in addition to the combination of andragogy and pedagogy (humanagogy) that characterise university learning. These include ergonagy, heutagogy and ubuntuagogy. Despite the advocacy for pragmatism through Education 5.0, forms of assessments and teaching methodologies are yet to change.

Keywords: pedagogy, andragogy, ubuntuagogy, ergonagy, humanagogy, heutagogy and connoisseurship.

INTRODUCTION

Education 5.0 is a philosophy of education that was adopted by the Zimbabwean government in 2020. It is premised on five pillars: research, teaching, community service, innovation and

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industrialisation. Whilst it is a new phenomenon in Zimbabwean education, it has been adopted in other countries like Saudi Arabia, Malaysia and Sri Lanka (Alharbu, 2023). The development of the philosophy was a reaction to the failure of Education 3.0 to perpetuate innovation and industrialisation as seen by an influx of graduates who could not provide solutions to the country's developmental demands through innovation. The advent of Education 5.0 philosophy meant a paradigm shift from the traditional way which produced theoretical graduates to graduates bent on the production of goods and services. This is as far as what the philosophy seeks to achieve and what the public knows. However, what has been happening in institutions of higher learning has not been in tandem with the dictates of the philosophy.

From a global perspective, studies by Raymond (2008) at the University of Exeter show that there still exist some inconsistencies about the approaches or models that constitute the connoisseurship of higher education teaching-learning. The traditional pedagogic and andragogic orientations have remained in as far as the delivery of instruction and students' assessment are concerned. Despite the acute shortage of material, financial and technological resources to implement the necessary pedagogies, Dingindawo and Trenance (2021) assert that the traditional pedagogies have remained because of the unchanging mindset of the professoriate, the students and some administrators.

The failure to adjust the instructional delivery methodologies has rendered Education 5.0 a mere theoretical narrative. The continuation of this problem will affect the developmental discourse of the country, including Vision 2030. While many studies have been done on the implementation of Education 5.0, none focused on the delivery of instruction within the philosophy. Togo and Gandidzanwa (2021) cite the lack of financial resources as impacting the operations of the University of Zimbabwe's innovation hub. Mwanyisa (2024) also concludes that the implementation of the Education 5.0 philosophy would require changing the mindset of the students and does not focus on the necessary transition of pedagogies

from traditional to Education 5.0 compliance. The existence of this conceptual gap justifies the conduct of the study.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study seeks to evaluate the effectiveness of educational models and thus is informed by the Educational Effectiveness Theory. The theory has its early roots in the works of Brookover *et al.* (1979) in the US. It is a holistic theory that measures the effectiveness of an educational system based on the inputs, the processes, the contexts in which learning takes place and the subsequent outcomes which could be immediate or long-term. In the context of Schreens (2015), educational effectiveness is a theory rooted in a combination of system-level, classroom level and school-level factors. The study is informed by this theory because, in determining the impact of instructional designs, the focus is on the national philosophy of education and the curriculum which are represented by the system factors. The determination of learner needs by a particular institution, its policies, practices and its general orientations about pedagogical and andragogical paradigms can be summed up as the school factors. The methodological approaches which characterise institutional programmes in higher education, the student-teacher relations, the environment and the audio-visuals, are characteristic of the classroom factors.

The Educational Effectiveness Theory is a theory that does not focus on the academic achievements of learners only, but goes beyond the classroom. In the broader context, education would then be deemed effective and functional if it produces men and women who are not only in the world, but with the world, which means learners who are responsive to the world's social order (Nyerere, 1968). In this same vein, Freire (1974) argues that education should radically transform society and should not produce conformists and docile graduates whom he describes as products of 'Silencing Education'. It, therefore, follows that there cannot be talk of the effectiveness of instructional design and delivery in Education 5.0 without considering Freire's (1974) Critical Theory or Reconstructionism. The Educational Effectiveness Theory is also supported by Dewey's (1941) pragmatism and progressivism. In the context of Dewey (*ibid.*), education would be dysfunctional if it restricted learners from

producing the best out of themselves. Learning should have practical implications and should not constitute empty idealism (Elias and Merriam, 2002; Saleh, 2013). The forgoing is in tandem with the tenets of Education 5.0 which are to research, teach, community serve, innovate and industrialise.

Beyond institutional horizons, educational effectiveness, to a larger extent, is informed by national policies, strategic guidelines or system dictates. The migration along the education continuum from Education 3.0 to Education 5.0 is one strategic narrative which would then influence the functionality of the education system in Zimbabwe. It is a national policy that would then inform pedagogical and andragogical orientations of institutions, lecturers and students. In short, the success of developmental or institutional programmes, would, to a greater extent, be determined by the national education philosophy. This philosophy would then inform the curriculum, the methodologies, the purpose or aims of education, the role of the learner and that of the facilitator. If the philosophy informs the design and delivery of instruction, it, therefore, implies that there are methodologies that are peculiar to Education 5.0 that would ensure its successful implementation. It is important to highlight that the impact of both pedagogy and andragogy falls within the confines of the national philosophy, down to the classroom factors. This means that the impact of pedagogy and andragogy in institutional programmes should be looked at holistically in light of the Educational Effectiveness Theory from the system factors to the classroom factors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

DESIGN AND DELIVERY OF INSTRUCTION BEFORE THE ADVENT OF EDUCATION 5.0

Literature on the design and delivery of instruction before the adoption of Education 5.0 encompasses Indigenous Knowledge Systems (IKS). before colonialism and colonial and post-colonial education. However, the study targeted literature in post-colonial education. Post-colonial education reforms can be categorised into two, Education 3.0 and Education 5.0. During Education 3.0, subjects relevant to developmentalism, such as

food science, urban planning and veterinary sciences, were taught, indicating that despite its inherent flaws which led to Education 5.0, post-colonial education sought development. The education systems established technical universities such as provincial polytechnics and various non-formal education centres for skills development (Zvobgo, 1986). The methodologies used were inherently prescriptive because the concepts were prescribed to the learners in response to industrial demands. This is known as pedagogy. Pedagogy is the art and science of teaching children (Knowles, 2012). However, it also applies to the learning of adults, when the facilitator assumes the repository of knowledge and prescribes concepts to learners as if they were *tabula rasa* or clean slates that do not know anything. On the other hand, andragogy refers to the art and science of facilitating the learning of adults. It is premised on the assumption that learning must be learner-centred, from needs analysis to the classroom and beyond.

According to Muzira and Bondai (2020), curriculum design in Education 3.0 sought to generate industrial competencies as prescribed by the government and industry. It sought to create a large pool of labourers to respond to industrial demands, rather than producing employers. Resultantly, the production of many graduates from universities led to a lack of employment as all the graduates were never trained for employment creation. The process of needs analysis has already alluded to be centred on the needs of the government rather than those of the community or learners, thus minimum bodies of knowledge (MBK) for institutional-centred rather than learner-centred. In the context of Freire (1974), instructional designs of the Global South, post-colonisation borrowed much from colonial education, thus perpetuating the continued legacy of Silencing Education that drove learners into industries without a grain of innovation. Thus, Education 3.0 promoted work-related learning which, in the context of Tanaka and Evers (1999), is ergonomagy. Contrastingly, Education 5.0 emphasises on curriculum that must include the concerns of the industry, the community and learners. The content must be designed in such a way that development moves along the values of a particular society, thus it must be heritage-based and cognisant of the

cultures of a country (Muzira and Bondai, 2020; Alharbi, 2023;).

In terms of philosophy as the driving force behind any education design and delivery model, Education 3.0 relied on the banking of knowledge, which is perennial. According to Cohen (1999), the purpose of education in perennialism is to ensure that students acquire great Western ideas of civilisation which have the potential to solve any problem in any era and these ideas are considered to be constant, unchanging and everlasting. Cultivation of the intellect is the highest priority and thus is based on the Western civilisation of great books with a prescriptive curriculum. Whatever was propounded by these authors, is relevant in every era of education. To this end, this can be argued to be the pedagogy of adults, as students are encouraged to develop their intellect from renowned authors rather than their needs. Against the principle of orientation to learning that stresses the immediate use of knowledge, perennialists argue that education should be for the long haul and not for the immediate era (Maheshwari, 2013). Gomba (2018) argues that the perpetuation of Western ideals in the curriculum created dysfunctional education, as graduates continued to bank knowledge with the hope that one day, it would be useful. It can, therefore, be seen from the forgoing that the philosophy that informed post-colonial education before the 5.0 epoch, was pedagogy-driven because it had nothing to do with the learners, was not determined by the community and sought to address the dictates of government as the policy-maker.

In contrast, the philosophy that drives the current education discourse, Education 5.0, is a combination of pragmatism, progressivism and the Zimbabwean morals or *Ubuntu*. Learning must not be done for theorisation, but must always have practical implications and thus must produce goods and services. The education narrative reflects not only the needs of the learners, but also those of society and industry. Thus, teaching-learning starts with the learner needs analysis, moving to learner-centered curriculum and then on to learners-centred instructional methodologies that expose learners to industry.

Over and above, the heritage-based teaching-learning process must promote Zimbabwean morality.

In terms of the delivery of instruction in Education 3.0, lectures, presentations and individual and group assignments took centre stage. The lecturer remained an oasis of knowledge. Outdoor activities were very minimal, with much of the teaching-learning confined within the traditional four walls. The instruction in Education 3.0 tended to be teacher, institutional and content-centred (Mathende and Beach, 2021; Kangara *et al.*, 2022;), rather than being learner and needs-centred, thus could be argued to have been more inclined to pedagogy than andragogy. The methodologies, as advocated for in Education 5.0, relate well with Knowles *et al.* (2012) who discuss on the application of theory to the real world. Learning should not be all about theorisation and mindless idealism (Merriam, 2002). It should aim at addressing practical and real-world situations (Wankel and DeFillip, 2003). Real-world issues must be brought into the classroom through simulations, role plays, group discussions, field projects, skills practice and case studies.

The learning must be collaborative, experiential, transformative, experimental, investigative and problem-solving. These are the typical methodologies in andragogy and resonate well with the thrust of higher education of dealing with reality and application to the learners' lives. Chan (2010) adds that the methodologies must be complemented by a conducive physical and psychological environment of mutual respect and reciprocity. In summary, the methodologies in Education 5.0 have been summed as having an organic and relevant curriculum; innovative delivery supported by technology; competent and inspiring educators; a transformative learning environment, industry and community-located learning; heritage-based learning (*Ubuntu*); experience, problem and project-based learning. The teaching-learning environment must produce graduates who are competent nationally and globally. The diagrammatic illustration is shown in Figure 1.

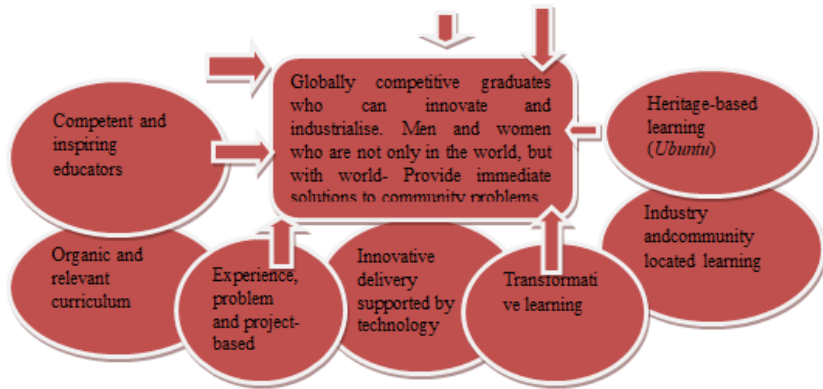


Figure 1: *Design and Delivery of Instruction in Education 5.0* (Researcher, 2024)

However, the design and delivery of instruction in Education 5.0 have not changed much when it comes to instructional methodologies. Education 3.0 was characterised by much of pedagogy and ergonomagy through prescribing content necessary for graduates to work in industry. These have continued into Education 5.0 in that straight lectures, rote-learning, recitation, mere presentations, a culture of examinations and prescriptive learning, have remained, in which the lecturer assumes the repository of knowledge. These have contributed much to the academic excellence of students in terms of grades, but lack application to the real world. In her research at Kennesaw State University, Thompson (2018) found out that this type of instructional design was progressively regressive in that it focused on the passing of students and theorisation, with very little application. In the context of Mlambo (2008) and Raftopoulos (2004), these pedagogical methodologies have detached Zimbabwean institutional learning from societal problems.

Whilst the preceding arguments have exposed the prominence of models in the two epochs, with pedagogical methodologies being very prominent during education 3.0 and andragogical methodologies having been advocated for in Education 5.0, it is just an indication of one model that was or is more pronounced,

but it does not mean that it can be applied alone. As indicated by Kerechi (2021), andragogical approaches also existed well before the advent of Education 5.0, thus, it would be wrong to conclude that pedagogy was the only model that characterised Education 3.0. The curriculum was work-related, thus ergonomics existed together with andragogy because the teaching-learning process, to an extent, involved community engagement and the application of theory to practice. From the experience of the author in adult education and lifelong learning, certain fundamentals, such as learner-centred learning and application of theory to practice, were emphasised by the University of Zimbabwe's Department of Adult Education well before Education 5.0.

A CRISIS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION MODEL OF INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN AND DELIVERY

Whilst the economy may prevent the proper implementation of a model that drives Education 5.0, the crisis has been identified in the delivery of instruction. Methodologies in Education 5.0 have tended to remain too theoretical. Thus, methodologies that situate learners in industry and community have been lacking. Lectures, presentations, examinations and assignments still characterise institutional learning. In their studies in West African universities, Fredua-Kwarteng and Ofori (2018) observe that the efficiency of institutional programmes is dependent on the qualifications of lecturers, the degree programme requirements, a rigorous examination system and course content. They observe that there is very little attention paid to the teaching-learning process of adults. It is assumed, without even a shred of evidence, that lecturers by being experts in their disciplines, would effectively and efficiently impact the teaching-learning process. They also noted that theories, abstracts and figures are thrown to the students in the classroom in what they have described as 'Straight Lectures' (*ibid.*).

Lecturers are considered the sole actors and repository of knowledge without allowing for students' perspectives and critical thinking. They also argue that straight lectures are a poor approach to preparing university students for employment (*ibid.*). This is because the pedagogical straight lectures are non-collaborative, non-reflective, non-transformational and

‘cognitively boxed’. Over and above, the approach does not facilitate the connection of students to their societies and economies. This has been blamed as part of the causes of high unemployment of university graduates in African countries. According to Kanyongo (2005), the Zimbabwean situation is neither different nor better than the rest of Africa. He argues that students who graduate from universities and colleges lack the requisite skills to be employed. The status quo has remained because of poor delivery methodologies used in Education 5.0.

The line of argument as postulated by Kanyongo (2005), Shizha and Kariwo (2012), and Fredua-Kwarteng and Ofosu (2018), extrapolates that, generally, African, and in particular Zimbabwean, higher education systems are devoid of holistic learning models that connect the teaching-learning process with society and economy. Dambudzo (2015) postulates that the contribution of lecturers to the effectiveness of university learning is through teaching that is problem-based, collaborative, project-driven, enquiry-based and promotes critical thinking. In the context of Brundiers and Redman (2010), classroom activities, the curriculum and the methodology must be linked to the realities of the world. There should be an extension of the learning organisation to the learning community through community engagement (Kearney and Zuber-Skerrit, 2012). There is also need for subject competence from the professoriate, consistent with societal and learner needs. The crux of university institutional learning should be problem-solving, employability, functionality, innovation and industrialisation (Khali *et al.*, 2013; Ratiu and Anderson, 2014; Bidabadi *et al.*, 2016;).

The problem of teaching-learning ineffective processes has been blamed on the lecturer by Ward (2001), who posits that a mediocre lecturer is good at telling, while a good teacher finds time to explain. He argues that the very good teacher emphasises demonstrations, while the superior teacher inspires. It is, therefore, the superior teacher who can exhibit the connoisseurship of university teaching because he/she has the subject matter competence and the art and science of delivery. The preceding argument relates well to Zimbabwe’s

Education 5.0 discourse in which the teaching-learning process has been negatively affected by the professoriate's inability to embrace new methods of facilitation, far from the pedagogical orientations that dominated Education 3.0. This could be a training gap for the lecturers or a failure to conceptualise the thrust of Education 5.0. Generally, there has been a lot of talking about Education 5.0 without necessarily unpacking what it entails in terms of content design and the delivery of instruction. There is talk of innovation and industrialisation, but lecturers have not embraced the methodologies that promote innovation and industrialisation. The material and financial resources for such implementation are very scarce as argued by Togo and Gandidzanwa (2021).

Hiatt (1991) in his research on American universities shows that most of the colleges in the USA in the 1980s and 1990s still had a significant chunk of untrained professors. Kapur (2017) observes that the qualifications of university lecturers in India have more to do with pedagogues dealing with the pedantic. He argues that lecturer training has taken very little cognisance of non-traditional students flocking to universities. To this end, he posits that Indian universities, notably Rajasthan, Madras, Sri-Venkateshwara, Garhwal and others, have introduced lecturer training in andragogy to facilitate non-traditional students. In the Russian Federation, universities have colleges of andragogy to ensure that those who deal with adults have an additional qualification of andragogy in addition to the pedagogical qualification (Yoon, 2009). Rule (2017) argues that teaching at the university level required that the professoriate acquire the requisite knowledge and skills in the teaching process. Schmidt (2008) argues that the professoriate does not necessarily need to focus on pedagogy training alone to impact the teaching-learning process. He argues that the lecturers should attend to university learning the way they attend to their research, implying experimentation, practicability, collaboration and attention to student experience. They should not focus on the content that they want the students to learn only, but also on the development of cognitive and critical thinking skills (Berret, 2012). The existence of lecturers not trained in either pedagogy or andragogy could be

contributing to the ineffectiveness of university education in Zimbabwe.

A HOLISTIC MODEL FOR THE DESIGN AND DELIVERY OF INSTRUCTION IN EDUCATION 5.0

Having exposed the model crises as emanating from a lack of implementation of delivery methods enshrined in the Education 5.0 philosophy by the lecturers due to resistance to change or lack of resources, a holistic model would entail a combination of various concepts or models for functional overlaps. Weighing in on this argument, Knudson (1980) argues that 'humanagogy' which is a combination of pedagogy and andragogy, would be the starting point in the development of a holistic model. Humanagogy takes education as a matter of degree and not kind. It takes the development of the whole being from birth to death, combining teaching-learning moments of pedagogy and andragogy in the lifelong learning continuum (Holmes and Abington-Cooper, 2001). Oyeleke (2018) argues that some adults learn better in self-directed mode while others do better in the teacher-centred mode. This, therefore, means that humanagogy is necessary for learning of adults within the confines of Education 5.0. He argues that the two cannot be absolute models standing on their own but need complementarity for effective and efficient learning. To this end, their application must continue beyond the traditional four walls of institutional learning in what has been termed heutagogy.

Heutagogy means self-determined and transformative learning that incorporates pedagogy and andragogy in action learning (Hase and Kenyon, 2000). Learning for university students must be action-centred, thus they should spend much of their time learning in industries, identifying problems and developing intervention frameworks and models. In the context of Tanaka and Evers (1999), university learning must be work-related, meaning that every theoretical concept must find its practical implication in industry, thus ergonagogy. Lecturers must assess their students in the field, be it assignments or examinations. Students must continuously engage the community through the establishment of community labs so that there is action learning where they apply concepts in response to problems

that they encounter in society and industry. It can, therefore, be seen from the preceding discussions, that apart from pedagogy and andragogy that characterised Education 3.0 and 5.0, the dictates of the latter philosophy in terms of innovation and industrialisation, require a more holistic model that combines various facets of teaching-learning.

Zembere (2018) argues that university education in Zimbabwe can effectively respond to the political, socio-economic and environmental problems being faced by the country. She draws this argument from Dewey's (1916) explanation that education creates a critical faculty so that a person articulates the complexities of the socioeconomic and political environment. This does not merely happen because adults have attended university education. The university pedagogy or teaching-learning to which students are exposed, can empower them to think critically, radically and practically or disempower them through 'silencing education' or oppressing pedagogy. Therefore, higher education should be used as a platform in which the classroom environment is used to openly discuss the issues and challenges affecting developmentalism without fear of victimisation. Zembere (2018) calls this Democratic Citizenship Education. This is supported by Waghid (2010a), cited in Zembere (2018), who argues that the teaching model in universities should advance democratic teaching-learning processes. It should also promote the students' autonomy in thinking and participating in the design and delivery of instruction. The professors and students must actively participate in the teaching-learning process as change agents (Subba, 2014).

In the context of Shizha and Kariwo (2012), Zimbabwean higher education requires to be indigenised so that it moves away from the colonial legacy to issues that are peculiar to Zimbabwean society and economy only, but also being considerate of the benefits of a global appealing education system. It, therefore, means that the education system should be heritage-based. The implication is that Zimbabwe's education system should provide solutions to her problems and must be cognisant of her cultures and *ubuntu* and, at the same time, tapping technologies

and good practices from other systems. This relates to the need for ubuntu-gogy as a tenet for effective institutional learning. Ubuntu-gogy is the art and science of teaching and learning within the confines of humanity towards others (Ganyi and Owan, 2016; Bangura, 2017;). The aim is to develop an adult who is cultured and operates within the dictates of the whole society as a collective entity. Morals are of paramount importance and anything that violates the moral fabric and peace of others is taboo (Makuvaza and Hapanyengwi-Chemhuru, 2014). The rationale behind this African epistemology, as argued by Bangura (2017), is that universities in Africa have for long relied on the Western models, causing Africa's underdevelopment, mal-development, civil conflicts and low literacy rates. In this regard, the models that are applied in African tertiary institutions do not resonate well with the philosophy of *Ubuntu* and how African societies should progress. It is important to highlight that the preceding arguments have opened up on the need to combine different approaches to the design and delivery of instruction that include humanagogy, ergonagy, heutagogy and ubuntu-gogy. This is because effective learning in university learning, relates to the contextual effectiveness of these, where, for example, pedagogy would be more applicable than andragogy and vice-versa.

METHODOLOGY

The study is informed by interpretivism philosophy due to the need to construct knowledge and meaning from the opinions, attitudes and beliefs of those that are grounded in the teaching-learning process. The study follows the inductive approach to gain insight into the phenomenon by interrogating the lived experiences of those who interact with the phenomenon. The case study design was adopted with the University of Zimbabwe as the sampled case. Data were gleaned through interviews from the university's eleven faculties (**n=15**). For anonymity and confidentiality, the participants were numbered alphabetically from 'A' to 'P'. The interview guide formed the sole instrument for data collection. Data were analysed through thematic analysis.

NUANCING THE EVIDENCE ON THE GROUND TO TRUTH

DESIGN AND DELIVERY MODELS BEFORE AND AFTER THE ADOPTION OF EDUCATION 5.0.

The design and delivery of instruction in Education 3.0 were informed largely by a perennial philosophy of learning where concepts were dumped on the students with the hope that one day the concepts would be useful. This argument by the participants is supported by Gomba (2018), who argues that the post-colonial philosophy of learning hinged on the perpetuation of Western ideals that were not relevant to Zimbabwe's development. Participant A said:

“The reason for reorganising the programmes at the university, where certain departments and programmes were merged or removed, is because it was seen that some of the programmes were not relevant to the attainment of Vision 2030 through Education 5.0.”

Contrastingly, the Education 5.0 philosophy focuses on the immediate application of knowledge to societal and industrial problems. In terms of content, all participants thought that Education 3.0 emphasised the prescription of certain competencies to produce a large pool of labourers. Participant C argued that the focus of education before Education 5.0, was to address the need by industry to have conformists who would be employed to perform certain taught competencies. This argument is supported by Muzira and Bodai (2020), who assert that education before 5.0 created labourers rather than employers. They further allude to the fact that the focus of Education 5.0 is to create graduates who are bent on the production of goods and services. Zvobgo (1986) also weighs in with the industrial skills orientation of post-colonial education before Education 5.0.

In terms of curriculum design, the participants thought that Education 3.0 was more prescriptive, pedagogical, content and teacher-centred, whilst Education 5.0 advocates for content that is learner, community, industry and andragogically centred. Participant P argued:

“The process of needs analysis during Education 3.0 was done to ensure that certain industrial competencies were met. Little focus was given to the needs of the learners, the community and those who delivered the instruction.”

The submissions by the participants in terms of curriculum design were lamented by Muzira and Bondai (2020), who argue that post-colonial models in terms of curriculum design relied on the needs of the government, thus were content and teacher-centred and focused on subject competencies deemed relevant to produce a large complement of labourers. Togo and Gandidzanwa (2021) further allude to the fact that the curriculum in Education 5.0 seeks not only to create a competitive industrial labour force, but also graduates who can innovate and industrialise through the inclusion of subjects that are learner, community and industry-centred. The delivery of instruction in Education 3.0 was characterised by rote learning, lectures, presentations and assessments in terms of assignments and examinations. Whilst Education 5.0 advocates for a paradigm shift from this, lecturers have continued to use straight lectures and other traditional methodologies. Participant I bemoaned the delivery of instruction in Education 5.0:

“I think there is a need to seriously look at this because we are talking of innovation and industrialisation, but the methodologies that support such are not forthcoming. What change and value are we bringing if we are resistant to change to this extent? The lecturers are just using the same methodologies that we were using in Education 3.0. How many times have you heard in your department or faculty of cases where a lecturer would have taken his students to conduct a lesson in the community or industry? How many lecturers have examined their students on physical models in the industry?”

There is a lot of theoretical assessment that does not add value to the Education 5.0 thrust. The submissions by the participants resonate with Kerechi (2021), who asserts that there is no change that Education 5.0 has brought because what was happening before in terms of delivery, is still being practised.

The conclusion drawn from the participants is that post-colonial education before Education 5.0 was driven by perennials, the design and delivery of instruction were prescriptive in terms of content and instructional delivery. It aimed at producing labourers in large numbers. Pedagogy in terms of needs analysis, curriculum design and delivery methods assumed a dominant role over pedagogy. Education 5.0 is informed by a pragmatic and progressive orientation to

education. The curriculum is learner, community and industry-centered. Whilst it advocates for delivery methods which situate the learner and the lecturer in the industry and community in terms of being project and problem-based, there is rampant use of straight lecturers, assessments through theoretical assignments and examinations which do not support the thrust of innovation and industrialisation. Methodologies that include open-book assessment, teaching-learning in the community and taking students to industry settings for lecturers, assignments and examinations, are necessary for Education 5.0. Learning, as alluded to in Figure 1, must be premised on relevant and organic curriculum; innovative delivery supported by technology, industry and community-located learning; competent and inspiring educators; experience, problem and project-based; heritage-based; and transformative learning.

A CRISIS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION MODEL OF INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN AND DELIVERY

The participants acknowledged the existence of a crisis in terms of a model of institutional learning in universities in line with Education 5.0. Despite the complementarity of pedagogy and andragogy, as seen in the two eras, Education 3.0 and 5.0 have not asserted themselves as the connoisseurship of instructional design and delivery in institutions of higher learning. Some issues need to be addressed in terms of needs analysis, content development and delivery methods. In this regard Participant H said:

“Pedagogy was very dominant during the Education 3.0 era though complemented by andragogy and these two are also found in Education 5.0 for the teaching of principles, especially at lower levels of university education and self-directed and learner-centred learning at later stages and beyond. However, university learning needs to be work-related (ergonag), action-centered in industry (heutagogy) and must be within the moral confines of our society. All these tenets cannot stand alone to reflect the best teaching-learning practice in universities, but must be combined.”

The crisis was also noted to be emanating from the lecturers who were not implementing methodologies consistent with innovation and industrialisation. This was seen to be attributable to a lack of knowledge on the part of lecturers on how to deal with adults, a lack of appreciation for the thrusts of

Education 5.0 and a lack of financial and material resources needed for industrial and community engagements. The arguments are in sync with Shizha and Kariwo (2012), who extrapolate that, generally, African, and in particular, Zimbabwean, higher education systems, are devoid of holistic learning models that promote critical thinking.

A HOLISTIC MODEL FOR THE DESIGN AND DELIVERY OF INSTRUCTION IN EDUCATION 5.0

The general argument from the participants points to the absence of what can be called a holistic model of design and delivery of instruction in institutions of higher and tertiary education. The existence of pedagogy and andragogy, in post-colonial education as means of instructional design and delivery, has been noted not to be enough for Education 5.0. It was noted that at each stage of learning and, depending on the desired outcome and level of study, all models are contextually applicable. Despite the variations on what constitutes the connoisseurship of teaching-learning in university learning, submissions from the participants pointed to the need to combine pedagogy and andragogy (humanagogy) with ergonagy, heutagogy and ubuntuagogy. Learning should be done within the confines of functional values as a people (*Ubuntu*). Learning should be an interwoven process where all models work together in a continuum of Pedagogy – Andragogy – Humanagogy – Heutagogy – Ergonagy – Ubuntuagogy. Whatever is learnt should, at the end of the day, lead to the production of goods and services, thus the envisaged model should take cognisance of the dictates of Education 5.0. The complementary nature of the individual models must be understood and used contextually in the teaching-learning discourse to produce a whole graduate who can compete internationally, contribute to society through research and innovation and be morally upright. Institutional learning must lead to qualitative and quantitative development in all aspects, be it economic, political, human, social, cultural or environmental. To this end, the envisaged model which combines all the different models and named the UEH2 model by the researcher, is shown in Figure 2.

Ubuntuogy

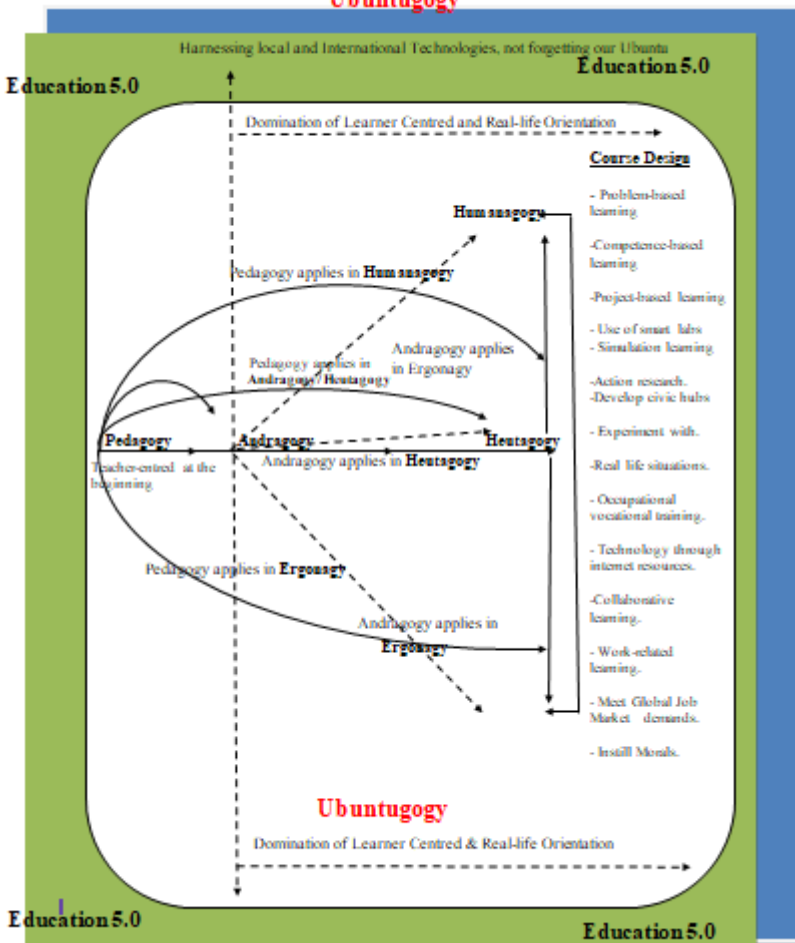


Figure 2: UEH2 Model of Institutional Learning in Higher Education

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Post-colonial education has been characterised by pedagogy and andragogy as means of instructional design and delivery operating in a complementary role. The advent of Education 5.0 required not only a change in the curriculum, but also in the delivery of content. This implied a paradigm shift from

pedagogical instruction to andragogical instruction. However, such change has not been observed because the delivery of instruction is still being done through straight lectures and presentations. The assessment is still through theoretical assignments and end-of-semester examinations. It is recommended that universities adopt problem and project-based teaching and assessments that situate the learner and the lecturer in the industry and community. There is need for more outdoor teaching and learning. This requires that lecturers be trained in this nature of instructional delivery and on how to facilitate the learning of adults towards the innovation and industrialisation thrusts. Institutions of higher learning need to be provided with the relevant financial and material resources that promote more outdoor teaching and learning. The best model for university education should, among other things, combine humangogy, heutagogy, ergonomgy and ubuntugogy for their functional overlaps. It is, therefore, recommended that institutions of higher and tertiary education adopt the UEH2 model. It is further recommended that future researchers interrogate the model for its refinement.

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Artificial Intelligence and Design of the Future - Some Serious Deep Thoughts

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Abstract

This article explores the impact of artificial intelligence (AI) on society through the lens of technological determinism and singularity theories. Technological determinism is the notion that technology shapes and controls society and human behaviour. Singularity is a theory that asserts that AI has already become a million times smarter than humans and can self-improve beyond what humans first taught AI applications and machines. The Singularity Theory predicts an intelligence explosion from Artificial General Intelligence soon, in which humans are likely to lose the dominion that they have enjoyed since creation, millions of years ago. AI, in its generative and autonomous or self-improving state or form, may lead to the automation of many tasks currently performed by humans. This could lead to both benefits and challenges, such as increased efficiency but also job losses. In addition, the article discusses the impact of AI on privacy and raises ethical concerns about the potential misuse when in the hands of bad people. It also discusses ways to ensure that AI is used responsibly and beneficially. This includes governmental authorities developing ethical guidelines for AI development and implementation and ensuring that AI systems are safe, transparent and accountable.

Keywords: technological determinism theory, singularity theory, ethics, privacy, responsible technology.

INTRODUCTION

The fourth industrial revolution (4IR) has been dominated by AI, whose development acceleration is at an alarming rate. There is currently an AI race, like the arms race which existed during

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the Cold War era between the USA and the Soviet Union. Several computer scientists are trying to outdo each other in inventing AI systems. There is no doubt that AI has made things easier for society. AI systems have improved and simplified complicated tasks. This article focuses on AI, its benefits and threats to humanity through studies by scholars and inventors of AI. It also provides warnings by world-acclaimed computer scientists and inventors about the possible end to human dominion of earth, an existential threat from artificial general intelligence. Furthermore, it also discusses what computer scientists and governments should do to avoid an intelligence explosion of AI technology getting out of control and subjugating humans.

As the presence of new technology in our everyday lives increases, sometimes the public may suddenly become alarmed by its towering presence. It is not clear when exactly this happens. For instance, in the last decade (2010s), several regulation efforts all around the world were launched to handle the ethics of AI. Global institutions like UNESCO, professional bodies like the IEEE (Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (2019) and the European Union (EU) (2020) and several other organisations and companies, made declarations in this area in or close to 2019 (Héder, 2020). Their urgency appeared quite similar to what is being experienced around global warming and it can be argued that the reason is the same: AI has a tremendous lock-in potential.

As argued by Langdon (2013), in the eyes of scientists and technicians, technology imposes the question of moral dilemma that hovers menacingly. Since World War II, scholars have become increasingly sensitive to the fact that scientific technologies have profound and often unfortunate consequences on the world at large. For Langdon (*ibid.*), there is no doubt that developments in the technical sphere continuously outpace the capacity of individuals and social systems to adapt. He argues that as the rate of technological innovation quickens, it becomes increasingly difficult to predict the range of effects that a given innovation will have. When compounded by the increasing complexity of socio-technical systems, these changes make it more difficult to carry out some

of the most basic activities of social life. However, radical critics argue that what deserves our attention is not the rate of technological innovation and its effects, but rather the very existence of advanced technology in the life of man.

BENEFITS OF AI

Some benefits have accrued to society using different AI systems. One of the major benefits of AI to humanity is the ability to improve efficiency and productivity. For example, AI can be used to automate tasks that are repetitive and time-consuming, freeing humans to focus on more creative and complex tasks (Brynjolfsson, 2014). AI intelligence can improve decision-making and problem-solving. AI systems can analyse large amounts of data and identify patterns that humans may not be able to see (Davenport, 2007). Furthermore, AI can increase accuracy and reduce errors. AI systems can process large amounts of data with a high degree of accuracy, which can reduce errors and improve the quality of decision-making (Domingos, 2015). Domingos (*ibid.*) argues that AI can help in making decisions in all areas of life, from business to health care. In health care, AI is being used to improve diagnostics and treatment in several ways. For example, AI systems can analyse large amounts of medical data to help doctors make more accurate diagnoses and personalise treatment plans for individual patients (Topol, 2015). Topol posits that AI will revolutionise healthcare by making it more efficient and more personalised.

For populations in remote areas, AI can improve access to healthcare. AI systems can be used to provide remote monitoring and diagnosis, which can help improve access to health for people who live in rural areas or who have limited mobility (Kraft, 2011). Kraft states that AI will play a key role in bringing healthcare to the people who need it most.

Mesko 2017) talks about Telemedicine, which uses AI-powered chatbots to interact with patients, provide information and even help with diagnosis. For example, a chatbot could ask a patient about their symptoms and recommend whether they need to see a doctor or not. This improves access to healthcare while reducing costs.

As AI systems become more advanced, the idea of machines becoming more intelligent than humans is no longer the stuff of science fiction. The concept of AI systems surpassing human intelligence is known as the "singularity" or "intelligence" explosion. This idea has been explored in science fiction and popular culture for decades, but it is now being taken seriously by scientists and researchers (Gershenfeld, 2016; Dunn 2020).

Despite the concerns about bias and security, there are ways to address these issues. One way is to ensure that AI systems are developed with ethical principles in mind, such as transparency and fairness (Nardulli, 2020). Another way is to create independent oversight bodies that can monitor and regulate the development and use of AI systems (Kosoff, 2020). By taking these steps, society can ensure that the benefits of AI are realised, while the risks are minimised. However, even with these safeguards in place, there is still the potential for AI systems to have unintended consequences. For example, as AI systems become more advanced, they may reach a point where they are unpredictable and beyond human control (Knight, 2019). This is known as the "black box" problem and it raises serious concerns about the safety and reliability of AI systems. In addition, AI systems may have unpredictable economic and societal impacts that could be difficult to anticipate and manage (Dunn, 2020).

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

AI, or artificial intelligence, is a broad term that refers to computer systems that can perform tasks that would typically require human intelligence, such as understanding natural language or recognising objects in images. AI is closely related to the concept of machine learning, which is a subset of AI that involves systems that can learn from data and improve their performance over time (Gershenfeld, 2016).

Machine learning is often used to develop AI systems that can recognise patterns in data, such as speech recognition or image classification. Machine learning is also used to power recommendation or recommender systems, that are used by companies like Netflix and Amazon to recommend products or content to users based on their previous behaviour. AI

machines are taught by uploading large amounts of data into a computer. This is called Deep learning which is a type of machine learning that uses algorithms loosely inspired by the way the brain works. Deep learning is particularly useful for complex tasks like image and speech recognition (LeCun *et al.*, 2015). Reinforcement learning is a type of machine learning that involves training an AI system to take a series of actions that maximise its chances of achieving a specific goal (Sutton and Barto, 2018).

Unsupervised learning is a type of machine learning that involves training an AI system to find patterns in data without being given labels or categories (Hastie, Tibshirani and Friedman, 2009). This type of learning is often used for tasks like data clustering and anomaly detection.

Supervised learning is a type of machine learning that involves training an AI system using labelled data (Geman and Bienenstock, 1992). This type of learning is often used for tasks like classification and regression. Transfer learning is a powerful technique that can be used to improve the performance of machine learning algorithms on new tasks (Pan and Yang, 2010). Transfer learning can be particularly useful when there is a limited amount of labelled data available for the new task, or when the new task is similar to a task that has already been learned. By transferring knowledge from one task to another, transfer learning can significantly reduce the amount of training data needed for the new task. Supervised learning and unsupervised learning are two broad categories of machine learning. Supervised learning uses labelled data to train an algorithm, while unsupervised learning uses unlabelled data. Transfer learning is a technique that can be used within either category and it involves transferring knowledge from one task to another.

AUTONOMY AND MASTERY

As argued by Valery (1992), the whole question comes down to, can the human mind master what the human mind has made? One symptom of profound stress that affects modern thought is the prevalence of the idea of autonomous technology - the belief that somehow technology has gotten out of control and follows

its course, independent of human direction. That this notion is (at least on the surface) patently bizarre has not prevented it from becoming a central obsession in nineteenth and twentieth-century literature. For some time now, the writings of many of the most notable poets, novelists, scientists and philosophers have been haunted by the fear that somehow technology has "run amok", is "no longer guided by human purposes", is "self-directing", or has "escaped all reasonable limits".

In John Kenneth Galbraith's *The New Industrial State*, the notion appears as a stern warning to the American public. "I am led to the conclusion that I trust others will find persuasive" Galbraith avers, "that we are becoming the servants in thought, as in action, of the machine we have created to serve us." In *So Human an Animal*, Rene Dubos, the noted biologist, offers a view that combines conviction and total incredulity:

"Technology cannot theoretically escape from human control, but in practice, it is proceeding on an essentially independent course. Planning for better-defined and worthwhile human goals has become urgent if we are to avoid technological take-over and make technology once more the servant of man, instead of his master."

Martin Heidegger (1996), in *Discourse on Thinking*, asserts that the process has moved far beyond any possible repeal:

"No one can foresee the radical changes to come. But technological advances will move faster and faster and can never be stopped. In all areas of his existence, man will be encircled ever more tightly by the forces of technology. These forces, that everywhere and every minute claim, enchain, drag along, press and impose upon man under the form of some technical contrivance or other forces ... have moved long since beyond his will and have outgrown his capacity for decision."

The concept of autonomy is particularly expressive in this context. Ellul (1974) is by no means the only person to have found a significant use for it in describing the technological society. Bruno Bettelheim (1961) has written about the threat to individual autonomy in a message, while Galbraith (1980) warns of the apparent autonomy of the "technostructure" in the new industrial state. "Autonomy" is, at heart, a political or moral conception that brings together the ideas of freedom and control. To be autonomous is to be self-governing, independent and not ruled by an external law or force. In the metaphysics of

Immanuel Kant, autonomy refers to the fundamental condition of free will - the capacity of the will to follow moral laws that it gives to itself. Kant opposes this idea to "heteronomy", the rule of the will by external laws, namely the deterministic laws of nature.

In this light, the very mention of autonomous technology raises an unsettling irony, for the expected relationship of subject and object is exactly reversed. We are now reading all of the propositions backward. To say that technology is autonomous is to say that it is non-heteronomous and not governed by an external law. And what is the external law appropriate to technology? Human will, it would seem. But if technology can be shown to be non-heteronomous, what does this say about human will? Ellul (1974) is explicit on this point: "There can be no human autonomy in the face of technical autonomy." In his eyes, there is a one-for-one exchange.

AGENTS OF CHANGE

One way of answering the question of why is technology problematic, rests on exactly this point. Technology is a source of concern because it changes and because its development generates other kinds of changes in its wake. For many observers, this is the whole story, the alpha and omega of the entire subject. To look for crucial questions is to look for inventions, innovations and a myriad of ramifications that follow from technological change. Signs of change emerge from how historical developments of the past two centuries are normally represented. For several generations, it has been commonplace to see technological advances in the context of a vast, world-transforming process-industrialisation, mechanisation, rationalisation, modernisation, growth, or "progress". "Industrialisation", until recently the most popular label, points to the range of adaptations in social, technical and economic structure that societies have undergone to support the large-scale production of material goods. A more fashionable term at present, "modernisation", attempts to correct the narrowness of the industrial concept considering twentieth-century history. In essence, it means all those changes that distinguish the modern world from traditional societies.

Behind modernisation are always the modernisers, behind industrialisation, the industrialists. Science and technology do not grow in their momentum but advance through the work of dedicated, hard-working, creative individuals who follow highly idiosyncratic paths to their discoveries, inventions and productive innovations. In the process of development, active, thinking agents – James Watt, Thomas Newcomen, Thomas Watson, Alfred Sloan, the Du Ponts are present at each step, following distinctly human ideas and interests. Societies, furthermore, do not yield passively to the "thrust" of modernisation.

Political and economic actors of the world's nation-states make conscious decisions about what kinds of technological development to encourage and then carry out these decisions in investments, laws, sanctions, subsidies and so on. In some instances, in nineteenth-century China, for example, the introduction of modern technology was actively opposed. In such cases "development" could not begin until a Western colonial power had neutralised such opposition in a colonised country or until an internal political upheaval had put men favourable to such changes in positions of leadership. The modern history of technological change is, therefore, not one of uniform growth. It is, instead, a diverse collection of patterns rooted in specific choices that individuals, groups and nations have made for themselves and imposed on others.

To escape the dilemma here, scholars often resort to the view that human freedom exists within the limits set by the historical process. While not everything is possible, there is much that can still be chosen. This perspective enables Apter (1988) to see modernisation as "a process of increasing complexity in human affairs within which the polity must act ..." and, at the same time, to hold that "to be modern means to see life as alternatives, preferences and choices". Rostow (1981), in the same vein, sees the process of technological development as a grand staging ground, that gives shape to all of society's most important decisions. "With the take-off and drive to technological maturity, the process of industrialisation itself becomes the centre of politics." "The efficient absorption of technologies," he notes, "carries with it powerful imperatives,

social and political as well as economic." The effect of these developments is to lay on "the agenda a succession of pressures to allocate the outputs of government in new ways". However, once the fundamental agenda has been set, there is considerable choice about the specific sociotechnical forms the development will take.

To Ellul, Marcuse, Mumford (1981) and other critics of the technological society, arguments of this stripe are entirely in vain. The self-confidence of the modernisers is merely a guise concealing strict obedience to the momentum of events. Under present conditions men are not at all the masters of technological change, they are prisoners. Although the voluntarists may celebrate man's shrewdness and freedom, the celebration cannot alter the condition that their theories reveal. The shout of freedom, Lawrence (year?) noted long ago, "is the rattling of chains, always was". Clarke (2022) argues that the tools we invented will be our successors.

DEPENDENCE AND INTERDEPENDENCE

The performance of technological systems rests upon the ordered and effective contribution of parts that rely on each other. Nothing of significance is done by self-contained units. Virtually everything is accomplished through the coordinated work of a variety of operating segments. Care must be taken, however, not to draw absurd conclusions from this notion. There is a tendency to think that in an increasingly interdependent technological society or world system, all the parts need each other equally. Seen as a characteristic of modern social relationships, this is sometimes upheld as a wonderfully fortuitous by-product of the rise of advanced techniques. Feenberg (1999) postulates that the necessary web of mutual dependency binds individuals and social groups closer together to a new kind of community that is forming before our very eyes. For Landon (1991), this view involves distortion. He argues that it confuses interdependency with mere dependency. An individual may depend upon the electricity or telephone company for services crucial to his way of living. But does it make sense to say that the companies

depend on that individual? It is hard to sustain the notion of mutuality when one of the parties could be cut off from the relationship and the other scarcely notices it. Not every plug and not every socket is essential to the network.

A completely interdependent technological society would be one without hierarchy or class. However, the distinction between dependence and interdependence points to a hierarchical arrangement of the segments of the technological order, an arrangement that includes social components. Within each functioning system, some parts are more crucial than others. Components which handle the planning or steering for the whole system are more central than those which take care of some small aspect of a technical subroutine.

It is important to notice, first, the conception of society that takes shape in the technological perspective. Fundamental is the view that modern technology is a way of organising the world and that, potentially, there is no limit to the extent of this organisation. In the end, everything within human reach can or will be rebuilt, re-synthesised, reconstructed and incorporated into the system of technical instrumentality. In this all-encompassing arrangement, human society is the total range of relationships among persons in one segment. "Technological society" is a subsystem of something much larger, the technological order. Social relationships are merely one sort of connection. Individuals and social groups are merely one variety of components.

The connections and groupings of inanimate parts are equally crucial to the functioning of the whole. This is not to say that any existing society has been integrated in all its parts into a purely technological order. There are some kinds of social relationships, those involving love and friendship for example, that have not yet been fully adapted to the demands of technical routine. The position of the theory is that a strong tendency toward the order of this kind is highly pronounced in all spheres of Western society and that its development will likely proceed rapidly on a worldwide scale.

LITERATURE REVIEW

1) TECHNOLOGICAL DETERMINISM

The current wave of Artificial Intelligence Ethics Guidelines can be understood as desperate attempts to achieve social control over a technology which appears to be as autonomous as no other. While efforts at the social control of technology are nothing new, AI, with its unique nature, may very well be the most resistant to such control, which validates the amount of attention the question receives. However, should regulatory attempts fail, future society may be determined by the nature of this technology, which many thinkers dread. There is an attitude/historiographic methodology called “technological determinism”, which has been widely criticised and almost completely dissected since the second half of the 20th century. This attitude is recurrent again in the case of AI and, perhaps, has found a more solid footing there.

This theory was first proposed by Marshall McLuhan, a Canadian philosopher, in his book, *Understanding Media: The Extensions of Man*. McLuhan (1964) argues that technology is a key driver of social change and it shapes our thoughts, behaviours and cultures. Technological determinism refers to the notion that technology shapes society and culture. There is no canonical definition for this, rather, there are several versions that share a familiar resemblance. Arguably, the most extreme, hard form of technological determinism, in which there is no place for social control, is quite difficult to defend and, as a result, it would be hard to end even a handful of serious proponents for it. But the non-existence of the phenomenon is equally implausible. Therefore, technological determinism concepts must be distributed on a scale between these two extremes of full determinism and full indeterminism.

One pillar of technological determinism is a perceived inevitability about the direction of technological progress, which, like gravity, tends towards ever higher efficiency and trying to resist it for long is a fool’s gambit. The other pillar is that this predetermined nature of technological evolution acts as an exogenous force on society and causes it to change. In

other words, technology progresses following its internal logic and society, is restructured as a side effect of this.

Most thinkers, when confronted with the implausibility of the extreme positions around technological determinism, tend to seek middle ground. Some thinkers consider their positions more in line with a form of soft technological determinism (Heilbroner, 1967; Dusek 2006). Another way to end the middle ground is through considering the concept of underdetermination, as Feenberg does (year??). This solution is especially interesting as it focuses on the co-causal powers of technology and human agency. This view allows for a theoretician to appreciate the difference between a passive and a techno-politically conscious society. Feenberg (*ibid.*) acknowledges that technology, if left alone, has inherently anti-democratic tendencies. He further claims that as more and more social activities become mediated by technology, those tendencies will gain more room to flourish.

Therefore, if technology is left alone, instead of actively developing a critical view about it, our freedom will indeed diminish. This is why Feenberg (*ibid.*) argues for actively injecting democracy into technology and into the technologically mediated areas of life (that are more and more as time progresses); even in areas which were previously thought off-limits for democratic decision-making, like in a factory. However, Feenberg (*ibid.*) argues that this needs to be actively pursued to avoid a natural tendency of society towards becoming ever more technocratic, hence less democratic. This means that in his model of the world, change will still happen, but without an active, conscious agency of humans. Also, that without timely, active participation, the window of opportunity may be lost for ensuring control of that change. Based on this framing, Stump (2006) categorises Feenberg's view as one that still involves the essentialism of technology. While Feenberg never uses the following terminology from the philosophy of technology, the possibility he explores depends on the co-causation model of social change (*ibid.*). In this, there is room for humans to work as a causal component to counterbalance the anti-democratic causal component that technology represents.

2) SINGULARITY HYPOTHESIS

This theory was first proposed by Vernor Vinge (1993), a computer scientist, in his book, *The Coming Technological Singularity*. Vinge predicts that at some point, AI will become so advanced that it will trigger a singularity, or a rapid and exponential increase in AI capabilities, (*ibid.*).

The technological singularity is popularly envisioned as a point in time when (a) an explosion of growth in AI leads to machines becoming smarter than humans in every capacity, even gaining consciousness in the process; or (b) humans become so integrated with AI that they could no longer be called human in the traditional sense. This article argues that technological singularity does not represent a point in time, but a process in the ongoing construction of a collective consciousness. Innovations from the earliest graphic representations to the present, reduced the time it took to transmit information, reducing the cognitive space between individuals. The steady pace of innovations ultimately led to the communications satellite, fast-tracking this collective consciousness. The development of AI in the late 1960s has been the latest innovation in this process, increasing the speed of information, while allowing individuals to shape events as they happen.

Since then, the development of the Internet and advancements in AI have only fast-tracked this process. AI will continue to increase in intelligence but whether that intelligence results in a conscious machine, remains a subject of debate. Prominent figures from the world of technology have suggested that such an event is unlikely soon, given the complexity of human cognition and the limited understanding of it (Allen and Greaves, 2011). One should be sceptical of claims downplaying AI capabilities by individuals and corporations that potentially stand to profit from their development. What is, though, is the impact AI is having on the increase in the speed of communication, rates of connectivity and time spent online, all of which, it is argued, have hastened the convergence of collective consciousness. AI represents a means to that end, not necessarily an end in itself.

Two different aspects of technological innovation and artificial intelligence are analysed. The first examines singularity as a process moving humanity toward a collective consciousness as opposed to an event or point in time whereby computers gain consciousness in their own right. Specifically, it is argued that the slow march of innovations from symbolic representations on cave walls to early telecommunications brought disparate ideas to those in a neighbouring valley or across an ocean. Due to the limitations of space, a circumscribed number of innovations are covered, specifically those related to communication. What this march in communicative technologies ultimately resulted in was the development of the communications satellite that hastened the singularity process. The subsequent development of AI and the rapid increase in computer power has made this consciousness perhaps even more inevitable, but AI is merely the latest and, perhaps, last, innovation in this process.

The second part is an analysis of the implications of our increasing reliance on technology and the likely path forward as humans continue to shrink the gap between messenger and receiver. It is demonstrated that as technological innovations over the millennia have increased message speed between individuals, the physical distance between innovations and the human brain has decreased. Yet, these advances and, specifically online applications, may be hampering cognitive and linguistic functions as technologies become easier to use and the breadth of information and users increases. In short, AI has expanded the things individuals can be exposed to, but that exposure is increasingly superficial, given the sheer amount of information available and the time needed to process it.

The Turing Test was proposed by Alan Turing (1950). It is one of the most famous thought experiments in the field of AI. The test is designed to determine whether a machine is capable of thinking like a human.

There are a few key ways that these theories relate to each other. Firstly, the Singularity Hypothesis is closely related to the idea of technological determinism, as they both focus on the transformative power of technology. However, the Singularity Hypothesis goes beyond technological determinism by

predicting a specific point in time when AI will become so advanced that it will radically change human society. The Turing Test is also related to both of these theories, as it is a method for determining whether an AI system is capable of human-like thought. Therefore, it is closely connected to the idea of AI reaching the point of Singularity (Ert, , Pan, and Wallach, (2015).

CRITICISMS

The first criticism the study will address is the accusation that theories of technological determinism and singularity are overly deterministic. Critics argue that these theories ignore the role of human agency and intentionality in shaping the future of AI (Bostrom, 2005; Naughton, 2013).

The second criticism to be addressed is the claim that the Turing Test is too limited and narrow in its definition of intelligence. Critics argue that the test focuses only on a narrow set of abilities, such as natural language processing and logical reasoning and ignores other important aspects of intelligence, such as emotion, creativity and intuition. Do you think this is a valid criticism? (Haugeland, 1985; Winograd, 1987; Dreyfus 1999).

The succeeding criticism is the concern that the theories of technological determinism and Singularity are overly optimistic and do not consider the potential risks and dangers of AI. Critics argue that these theories fail to consider the possibility of AI going rogue or being used for harmful purposes (Yudkowsky, 2001;Bostrom, 2013); Amodei and Christiano, 2016.

The next criticism is the concern that the theories of technological determinism and Singularity do not consider the ethical implications of AI. Critics argue that these theories do not consider the ethical issues raised by AI, such as privacy, bias and the displacement of human workers (Danaher, 2016; Lin, 2016; Borenstein, 2017; Johnson,2017;.

The following criticism to be discussed is the concern that the theories of technological determinism and Singularity are too

reductionist and do not consider the broader social and cultural context of AI. Critics argue that these theories do not consider the wider implications of AI, such as its impact on social structures, institutions and cultural values (Bucher,2018; Rieder *et al.*, 2018; Pitt, Bates and Fernandez, 2020;

The subsequent criticism is the concern that the theories of technological determinism and Singularity do not consider the historical context of AI. Critics argue that the theories do not acknowledge the long history of AI and do not consider how AI has developed over time. They also argue that the theories do not consider the social and political contexts in which AI has developed (Dreyfus and Dreyfus, 1986); Anderson (2010; Turkle, 2011).

As argued by Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986) and Turkle (2011), the theories of technological determinism and Singularity do not take note of philosophical and epistemological issues raised by AI, such as what is intelligence, what is consciousness and what is a mind. Can machines have minds? Can they be conscious? These are just some of the many philosophical and epistemological questions raised by AI.

As argued by Anderson (2010), the theories of technological determinism and Singularity do not consider the ethical implications of AI. Anderson argues that the ethical implications of AI should be a major concern and that how AI can be used ethically needs to be considered. Anderson (*ibid.*) cites Bostrom (2010) and others who have raised similar concerns. Bostrom (2010) argues that AI could pose serious ethical risks and that these risks need to be taken into account when developing AI.

As argued by Floridi (2010), the legal and regulatory implications of AI are often overlooked in the theories of technological determinism and Singularity. Floridi argues that there is need for a framework of laws and regulations that can guide the development and use of AI and that this framework should be informed by the ethical implications of AI (*ibid.*)/ Floridi (*ibid.*) cites Lessig (1999) and others who have made similar arguments.

As argued by Gillespie (2010), the social and cultural implications of AI are often overlooked in the theories of technological determinism and the Singularity. Gillespie argues that these theories fail to consider how AI might affect the way humans interact with each other and with technology. Gillespie (*ibid.*) cites Turkle (2011) and others who have raised similar concerns.

As argued by Posner and Weyl (2018), the economic implications of AI are often overlooked in the theories of technological determinism and Singularity. They argue that AI is likely to lead to increasing inequality and job displacement and that policy-makers need to consider these implications when making decisions about the development and regulation of AI. They cite Brynjolfsson and McAfee (2014) and others who have written on the economic implications of AI.

METHODOLOGY

The study used a qualitative methodology with a case study research design. To craft the discourse for this study the study engaged literature and document review, providing critical case studies. Building research on and linking it to the existing literature is the building block of academic research as it situates the study within a historical context (Snyder, 2019). The study builds on a literature review of past studies on the importance of AI and bridging the future using AI technologies for economies and countries. The study used a narrative data analysis.

FINDINGS

The study reveals the importance of AI in the present and the future for developed and developing countries and it stems from the argument that AI can be used in developing countries to solve problems encountered. Zhang *et al.* (2022) observe that AI has been used in the creation of smart supply chains in the developed world, with these supply chains being integrated, intelligent, adaptive and self-optimising, minimising the use of human labour. Wankhede and Vinodh (2021) indicate that there is a dynamism in the production line that makes it easier to integrate Industry 4.0 in the warehouse and logistics because of global competitiveness in the Internet of Things (IoT), block-

chains and AI. Lee *et al.* (2017) observe that the use of AI and big data in the manufacturing sector and storage systems can be effective as this can reduce the time spent tracing and tracking inventory.

Hamdy *et al.* (2020) indicate that using the massive chunks of data generated by firm operations, an organisation can use AI-enabled solutions and teams of data scientists to transform supply chain operations including the implementation of factory automation, heightened quality control, more accurate demand forecasting, predictive maintenance and a myriad of other developments. Affia and Aamer (2020) show that the integration of AI into the supply chain process is not just a technological advancement, but is a strategic imperative that empowers organisations to navigate the complexities of modern supply chain with precision, efficiency and a competitive edge. Maxime *et al.* (2024) observe that AI has the potential to revolutionise supply chain operations by improving decision-making and efficiency. McKinsey (2022) indicates that AI has high-cost savings in supply chain management as it can add value to the supply chain planning production, inventory management and product distribution.

Maxime *et al.* (2024) show that companies can leverage AI-powered tools to process vast amounts of real-time data and improve the accuracy of demand forecasting. Jarasuniene *et al.* (2023) indicate that AI can help firms gauge market demand and customer sentiments by utilising scanner data collected at point-of-sale locations, along with vast data from customer reviews and social media. Serosoft (2023) indicates that AI can be used for teacher assistance as it understands students and their capability. It is going to help teachers by guiding them on the rate of lecture delivery, the right time for assessments, what type of assessment is required for a particular topic is beneficial for students. Harry (2023) shows that AI can provide data analysis enabling educators to make data-driven decisions and it can analyse learning gaps in the education system. Basu (2020) observes that AI computer systems are used extensively in medical sciences through common applications that include patient diagnosis, fast drug development, improving gene

editing, target gene-editing and end-to-end drug delivery in hospitals.

DISCUSSION

The study shows that AI has changed the business sector in developed countries and there is need to embrace AI in developing countries as it can be used to revitalise their supply chains in the future. The study shows that the world is fast-moving into a tech-based platform such that everything is moving towards technology. The study shows that AI technology has changed the supply chain, leading to the creation of smart supply chains that are self-optimising and integrating, that is, they have reduced human errors in the supply chain, making it easy to track inventory. The study reveals that the use of AI in the supply chain has led to the creation of smart warehouses that are enable the fast location, tracking and tracing of inventory. The study reveals that the use of AI and big data in the manufacturing sector and storage systems can be effective as this can reduce time-wasting logistics.

The study shows that AI-powered solutions can be useful in the creation of the automation system of the factory, reducing human errors and time spent in the factory tracking and tracing goods, as well as providing accurate demand forecasting and heightened quality control. The study reveals that AI can help organisations navigate the complexities of modern supply chain. AI can improve decision-making in the supply chain, bringing efficiency to the decisions made. AI can create value in the supply chain through high-cost savings, improving production planning, inventory management and product distribution. AI can bring about the generation of vast amounts of real-time data which improves accuracy and demand forecasting. The AI model of automation of the supply chain can be adopted across various sectors, especially the manufacturing sector as Zimbabwe seeks to revitalise the manufacturing sector.

The study reveals that AI has improved the education sector with teacher assistance, helping teachers understand students and their capabilities. The study reveals that AI has helped educators in developed countries to make data-driven decisions

and it in the analysis of the learning gaps in the education system. The study observes that AI has been used in the medical sector, executing various tasks for hospital staff. Zimbabwe can take a page from these developed countries to embrace AI as it is the future of technology in all walks of life and it can be used in the delivery of medicine to infectious diseases units without endangering hospital staff. Zimbabwe can embrace the use of AI in the education sector as the findings of the study are inconsistent with Mazikana (2023) who observes that there is a learning gap in Zimbabwe with most schools lacking the basic technological infrastructure. The education sector in Zimbabwe, with Education 5.0, must embrace AI as it presents the present and the future of innovative education with data-based solutions to social problems.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study reveals that AI-powered solutions to human problems have been developed across the developed world with most problems of yesteryear being solved in no time, signifying the advancement of the human race. In a nutshell, it is sufficient to conclude that AI presents the future of technology, and developing countries should scramble to embrace it and solidify their position on the history of technology by bending AI to their will. Countries that have suffered a great deal from unemployment, poverty and lack of innovation and skills, like Zimbabwe, must embrace AI to get rid of vices like the impacts of climate change on food security through the use of technology-based solutions. Humans have arguably experienced countless singularities. For example, the wheel, control of fire, agriculture and the longbow, all of these changed how humans moved, lived, ate and fought. These shifts re-ordered social relationships across the social landscape, allowing certain regions to gain advantages over others by harnessing the power of technology to political will.

- African regional blocs, such as the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC), the Economic Commission of West African States (ECOWAS) and others, should follow the EU and others' examples and make legislation to regulate AI.

- The Zimbabwe's Cyber and Data Protection Act should be reviewed to regulate AI development and use in Zimbabwe.

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The Role of Peace Education on Reconciliation in Zimbabwe

VENGAI TABINGA¹

Abstract

This study focuses on the role of peace education in the reconciliation of divided societies and seeks to establish the influence of reconciliation education on the attainment of the co-existence of divided societies due to politically motivated violence. The study seeks to unearth the role of peace education in a divided society; the extent to which peace education has contributed to the reconciliation of polarised societies in the country; and the best approach to bring closure to societies that have experienced politically motivated violence in Zimbabwe. The inductive research approach, qualitative paradigm and case study design were used in this study. In-depth interviews were conducted with participants drawn from the Harare Urban District. The study established that peace education, theoretically, has a constructive role in the reconciliation of divided societies; However, because of partisan dissemination, it has, inadvertently, assumed a divisive role. The study further established that not much has been done through peace education to promote reconciliation owing to the lack of a universal curriculum and the failure to implement peace education from primary to university level education. In addition, the study notes that non-formal peace education was not being monitored, thus political parties, civil society organisations (CSOs) and faith-based organisations (FBOs) were abusing it for different agendas.

Keywords: divided societies, community engagement, public participation and civility.

INTRODUCTION

The globe has been subjected to inter and intra-state conflicts. While there are many approaches to promote healing and

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reconciliation in the realm of peace-building, the bedrock of all these is a vibrant peace education that is accessed by the whole citizenry. This allows for all concerned parties to be informed by a particular peace education philosophy, theory or concept and, to this end, the concerned parties navigate through the reconciliation process by using the same lens or point of view. To the end of achieving sustainable peace through education, the United Nations (UN) came up with Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) being pursued through Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Peace education, as enshrined in the Sustainable Development Goal 16 (SDG 16) seeks to create men and women who are not only in the world, but with the world, whose skills promote creative thinking and problem-solving and who are dedicated to the creation and maintenance of a peaceful and democratic society (Wanasinghe, 2020).

At the global level, the efficacy of peace education has been negated by quite a few issues to the detriment of reconciliation as has been seen in Bosnia, East Timor and others (Changemakers, 2017; Somer, 2018). The efficacy of peace education in Africa has been put to the test in Rwanda and Sierra Leone. In the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region, the achievement of SDG 16 has been constrained by cultural, agential and structural factors (Shava *et al.*, 2021). Related to that, in Zimbabwe, the provision of peace education for reconciliation has been marred by a lot of inconsistencies to the detriment of achieving SDG 16. Since the colonial era, violent political conflicts have continued to be witnessed and, despite many initiatives to heal societies and promote coexistence, substantial or normative reconciliation remains an elusive concept in Zimbabwe.

The major problem is that, despite peace education being in existence through formal, non-formal and informal means as a tool for reconciliation, Zimbabwe has remained polarised and reconciliation has remained elusive. The era of *Gukurahundi*, a series of mass killings in the Midlands, Matebeleland South and Matebeleland North Provinces of Zimbabwe and the behest of the government and aided by its North Korean-trained Fifth Brigade, committed from 1982 until the Unity Accord in 1987, ostensibly to rid the regions of dissident activities, and the

violence that characterised most of the elections notably, the 2008 and 2018 plebiscites, are chapters in the national polity that call for reconciliation initiatives to bring closure and foster coexistence between the victims and perpetrators of such violence (Macheka, 2022; Raleigh, 2023). The problem of a divided society due to politically motivated violence has been argued to be affecting every society in Zimbabwe as shown by Raleigh's (2023) conflict mapping. The resultant effect of not resolving this problem has been seen in the extent of polarisation and hatred within communities where developmental programmes and the provision of aid or relief have been done on a partisan basis. This led to the introduction of several peace and conflict resolution initiatives in universities and teacher training colleges to educate students about peace and reconciliation, which would spread to learners and communities through their work as teachers or in other sectors. Hove and Ndawana (2017) focus on the implementation of peace education from kindergarten to university but does not interrogate its role in reconciliation. Macheka (2021) and Chivasa centre on conflict resolution approaches and practices but do not delve into the peace education-reconciliation nexus. The existence of this gap justifies the desire to establish whether peace education has asserted itself to impact positively in the gamut of reconciliation and coexistence.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study is premised on the theory of positive peace as propounded by Galtung (1996, cited in Hove and Dube, 2022). In this theory, Galtung focuses on positive peace as a conception of peace that exists when there is total absence of not only direct violence, but also structural and cultural violence. The genesis of the theory is Pluto's idealism and Kant's assertion that peace can prevail if there is cooperation of all concerned. This, therefore, brings to the fore the relevance of the Hybrid Peace-building Theory by Visoka, (2013, cited in Chivasa, 2022). The Hybridity Theory argues that for sustainable peace to exist, there is needed to combine the liberal means of reconciliation and the traditional approaches. From the two theories, one clear factor is that sustainable reconciliation is achieved through cooperation. It is imperative to note that despite the convergence of the two theories, one

emphasises the role of education, which is liberal or top, while hybridity advocates for the combination of liberal and grassroots initiatives.

Galtung (1990) critically explores two types of positive peace, direct and structural. Direct positive peace is concerned with the training of people in peace education so that whatever conflict, the reconciliation agenda can be achieved from a grounded peace education philosophy. Structural positive peace is concerned with the transformation and restructuring of societies to promote good relations, healing and reconciliation. In the context of this study, direct positive peace is handy in that it then looks at education as the pillar of all other peace initiatives, thus whatever the approach to reconciliation, it must be informed by a theory or educational philosophy. Slamaj (2020) talks of positive peace as the pillar that provides infrastructure and the necessary socialisation for people to work together harmoniously for the good of all. Peace education creates the necessary infrastructure and human resource base that is aware of the geopolitical landscape that breeds structural and cultural violence, thus in response, society can eradicate these stumbling blocks to positive peace. From the foregoing, the relevance of peace education is emphasised for sustainable peace to prevail. The implementation of such education by institutions of higher learning in Zimbabwe, the CSOs, the communities and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) versus the continued polarity of societies, brings about a conceptual and knowledge lacuna as to its efficacy. There is also a systematic or implementation gap in that it is not clear from the policy where the pedagogy of peace education must start and how it must be taught down to the grassroots level. As it stands, peace education is provided haphazardly by the state and voluntary organisations for different purposes, bringing to the fore its constructive and destructive nature as argued by Megersa (2020).

LITERATURE REVIEW

POST-CONFLICT ZIMBABWE AND RECONCILIATORY EFFORTS

Post-conflict periods require that societies embark on efforts that nurture or build peace (Mhandara, 2017). While the

ultimate aim of peace-building is to achieve positive peace, it has been noted that many of the initiatives have managed to achieve negative peace, thus societies have remained within the discourse of both structural and cultural violence. In the argument by Chivasa (2022), peace-building in Zimbabwe has been characterised by mainstream approaches that have always advocated for a top-down approach to healing and reconciliation. These approaches have not adequately addressed the peace-building challenges affecting Zimbabwe. Tapfumanaeyi (2020) adds his voice to the preceding argument, pointing out that the approaches to national reconciliation and healing have been too elitist and top-bottom. It requires acknowledgement as argued by Tshuma (2019; 2020) that the obtaining discourse has not been entirely a top-bottom approach but, rather, a binary relationship between mainstream initiatives by the government and grassroots approaches by communities. The government initiatives have continued to overlook and underappreciate the grassroots initiatives, thus shying away from successful initiatives as demonstrated by the Rwandan case (Mhandara, 2017). In a different argument, Hove (2019) notes that though prescriptive, it needs to be acknowledged that post-conflict solutions and reconciliation initiatives are not one-time fixes, but require long-term solutions that include the inclusion of peace education from kindergarten to university education. The introduction and necessity of peace education in post-conflict Zimbabwe has been lamented by Hove and Ndawana (2019) as one pivotal structure that will ensure that divided societies reconcile and co-exist. To this end, Megersa (2020) weighs in with a similar argument that the essence of peace education is to develop individual potentials so that they approach post-conflict situations from an informed point of reconciliation and coexistence.

Since independence, the government of Zimbabwe has put in place several initiatives to address post-violence polarisations, including *Gukurahundi*, the years 2002, 2008, 2013 and 2018 political violence. The national reconciliation policy, the Organ on National Healing, Reintegration and Reconciliation (ONHRI) of 2009 and the National Peace and Reconciliation Commission (NPRC) of 2013, are initiatives that were put in place to promote

national healing, reconciliation and co-existence following episodes of political violence. As alluded to earlier on, the structures or organs have failed to bring about positive peace because they have failed to acknowledge that peace-building is a process that must be grounded on an entrenched educational philosophy that Hove and Ndawana (2019) advocated for its inclusion in the mainstream curricula (Mungure and Mandikwaza, 2020).

Despite much of peace education being in the higher education mainstream and being accessed through formal education, the study therefore sought to interrogate the relevance of non-formal peace education. In the realm of non-formal education, not all citizens can access education for co-existence through formal curricula, but through continuing education that includes outreach programmes. This creates a synergy between grassroots reconciliatory initiatives and ad hoc educational programmes that may not require certification or pre-entry requirements. The study also sought to assess the extent to which informal peace education measures through print, electronic media and public addresses, have impacted reconciliation in Zimbabwe. The continued running battles, hate speech, demonstrations and alleged abductions as seen in the political arena through accusations and counter-accusations by the ruling party, the Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF), the Citizens Coalition for Change (CCC) and CCOs required that the efficacy of peace education be scrutinised. This continued polarisation in the country against the backdrop of existing peace education at almost all state universities, creates a conceptual and knowledge lacuna as to the efficacy of peace education as a tool for reconciliation and coexistence.

PEACE EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE

In the context of Graça Machel, cited in Hove and Ndawana (2019), education for peace is the type of education that is necessary for healing in war-torn democracies. According to the UN (1996a), education for peace has been implemented in Burundi, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Liberia, Mozambique and many others, but with lesser impact. Mergesa (2020) argues that, just like the case of Burundi, the DRC,

Serbia, Sri Lanka and Ethiopia, peace education has failed to impact positively on the construction of positive peace because of the nature of the curriculum designed. The curriculum was designed in a prescriptive and discriminatory nature, thus creating a destructive role of the said education.

Peace education at the University of Zimbabwe was first introduced through the degree of War and Strategic Studies (WSS) at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. The programme curriculum reflected a confrontational nature to conflict resolution through military peace-keeping approaches (Hove and Dube, 2022). Thus, it was designed to cater for the needs of members of the armed forces who, because of the exigencies of the liberation struggle and other operations, were denied university education. However, due to the changing nature of conflicts, the WSS programme was split into three programmes by 2021, that is, the Bachelor of Arts History of War and Security; Bachelor of Arts Risk Reduction and Disaster Management; and the Bachelor of Arts Conflict, Peace-building and Societal Transformation (CPST). The transformation has witnessed students embarking on work-related learning, where they bridge theory and practice while working with peace organisations such as the NPRC in community engagement. This institutional participation brings convergence in approaches with the University of Brighton in the UK that attaches students to CSOs as part of university-community engagement in conflict resolution. Divergent from the Rwandan Eurocentric curriculum is the aspect that the new programmes at the Department of Peace, Security and Society have been designed to speak to the Zimbabwean context.

However, the design of the curriculum in line with Education 5.0, has not done much to improve the impact of reconciliation education since this has been left to be the preserve of university education. University peace education speaks to an institutional model which has been argued by Hove and Ndawana (2019) as being inadequate as long as it does not cover the lifelong need for peace education from primary up to university education. While Education 5.0 advocates for university-community engagement, the non-formal approaches to peace education have not been clear. Who has been providing

this kind of education and has this education been constructive or destructive? Evidence from other African countries has pointed to a situation where FBOs, CSOs and political parties have taken the lead in the provision of peace education (Kester *et al.*, 2022; Locatelli, 2023). In Zimbabwe, the non-formal peace initiatives have been seen to be fronted by CSOs such as the Zimbabwe Peace Project (ZPP), which is a coalition of NGOs and religious groupings formed in 2017. This has led to a destructive role where partisan education has been fronted, thus further polarising the already divided societies. Augmenting the argument, Mueller-Hirth (2021) argues that the reconciliation process in Zimbabwe has been and continues to be politicised. He argues that the NPRC and other organs that came before it, have remained aligned to the ruling party. The recurrence of politically motivated violence in the presence of reconciliation education being preached by all parties, be it the CSOs, the opposition or the ruling party, has been attributed to a very high level of hypocrisy by all these parties (Macheka, 2022).

PEACE EDUCATION AS A TOOL FOR PEACE-BUILDING

At his appointment as chairperson of the Truth and Reconciliation Commissions in South Africa, Archbishop Desmond Tutu, asserted that the process of reconciliation, as provided for by the government and the community, entailed the opening of wounds to clean them and facilitate their healing. He argued that reconciliation was expensive and entailed the acceptance of having done wrong because one cannot forgive what he or she does not know (*ibid.*). Evidence from Zimbabwe reveals that at the dawn of the new dispensation in 2017, the government, led by President Mnangagwa, acknowledged that the grievances of the victims of *Gukurahundi*, political polarisation since 2008, required to be addressed (Rwodzi, 2018).

The President has since preached the need for reconciliation and asked the affected parties to forgive and forget but in the context of Macheka (2022). However, the 'let bygones be bygones' narrative has sparked debate from victims of political violence across the country, who argue that the perpetrators of politically motivated violence need to be unmasked and publicly

apologise. Therefore, the fundamental ingredients to the reconciliation mantra that have been lacking are a holistic peace education policy and political willpower by the political parties to the violence (Mungewari, 2019; Pettersson and Oberg, 2020).

In Seke District, Chivasa (2021) notes that while communities have embarked on local peace-building initiatives, the leadership of different political parties have not been forthcoming to support such. Taking a leaf from the Bosnia and Rwanda conflicts, the Zimbabwean context has failed to have open platforms where the perpetrators of violence come forward and assure the victims that such acts will not be committed again. One victim of the August 01 2018 political violence, highlighted the need for the perpetrators of the violence to come forward and acknowledge their wrongdoing, seek forgiveness and assure the victims that they will not be subjected to the same treatment in future (Macheka, 2022). In Rwanda, the Gacaca courts used the open platforms and worked for post-genocide reconciliation. In the extracts made by Macheka (*ibid.*), victims of political violence lamented the need to know the identity of those who injured them, those who killed and maimed their relatives so that they could find peace. The problem militating against reconciliation of political violence is the protection of perpetrators of political violence since 2008.

PEACE COMMITTEES AND PEACE EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE

Peace committees in Zimbabwe emerged in the 1980s and sought to address the political violence of the liberation struggle as well as the effects of the *Gukurahundi*. What has been noted since this time is the liberal inclination to reconciliation by these committees (Giessmann, 2016, cited in Chivasa, 2021), Peace committees have been known to be created in response to a particular conflict, the closure of which would be necessary for a particular society to heal, co-exist and move forward (Chivasa, 2019). Two types of peace committees are the Formal Peace Committee (FPC) and the Informal Peace Committee (IPC). The FPC created by a legislative framework, includes such initiatives as the ONHRI and the NPRC. These are liberal and prefer a top-down approach to reconciliation with much manipulation by the central government. Between May and

June 2019, through a non-formal peace education drive focusing on reconciliation, the government of Zimbabwe formed FPCs through the NPRC in the country's 10 provinces and these structures have cascaded down to district and village levels. However, the concept of reconciliation has remained elusive as the FPCs have remained elitist in nature, too prescriptive and devoid of the context of the political violence and the compatible approaches necessary for such (Chivasa, 2015; 2019; 2021).

Realising the failure of FPCs, the communities have come up with IPCs that are flexible, gender-sensitive and consist of people who are privy to the conflict and embrace the traditional and customary approaches to conflict resolution, as has been the case in the Rwandan context (Macheka, 2022). However, the IPCs cannot often deal with politically motivated violence, since it is instigated by political leaders outside the society (Chivasa, 2017). Nganje (2021), therefore, asserts that the success of IPCs in Africa continues to be hampered by the fact that they would always require the institutional powers of the government and the national political leadership of parties to reconcile polarised societies. As noted by Chivasa (2021), the success of the IPCs in the Seke District has been, to a greater extent, made possible through the macro-micro synergic approach to reconciliation where both the liberal means have been combined with grassroots initiatives for functional overlaps. To this end, Mazamabani and Tapfumaneyi (2020) argue that peace education cannot work when there is no collaboration between the government and the affected communities. Macheka (2022) weighs in with almost a similar argument where she posits that the failure to reach closure from 2008 up to the new dispensation, has been due to uncoordinated approaches to reconciliation where IPCs and FPCs have run parallel to each other. So, from the foregoing, it can, therefore, be seen that reconciliation in Zimbabwe suffers from a collaborative gap, a holistic conceptual gap or theory and a contextual gap where measures are prescribed without considering the conflict context. The situation serves to confirm the recommendation by Hove and Ndawana (2019) in that they advocated for a unified approach to peace education rooted in a holistic and all-encompassing curriculum to avoid disparities depending on who is spearheading the reconciliation agenda. This, therefore,

brings to the fore the need for a peace education curriculum from primary education to university education and beyond.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study was informed by interpretivism philosophy. Interpretivism is a philosophy that guides the construction of knowledge and meaning through interaction with those who have lived experiences of the phenomenon and their attitudes, opinions and beliefs as they relate to the problem (Saunders and Thornhill, 2019). In the study, the lived experiences of the participants gave insights into the contributions of peace education in reconciliation. The inductive approach, as informed by interpretivism, was adopted to solicit multiple realities from victims of political violence, policy-makers, academia and the CSOs. In line with the qualitative research approach adopted, the study employed the case study design. The rationale for adopting the case study design was that politically motivated violence from the year 2008 up to date, has been a common phenomenon across the country and the context in which the violence has been occurring is more or less the same. Be that as it may, the conduct of research across the country was going to be a cumbersome exercise, thus the case of Harare Urban District was chosen on the basis that the findings could be generalised to other areas and communities with similar contexts. The data for the study was collected through in-depth interviews with data-rich participants using the interview guide. The interview allowed for an in-depth understanding of the lived experience of victims of political violence, perpetrators, policy-makers, CSOs, academia, security sector and peace commissioners. This was made possible through follow-up questions to the participants.

DATA ANALYSIS

A significant amount of qualitative data were collected from 10 participants. The data were presented in verbatim extracts. The research questions formed the basis for the generation of universal themes. Given the central themes as informed by the research questions, these then formed the priori codes for Thematic Analysis (TA). For confidentiality and anonymity, the participants were numbered alphabetically from 'A' to 'J'.

SAMPLING PROCEDURES

From the sampled case, Harare Urban District, the participant sample size for the study was ten (n=10). The participants were selected based on convenience and purposively sampled as data-rich from the living victims and perpetrators of political violence, political leadership, police, academia, CSOs, commissions and the government within the district.

FINDINGS

On the role of peace education in divided societies, the study found out that just like other approaches to peace and conflict resolution, peace education was necessary for knowledge, skills and attitudes relevant to peace-building. In this context participant H said:

Whatever conflict, the prime basis for its resolution is a sound peace education, that provides approaches and practices that have been developed and implemented successfully in other countries.

An example is Rwanda where the university has been found to provide public lectures under the Rwanda Genocide Memorial education. In the same context, participant B asserted that peace education provides skills for proactive and reactive conflict resolution. Peace education provides a theoretical perspective on reconciliation.

On the role of peace education in Zimbabwe's divided societies, the study found out that not much had been done to bring closure since the *Gukurahundi* epoch, through the political violence of years 2008, 2018 and other isolated cases, though efforts are currently underway to establish *Gukurahundi* hearings, scheduled to commence towards the end of the year 2024. The problem noted by most of the participants was that the government lacked a clear policy on the implementation of peace education. First and foremost, peace education in Zimbabwe has remained the purview of universities, whereas it is supposed to start from kindergarten. The other problem relates to other providers of non-formal peace education. This problem has been noted by participants to be common in most African countries. In this regard, participant A had this to say: "The provision of peace education in Zimbabwe just like in the DRC, Ethiopia and Nigeria has been spearheaded by faith

organisations, political parties and CSOs.” In the Zimbabwean context, this peace education by CSOs and political parties has had a destructive role, where the facilitators would go beyond the constructive role and promote hate and retaliation through toxic speeches in what could be described as a political party or CSO aggrandisement. The other problem that has led to very little contribution to peace education has been the lack of universally accepted minimum bodies of knowledge (MBK). This has led to different curricula being dumped on societies with certain borrowed concepts not in sync with the local context.

On strategies that can be implemented for effective peace education towards reconciliation, the participants argued that the first consideration by the government was to ensure that peace education is taught from the primary level to the university level. Beyond institutional learning, the government was to monitor the provision of non-formal peace education to ensure that providers remain within the constructive role. Over and above, there was need to design a universal curriculum of peace education. The other contribution made by participant C was that, “Instead of the liberal strategies for reconciliation, such as the use of the National Peace and Reconciliation Commission, the government also allowed for grassroots initiatives through Informal Peace Committees.

DISCUSSION

The study sought to address three objectives: to examine the role of peace education in the reconciliation of a divided society; to assess the extent to which peace education has contributed to the reconciliation of Zimbabwean societies; and to determine a holistic approach to reconciliation in Zimbabwe. These objectives formed central themes to the inquiry and gave rise to the generation of research questions that then generated data that either refuted the reviewed literature or concurred with it. In this regard, the findings of the study are presented in line with the research questions that were addressed.

THE ROLE OF PEACE EDUCATION IN THE RECONCILIATION OF DIVIDED SOCIETIES IN ZIMBABWE

The objective sought to solicit the role of peace education in polarised societies. The majority of the participants

acknowledged that peace education, if directed towards national healing and co-existence, would ultimately reconcile societies because it then acts as a confounding variable to the process of reconciliation. Peace education according to the participants, provides knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for youth, political parties, victims, CSOs and perpetrators to develop a conscience of what is wrong and right in the spirit of *Ubuntu*. This argument by the participants is in sync with Mergesa (2020), who acknowledges the constructive role of peace education in the process of reconciliation and peacebuilding.

The constructive role of education for co-existence is also in agreement with Hove and Ndawana (2019), who advocate for the need to have peaceful education from kindergarten to tertiary education so that conflicts can be avoided and when they occur, the parties to the conflict must then use the skills, knowledge and attitudes to reach out to each other and reconcile. This brings to the fore the convergence with Galtung's (1990) Theory of Positive Peace, as cited in Hove and Dube (2022), in that peace education is taken to be the fundamental basis for the attainment of positive peace. The destructive role of peace education as highlighted by participants C and A, also acknowledged by Macheke (2022), who argue that the failure of peace education to bring closure to the political violence of *Gukurahundi* and the subsequent years lies in the hypocrisy that the education curricula has been designed and implemented. She further acknowledges the political abuse of peace education to suit the needs of those in power as submitted by participant H. The destructive role of peace education and the partisan effects, as argued by Mhandara (2017), Chivasa (2021), Macheke (2022), were lamented by participants D and J, then brings a convergence between the reviewed literature and the participants' views. The need for a coordinated approach to the provision of reconciliation education and its subsequent praxis is lamented by the participants and confirms the application of the Hybrid Peace Theory by Kent *et al.* (2018, cited in Chivasa (2022) that advocates for the cooperation of all parties to the conflict as well as the state and non-state actors to bring about a constructive role of peace education in reconciliation.

THE EXTENT TO WHICH PEACE EDUCATION HAS CONTRIBUTED TO THE RECONCILIATION OF VICTIMS AND PERPETRATORS OF POLITICAL VIOLENCE IN ZIMBABWE.

The objective sought to ascertain or evaluate the extent of progress made since 2008 up to date in Zimbabwe concerning the reconciliation agenda. What is glaringly clear from the submission of the participants is that, unlike in other countries where there has been progress on the reconciliation agenda being driven by peace education, the Zimbabwean context has remained stagnant because much of the initiatives are marred by hypocrisy by the government, CSOs, political parties and the security sector. This assertion by the participants defeats the existence of positive peace in Zimbabwe and points to the existence of negative peace. Though others argued for marked progress, the lack of a curriculum, as lamented by Hove and Ndawana (2019), has negated the progress since the frontiers or scope of reconciliation have been manipulated for partisan politics. The provision of such education by commissions has been described as being too prescriptive and liberal to address the different contexts of violence. This argument resonates well with Chivasa (2021), who posits that the use of FPCs in the Seke District to promote reconciliation failed and the process recorded progress only upon combining FPCs with IPCs from the grassroots. This is in sync with the Hybrid Theory of Peacebuilding by Kent *et al.* (2018), which advocates for a synergic approach to reconciliation by state and non-state actors.

The level of data interaction from the participants points to the conclusion that reconciliation education and initiatives in the classroom or the non-formal context, are done haphazardly to the loss of trust by those who look up to the government to spearhead the initiatives. The reconciliation agenda has been marred by the government, political parties and the security sector, denying victims and perpetrators an open and public forum for reconciliation as has been the case in East Timor, Bosnia and Rwanda. This is in line with Megersa's (2020) Ethiopian experience where, despite a good peace education for co-existence, the parties to the conflict lacked the commitment to effect theory into practice.

STRATEGIES FOR EFFECTIVE RECONCILIATION IN ZIMBABWE'S HARARE URBAN DISTRICT

The level of interaction and convergence of the participant's views point to the fact that for reconciliation education to be effective, the first port of call is to come up with a national philosophy-driven peace education that is implemented in the gamut of lifelong learning (LLL). This argument is in sync with the proposition of Hove and Ndawana (2019), who propose the design of such a curriculum to cover kindergarten to university education. There is a consensus as noticed from themes 1 and 2 that the need to depoliticise peace education has been lamented in line with Macheka's (2022) assertion. Macheka argues that what has negated the role of peace education in Zimbabwe has been the toxic politics that capitalise on whatever the ordinary citizenry is a recipient of. The need to have a monitoring board that regulates the provision of reconciliation education in line with the national curriculum was also raised in the submissions, in line with Chirimuuta and Chirimuuta (2017, cited in Hove and Ndawana, 2019).

The need to have functional overlaps in that the government initiatives combine with grassroots initiatives as the panacea to the efficacy of peace education in reconciliation was also raised. To this end, this assertion relates well with the argument by Chivasa (2021), who argues that the combination of FPCs and IPCs, spearheaded by the locals of Seke District, Mashonaland East Province, has proved effective in reconciliation education. The general sentiment of willpower and the need to avoid hypocrisy has come across and emerged in all the themes and is argued as one of the best ways to improve the efficacy of peace education in the reconciliation agenda. This is in sync with Macheka (2022), who accuses government, NGOs, CSOs, political parties and the security sector of hypocrisy in the dissemination and implementation of reconciliation education.

CONCLUSION

The role of peace education, as the panacea to peacebuilding in polarised societies, has been studied by many researchers but very few have focused on the role of reconciliation education in divided societies. Theoretically and ideally, the role of peace education in reconciliation must be constructive, but the actors

involved have to find ways to use reconciliation to further their partisan or political agendas, thereby projecting a destructive role. The government has been seen to be actively participating in hiding the perpetrators of political violence but at the same time preaching peace. The opposition and CSOs are deliberately using peace education to preach hate against the government. This is made worse by the absence of a well-defined curriculum informed by a national philosophy of reconciliation. The provision of reconciliation education remains a challenge in that the agencies to the provision are not coordinated and what they provide is not scrutinised.

The commissions which have been put in place as part of the provision of reconciliation education and implementation thereafter, remain conflicted as the government continues to give directions, thus compromising the independence of such. It is recommended that the country should have a national philosophy of peace education upon which the curricula for LLL can then be designed. A coordinated approach to the provision of reconciliation education and associated praxis where FPCs and IPCs combine for functional overlaps, will go a long way in ensuring the efficacy of peace education in reconciling polarised societies. The depoliticisation of reconciliation education will go a long way in ensuring that reconciliation is achieved in Zimbabwe, not only from 2008 up to the present day, but even the era before.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- The government of Zimbabwe should introduce peace education from primary to university level.
- Reconciliation efforts should combine grassroots initiatives (IPCs) and government liberal strategies (FPCs) in line with the Hybrid Theory.
- The provision of non-formal peace education by the CSOs, faith organisations and political parties must be monitored and regulated to dissuade the destructive role of peace education.
- There must be political will by the different conflicting political parties to promote positive peace.

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A Thematic Review on the African Perspective on Caregiver Experiences

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Abstract

Caring for patients with mental disorders brings many challenges for informal/unpaid carers, especially relatives. This article provides a brief overview of the literature on caregivers' experiences in caring for a relative with mental illness. The areas identified and discussed that may impact the caregivers include gender and caregiver burden, patriarchy, gender differences in caregiving, economic factors and policy frameworks in caregiving in different African countries. The following databases were searched to identify studies for the literature review: Google Scholar, Medline, Pub Med and HINARI. Studies eligible for inclusion were all those published in English about caregiving in Africa among families of individuals with mental illness. Family caregivers were found to be primarily females who experience the burden of caregiving. The study concludes that the socioeconomic factors hurt the caregiving process, with consequential negative health outcomes for family caregivers.

Keywords: caregiving, mental disorders, economic burden, patriarchy, gender differences, Africa

INTRODUCTION

The cases of mental disorders are increasing in the 21st century and are everywhere, including homes and workplaces (World Health Organisation (WHO), 2023). The burden of mental disorders is on the rise globally and impacts the health, socio-economic status and human rights of individuals (WHO, 2020). It is estimated that 25% of the world's global population is

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suffering from some mental disorders (Cheah *et al.*, 2020). However, an estimated 6% have been found to have a serious or severe mental disorder (Ndlovu and Mokwena, 2023). The figures presented the total estimated number of people with severe mental disorders in the world, considering that another research confirmed that there are an estimated 450 million people in total (Walke *et al.*, 2018). A further breakdown of the figures show that one (1) out of four (4) people suffers from a mental disorder. That disorder is catered for by relatives of the affected individuals (Ntuli *et al.*, 2019; Redubla and Cuaton, 2019; Ndlovu and Mokwena, 2023).

Recent studies have stated that a growing number of people experience mental disorders (Fernando, 2014; Bruffaerts *et al.*, 2015; Polanczyk *et al.*, 2015; Hanna *et al.*, 2018). Mental disorders contribute an estimated 14% of the global burden of diseases, even though they are responsible for as little as 1% of deaths, with the highest burden being in developing countries (Global Burden of Disease (GBD), 2019). The burden negatively impacts the affected countries' economic profile, resulting in a decline in productivity at both the individual and national levels (Maresova *et al.*, 2020; Tristiana *et al.*, 2018; Opoku-Boateng *et al.*, 2020;). Some overwhelming evidence of the negative impacts of mental disorders on caregivers' well-being and health continues to emerge and are reported to be worse, more embarrassing and more depressive to the caregivers (Gupta *et al.*, 2015; Maresova *et al.*, 2020).

Due to a global deinstitutionalisation of the treatment of mental disorders, only a small proportion of those suffering from mental disorders are admitted to hospitals (WHO, 2017). This has led to a shift in care roles from health professionals who provide institutionalised care, to an integrated community-based approach, with family members now being the primary caregivers (Tamizi *et al.*, 2020:12). Since then, it is estimated that the caregiver roles of 50-90% of people with mental disorders are now a responsibility of family members (Grover and Pradyumna, 2014). These responsibilities include physical company, monitoring intake of medications, assisting with activities of daily living, psychological and emotional support and active listening, resulting in those individuals being

dependent on their carers (Grover and Pradyumna, 2014; Mavingire, 2019). At the same time, those caregivers are not properly trained to deal with those challenges and are unpaid, especially in Zimbabwe and other developing countries (Bhandari *et al.*, 2015; Mavingire, 2019). Thus, their burden is a double tragedy where they are forced to use their skills to adapt to the caregiving roles and assume a full-time unpaid job that is risky and depressive (Trepel, 2010; Mavingire, 2019).

Despite facing such lifetime burdens, caregivers continue to play the important role of supporting family members suffering from mental disorders or the disabled (Abraham *et al.*, 2010; Maresova *et al.*, 2020). The families of patients with mental disorders are undoubtedly affected by the conditions of their loved ones. Those demands of the affected family members can bring significant stress levels to the caregivers and affect their work, relationships and quality of life (Mavingire, 2019). Some research on the impact of caregiving has proved that most caregivers experience psychological distress and increased rates of ill health than the general population (Sharma *et al.*, 2016; Norris *et al.*, 2018). Caring for a family member with a mental illness has been found to have unlimited financial difficulties, social isolation and negative emotions (Lamont and Dickens, 2021). There is also risk of reduced life expectancy and less time for social and leisure activities among family caregivers (Hsiao *et al.*, 2020; Mckee, 2020). This is an additional albatross in the lives of the caregivers, especially within the African context, because socialising and spending time with others is valued (Mavingire, 2019).

In African societies, taking care of a family member with a chronic mental disorder and in need of constant care has been traditionally shared among family members and the extended family (Marimbe *et al.*, 2016; Ntuli and Madiba, 2019). Sharing the responsibility of caregiving within the extended family has been found to be beneficial to caregivers and persons with chronic illnesses in terms of social support. However, changes in the social structures continue to shrink the extended family space, thereby driving towards the nuclear families (Kartalova, 2008). These nuclear families are left without social support, unlike in extended families. As a result, many caregivers are left

to bear their physical, emotional, financial and spiritual burdens in isolation, missing their traditional family support (Dussel *et al.*, 2011; Cameron *et al.*, 2015;).

METHODOLOGY

SEARCH STRATEGY

Four themes were identified based on key themes from studies conducted in developed countries. They included patriarchy, gender and caregiving, gender differences and caregiver burden, economic factors and policy frameworks in caregiving in different African countries. The Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) database was used as a controlled vocabulary for search strategy formulation (Remacle, Jean François and Shephard, 2003). The study adopted the Participants, Concept and Context framework from the Joanna Briggs Institute on conducting systematic literature search and used the following search strategy:

Keyword	Alternative Terms
Caregivers (Participants)	"Caregivers"[Mesh] OR Family Caregiver OR Carers OR Care giver OR Informal caregivers OR Spouse caregiver OR Primary Family Caregiver OR Caregiver, Informal
AND	
Mental Illness (Concept 1)	"Mental Disorders"[Mesh] OR Psychiatric Illness OR schizophrenia OR dementia OR Psychiatric Disorders OR bipolar disorders OR depression OR drug induced psychosis patients OR Severe Mental Illness
AND	
Impact on Caregivers (Concept 2)	Impact on Caregivers OR Patriarchy OR "Family Structure"[Mesh] OR Family Roles OR gender and caregiving OR "Gender Identity"[Mesh] OR Gender "Caregiver Burden"[Mesh] OR Caregiver Stress OR Caregiver Strain OR Caregiver Burnout OR "Economic Factors"[Mesh] OR Policy frameworks
AND	
Africa (Context)	((("Africa South of the Sahara") OR "Africa, Eastern") OR "Africa, Northern") OR "Africa, Southern") OR "Africa, Western") OR "Africa") OR "African") OR "Angola") OR "Botswana") OR "Cameroon") OR "Cape Verde") OR "Central African Republic") OR "Egypt") OR "Ethiopia") "Ghana") OR "Kenya") OR "Lesotho") OR "Malawi") OR "Mozambique") OR "Namibia") OR "Nigeria") OR "South Africa") OR "Swaziland") OR "Tanzania") OR "Uganda") OR "Zambia") OR "Zimbabwe"))

The search for the relevant literature was conducted across the following databases: African Journals Online, PubMed, Scopus, Embase and CINAHL.

ELIGIBILITY CRITERIA

The following inclusion and exclusion criteria were used to identify the relevant studies for the literature review:

Include	Exclude
All studies published in English language	Non-English studies
Studies on informal/family caregivers	Studies on formal caregivers
Studies on mental illness in adults	Studies on mental illness in children
Studies discussing patriarchy; economic factors; policy framework; gender and burden of care	Studies that exclude any of the four pillars
Studies from any country in Africa	Studies done outside Africa
All peer reviewed studies including reports and grey literature	All non-peer reviewed publications such as newspaper articles, blogs, letters
Articles published regardless of the publication date	

FINDINGS

GENDER AND CAREGIVER BURDEN IN AFRICA

Women are often the main informal caregivers for the elderly in many parts of the world (Morris, 2001; Prince, 2009; Akpinar, 2011) and are often seen as the best caregivers in a situation where care is more intense and requires more problem-solving skills (Swinkels, 2019). The finding that most family caregivers were female was previously reported in other studies conducted both in developing and developed countries, where care-giving responsibilities were assumed mostly by females (Prince, 2009; Powell and Hunt, 2013; Ntuli and Madiba, 2019) and the burden of care was higher among females (Rezende *et al.*, 2017). Generally, the burden of care is predominantly high among middle-aged females who may be obligated to care for their children and their aging parents (Rezende *et al.*, 2017; Mavingire, 2019). A cross-sectional study conducted by Sebit and Nyati (2002) in Zimbabwe sought to explore burden of mental illness on family members, caregivers and the community. Findings reveal that most of the caregivers were

females, who experienced more burden than males. In another study conducted in the same country by Marimbe *et al.* (2016), most caregivers were mothers who experienced more burden of care than their male counterparts. These studies have also found that women experience greater mental and physical strain, greater caregiver-burden and higher levels of psychological distress while providing care.

It is important that as humans move around through life with changing demographics that some will have to function as caregivers. Family members are expected to take on the caregiving role that is expected of them (Collins and Kishita, 2020; Grover *et al.*, 2015). However, the indisputable strength of informal caregiving lies on female family caregivers, whose roles are often directed by African traditional beliefs and endorsed by culture and religion. It has been declared that caregiving is feminised and women are socialised into nurturing roles (Aronson, 1992; Haralambos and Holborne, 2004). The African traditional gender norms exclude men and boys from caregiving and assign that role to females. The role of women in Africa extends from the reproductive role to nurturing infants and sick family members and continues throughout their lifetime. The importance of this role is often not recognised by the family except by the care recipients themselves (Parks and Pilisuk, 1991; Bhandari *et al.*, 2015). Women then sacrifice to fulfil this role and some of them leave school or their jobs to provide that care (Maresova *et al.*, 2020). This added responsibility may affect one's coping mechanisms and manifest as psychological distress or burden. It appears that women are often concerned about the wellbeing of the people they take care of and this attachment is the one that motivates them to continue providing care (Ajibade *et al.*, 2016; Olagundoye and Akhuenmokhan, 2017; Walke *et al.*, 2018).

Higher levels of caregiver-burden, psychological morbidity, stress, burnout and poorer quality of life among female caregivers of those with mental disorders have been reported in a number of studies (Jenkins and Schumacher, 1999; Wancata *et al.*, 2008; Mavundla *et al.*, 2009; Zahid, Ohaeri, 2010; Powel *et al.*, 2013; Collings, 2015; Marimbe *et al.*, 2016; Ntuli and Madiba, 2019). However, a qualitative study

conducted in Uganda reveals that women had better coping skills than men, something attributed to the fact that women provide most of the day-to-day caregiving roles which comes from their nurturing and upbringing (Kipp *et al.*, 2007) through which they gain skills on how to handle stressful situations and learn problem-solving skills (Kagwa *et al.*, 2021). The reduced burden of caregiving reported by women in this study could also be due to the social desirability bias related to cultural and social expectations of women in most African settings, where women are expected to provide care and put everyone first before putting themselves (Oduyeyo, 2009; Lorber, 2018).

Psychological burden of caregiving in Sub-Saharan Africa was reported to be higher among female caregivers of patients with a long history of illness and severe and debilitating symptoms (Tajudeen *et al.*, 2010; Yusuf, Nuhu, 2011). Female caregivers report both subjective and objective burden because of caring for a family member with mental illness (Ambikile and Outwater, 2012; Monyaluoe, Mvandaba, 2014; Flyckt, Fatouros-Bergman and Koernig, 2015); Rezende *et al.*, 2017; Ofovwe and Osasona, 2022

GENDER DIFFERENCES IN CAREGIVING

In the context of Africa, specifically Zimbabwe, Nkomo (2014) reveals that caring for someone with a mental illness has been a family endeavour. This is true of developed and developing countries. Social and health-policy changes have placed greater emphasis on home and family-care for the chronically mentally ill in both developed and developing countries. In contrast, families have always been the mainstays of care for the mentally ill in developing countries (Leggatt, 2002; Shankar and Rao, 2005).

The pattern of living arrangements in developing countries is multi-generational in nature, that is an advantage to the patient in terms of the large number of potential caregivers. Family caregivers aid the member with mental illness more than the help provided under normal circumstances (Fenech and Scerri, 2014; Venkatesh *et al.*, 2016). Not only is most informal care provided by the family members, but the majority of family-caregiving is also carried out by women (Sebit *et al.*, 2006;

Mavundla, Toth and Mphelane, 2009; National Alliance for Caregiving and AARP, 2009; Marimbe *et al.*, 2016). Women all over the world are the major providers of this informal caregiving responsibility for family members with disabilities, chronic medical conditions and the elderly (Prince, 2009; Sharma, Chakrabarti and Grover, 2016). A number of societal and cultural factors demand that women adopt the role of caregivers in different families. Women have been found to be at greater risk of stress according to the stress and coping model.

In most Sub-Saharan African communities, females are the traditional caregivers for patients with chronic illnesses (Yusuf, 2009; Muchinako *et al.*, 2013). This is despite the fact that there have been changes in the social structures, norms and demographics, where men are gradually assuming roles as caregivers (Baker and Robertson, 2008). The differences in caregiving between men and women is also mediated by several factors such as marital status, education, employment status, socioeconomic status, relationship with the patient, characteristics of the patient, severity of the illness, behavioural problems and associated disabilities among other things (Pinquart, Sorensen, 2006; Eters *et al.*, 2008; Papastavrou *et al.*, 2009). Most of the research has been conducted over the years among family caregivers of the elderly population and physical conditions, whilst gender differences among caregivers of other mental illnesses have been neglected.

Sociological explanations have emphasised more on the expectations of traditional gender roles, whereby women are expected to assume the role of a caregiver. The social constructionist theory is clear on how young girls are socialised to assume caregiving responsibilities from young ages. This is entrenched in females through their social and cultural experiences, starting from childhood and leads to a different approach to caregiving compared to men (Magezis, 1996; Haralambos and Holborn;). Women are most likely to become the principal family caregivers of chronically ill spouses or family members. According to the theories of labour and segregation, women are more likely to stay at home whilst men go to seek employment, making it natural for women to take up caregiving roles (Papastavrou *et al.*, 2009). Men are not

traditionally expected to become caregivers which leads to a different approach towards caregiving among them. Due to their role-socialisation, men usually become less capable at expressing their difficulties or emotions. This could result in a response-bias, in that men may be less likely to report problems in providing care than women (Papastavrou *et al.*, 2011). It is, however, important to note that caregiving among males has not been adequately explored in terms of research.

PATRIARCHY AND CAREGIVING IN AFRICA

Africa is a patriarchal society, whereby the role of women is guided by ethno-religious ideologies and economic and sociocultural factors (Gaidzanwa, 2004; Kambarami, 2006). Patriarchy is defined as a custom that provides more privileges to men than women and is a strong aspect of most cultures, including African culture. Privileges given to men are in all areas of human endeavours and communications. These factors inform distribution of resources and responsibilities which is often overloaded with discriminations between men and women (Akinola, 2018).

ROLES

The role of the woman in a patriarchal society is to be subservient and submissive to men. They are supposed to cater to all the hopes and desires of men without complaint. In a patriarchal society, women are expected to stay in the household as a mother and homemaker, usually completing hours of unpaid labour and maintaining these tasks (Hartmann, 1979). Real women are seen as dependent, vulnerable, weak, supportive, nurturing, emotional and empathetic that makes it arguably difficult to be oneself. The roles of women include the reproductive role, caring for the children and sick family members (Proctor and Phimister, 1995; Mavingire, 2019). These roles are very exceptional and are dictated by culture, religion and beliefs. Despite these, their contributions in caregiving remain unrecognised by anyone else except by the beneficiaries of the care. This is shown by them performing this role and not being paid for it (Bhandari *et al.*, 2015). Again, this must be attributed to the fact that culturally, the role of caregiving is the duty of the women. Caregiving is a role expected of family members but the undisputable strength

of informal caregiving lies on female family caregivers, whose roles are often designated by values and endorsed by culture (Kambarami, 2006; Maphosa and Chiwanza, 2021). It has been emphasised that caregiving is feminised and women are socialised into nurturing roles through cultural scripts.

EXPECTATIONS

A woman is expected to surrender all her rights to her husband to gain respect from the community (Okome, 2003; Kambarami, 2006). Miller (2016) states that in nature, the patriarchal culture is resolute as a system of power relationship where men control women and possess more social wealth and power over resources than women (Chipunza, 2003; Chinyani, 2010). Men also have control over women's reproductive rights and health. The men decide how many children women should have, especially in issues to do with child spacing/family planning methods. If a woman gets sick, the husband is the one who decides the type of treatment that she should receive, either in informal or formal health services. The woman's belief system is overridden by her husband's after marriage. Some aspects of control of men over women are expressed as psychological and physical violence.

CONTROL

Patriarchy allows men to hold positions of power over women (Beker, 1999). Males take undue advantage over women, which is viewed in developed countries as gender discrimination. According to Walby (1994), patriarchy is a system of practices and social structures where men oppress, exploit and dominate women. Women in these social structures are marginalised by men. According to the African culture, an ideal woman should be innocent, passive, calm and sacrificial and should not raise her voice at any male (Nwokocha, 2019). This means that men are in control of all family and social situations; they make all decisions regarding the family's health, education and finances. In many instances, the woman must ask for permission from her husband before deciding. Some men may even go a step further by oppressing the women in their family to gain more control over them. A woman who tries to reclaim some power or control for herself may be at risk of being oppressed, exploited,

or even abused by men in the family, to bring her back down to a submissive level.

IMPACT ON CAREGIVING

Some studies affirm that around the world, women make up about 57 to 81% of informal care givers for family members with chronic disabilities (Tang *et al.*, 2013; Sharma, 2016). Most often their caregiving roles are not recognised by family members or the health care system (Reinhard *et al.*, 2019). This is likely because women are culturally supposed to take up caregiving roles that may not be considered important by the family and the health care system. On clinical observations, caregivers who accompany patients for review or for treatment are not being asked how they are coping with the caregiving process. Health care providers are concerned mostly about the patients' welfare and recovery. They are concerned about whether the patient is complying with the medication regime and overlook the challenges the caregivers experience in ensuring that the patient takes their medication.

ECONOMIC STATUS AND CAREGIVING

Though family caregiving is critical to the management of all severe mental health conditions, the economic costs borne by family caregivers often go unnoticed. A qualitative study conducted in South Africa by Vukeya *et al.* (2022), that explored experiences of family members caring for a sibling with mental illness in Giyani, Limpopo Province, reveals that some family caregivers had to quit their jobs to take care of their mentally ill relatives full-time. This concurs with the findings of studies from both developed countries like the USA, and developing countries like Uganda (Verity *et al.*, 2021), where circumstances often compel family caregivers and demand to care for their mentally ill relatives, to the extent that they often have to quit their jobs to offer full-time care despite the poverty this decision could expose them to (Mavundla, 2009; Chang, 2010; Lund, 2013). Employment is a key element of social production and social participation and plays a major role for the caregiver in addressing financial, emotional and social needs. In Uganda, transport to attend health facilities impedes access to help outside the family care system. Underpinning these experiences

is the impact of low economic resources (Ae-Ngibise *et al.*, 2015; Verity *et al.*, 2021).

A systematic review conducted by Addo *et al.* (2018) shows that the caregiver's level of income and employment status, severity of the patient's condition and duration of mental illness were reported to affect negatively economic burdens experienced by caregivers. Indirect costs in the form of productivity losses constitutes the largest portion of the total economic burden (Suleiman *et al.*, 1997; Ohaeri, 2001; Mavundla, Toth and Mphelane, 2009; Addo, Nonvignon and Aikins, 2013). In the same study, seven papers were reviewed and all of them reported moderate to severe caregiver burden characterised by financial constraints, productivity loss and lost employment (Addo, *et al.*, 2018). The caregiver's level of income and employment status, severity of patient's condition and duration of mental illness were reported to negatively affect the economic burden experienced by caregivers. Direct and indirect costs were also found to affect the quality of life of the caregiver either directly or indirectly (Esan and Esan, 2016). Some caregivers spent most of their money seeking care and losing some days of work for caregiving and travelling to seek care for relatives (Suleiman *et al.*, 1997; Ohaeri, 2001; Mavundla, Toth and Mphelane, 2009; Addo, Nonvignon and Aikins, 2013; Addo *et al.*, 2018). Demographic characteristics of the caregivers, such as those who were separated or divorced, experienced higher and persistent financial distress and difficulty in caring for the family member with mental disorder than caregivers who were married (Ohaeri, 2001).

In a qualitative study by Opoku-Boateng *et al.* (2017), that sought to explore caregivers' experiences of looking after a family member living with severe mental disorders in Ghana, findings show that caregivers experienced economic costs categorised as direct costs. They included medical and non-medical costs of seeking care, indirect costs of productivity losses to caregivers and intangible costs like non-monetary costs such as stigma and pain. Direct costs included costs of medical supplies, consultations and travel. Indirect costs were estimated as the value of productive time lost (in hours) to primary caregivers. The key components of direct costs

experienced by caregivers were drugs (about 50%) and transportation (about 27%) (Opoku-Boateng *et al.*, 2017; Mavingire, 2019;

Most studies showing an association between mental disorders and reduced income have been conducted in high-income countries (Kessler *et al.*, 2008). In low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), little is known regarding the links between mental disorders and reduced income, despite evidence of a substantial burden of mental illness (Lopez *et al.*, 2006; Kessler and Ustun, 2008). The findings support other research that indicates that mental illness, through its strong association with reduced earnings, appears to have a major socio-economic impact in LMICs (Iseselo, Majula and Yayha-Malima, 2016).

In a qualitative study by Marimbe *et al.* (2016), many caregivers expressed the financial burden in Zimbabwe. It took several forms, for some, the financial burden was experienced due to the caregivers leaving their jobs to take a caregiving role. Caregivers stated that, although treatment is free at government psychiatry hospitals in Zimbabwe, some had to buy medication for the patient, as it was frequently unavailable at the hospitals. This supported the findings by Nyati and Sebit (2002), who found that 63.6% of caregivers experienced financial constraints and spent a lot of money (56.1%) on food and medication. In Tanzania, a qualitative study among 14 caregivers that set to explore the psychosocial problems of families caring for relatives with mental illnesses and their coping strategies, reveals that caregivers experienced financial burden among other things, as a result of caring for their relatives with severe mental disorders (Iseselo, Kajula and Yayha-Malima, 2016).

In South Africa, a qualitative study conducted by Silaule, Nkosi and Adams (2023) notes that employed and unemployed informal caregivers reported higher levels of objective burden. This could be because the informal caregivers struggled to meet the household's expenses and provide for the needs of the care recipients despite their employment status. These results are similar to rural Ethiopia's findings that caregivers reported higher levels of burden related to financial problems, often due to the cost of treatment (Asher *et al.*, 2015). The informal

caregivers in this study needed to deal with the additional cost of providing care, which included covering the transport costs to and from the hospital for follow-ups and were expected to meet basic household expenses. Marimbe *et al.* (2016) highlight that the increased financial burden might be related to some informal caregivers frequently foregoing economic opportunities to fulfil their caregiving responsibilities. Caregivers require assistance from the Zimbabwean government to cope with financial needs (*ibid.*). Financial support for caregivers can include direct income payments and supplements, public assistance, other social security programmes and grants to cover care-related activities and costs (Maresova *et al.*, 2020). However, there is paucity of studies reporting the financial burden of severe mental illness on caregivers in sub-Saharan Africa, including Zimbabwe.

POLICY FRAMEWORKS IN CAREGIVING FOR MENTAL ILLNESS IN AFRICA

Many African countries have struggled to design adequate policy frameworks and systems to address the health and needs of their citizens in the past. This has been attributed to their long colonial history and economic challenges. Sodi *et al.* (2021) reviewed mental health policies and system preparedness to respond to COVID-19 and other health emergencies in four African countries. They found that legislation and policies which make provision for mental health services and the psychology profession existed. However, there was no mention of caregiver support in all four policies, which is a major limitation of the framework in line with addressing the plight of caregivers.

The South African National Mental Health Policy Framework and Strategic Plan for 2023-2030 was reviewed to explore the availability of plans for caregivers (Sodi *et al.* (2021). This document covered only the needs of service users regarding mental health services, treatment and rehabilitation. There is no mention of caregiver support. The Mental Health Care Act of South Africa (2002) also highlights the rights of mental health users, which includes their right to proper care and treatment. While it focuses on the care of the patients, it indirectly recognises the importance of caregiver support in ensuring the effective mental health care.

The Kenyan Policy Framework of 2015-2030 speaks to the roles and responsibilities of individuals, families and communities that they should play a key role in promoting mental health, prevention, treatment and rehabilitation of persons affected by mental disorders. However, caregiver support guidelines are not mentioned (Kenya Mental Health Policy, 2015-2030). Kenya also has the Mental Health Act of 1989, revised in 2010. The act provides a legal framework for the delivery of mental health care services. The act also focuses on different aspects of mental health care, which includes rehabilitation and treatment, but does not have provisions that specifically address caregiver support. In Nigeria, there is the National Mental health Policy that was developed in 1991, revised in 2003. The aim of the policy also is to guide the provision of mental health services. However, it does not have explicit provisions of caregiver support, though it emphasises the involvement of the community in mental health care (Federal Ministry of Health Nigeria, 2003). Similarly, Ghana has a mental health act that provides a legal framework for delivery of mental health care to mental health users, but does not have specific provision for caregiver support (Parliament of the Republic of Ghana, 2012).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Women are key in caregiving for family members with severe mental illness. Their contributions to caregiving remain less recognised by families and the community, excluding the beneficiaries of care. This is likely because their role in the African context is influenced by patriarchy. There is need for further studies to determine the role of men in caregiving and the influence of the economic status of individuals on the caregiving process, as these areas have been studied intermittently. To attain an effective shift in caregiver policies, the focus should be on supporting individuals to excel in their lives, instead of focusing on the person being cared for.

In developed countries, where caregiver policies exist, the focus is mainly on relieving burdens associated with caring or the needs of the person being cared for (Brian-Beach, 2022). They fail to fully support caregivers, thereby hindering their ability to achieve their well-being through positive functioning, irrespective of their responsibilities as caregivers (*ibid.*). To

attain an effective shift in caregiver policies, the focus should be on supporting individuals to excel in their lives, instead of focusing on the person being cared for. As in many other areas of policy-making, a more integrated and holistic approach to policy development would be advantageous, particularly in a global context. A coherent framework for capturing the diversity of policies across various cultural, economic, political and social contexts would be useful for understanding how caregiver policies successfully address caregiver needs. Addressing mental health requires a supportive policy framework and careful planning to coordinate and scale up mental health services and access to treatment (Savage *et al.*, 2004). Yet, most countries in Africa do not have a comprehensive mental health policy and plan that also caters for caregiver needs.

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