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**THE DELIVERY OF THE CLOTHING AND TEXTILES CURRICULUM IN
ZIMBABWEAN UNIVERSITIES: TOWARDS AN INTEGRATED APPROACH TO
VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL DISCOURSES.**

By

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A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

In the Faculty of Education

At the

UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

Promoter: Professor N. Duku

June 2014

DECLARATION

I solemnly declare that this thesis is exclusively a product of my own research. I hereby affirm that to the best of my understanding and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published in any institution. I acknowledged such sources from the published or unpublished work of other scholars both in the text and in the list of references. The thesis has not been submitted to any other institution of higher learning for the award of any degree or qualification.

.....

Muzenda V.

Signed.....

Date.....

ABSTRACT

The introduction of Technical Vocational Education (TVE) has been marred by a myriad of challenges, and this has not spared universities. The incompetency of lecturers, the perceptions of both lecturers and students, the relationship between universities and the world of work as well as support strategies have been the most contested issues in TVE.

The researcher used the mixed method design which is rooted in the post-positivist research paradigm that integrates concurrent procedures in the collection, analysis and interpretation of the data. Post-positivist research paradigm attempts to enhance one's understanding of the way certain phenomena are and that objectivity is an ideal that can never be achieved. The sample of the study comprised two Heads of Department (HODs) from the universities under study, 18 lecturers for the interviews, 18 lecturers who responded to the questionnaire, 24 students formed the 4 focus groups for both universities with 6 students each. Two industrial personnel were also interviewed. Questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data while qualitative data were collected through interviews, focus group discussions, observations and document analysis. The researcher employed the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) to summarise, compile tables and graphs on quantitative data and qualitative data was analysed using content analysis through emerging themes.

The study established that lecturers were not competent enough to deliver CT curriculum in universities and this was as a result of the type of training lecturers received which was no longer congruent with the technological advancement which have taken place in the textile industry. It was also instituted that universities were producing students who lacked the hands-on skills necessary for them to be acceptable in the world of work. There was a stern shortage of equipment and machinery in CT departments in universities. The machinery and equipment in the departments were too old and broken. Furthermore, the study established that there was no collaboration between universities and industries. Industrial personnel lamented that universities were

not willing to put into consideration all the suggestions they gave them and that time for Work-Integrated Learning (WIL) or placement was too short for them to impart all the requisite skills to students.

It was also established that students were discontented by the teaching methods that lecturers were using and the way they were being assessed. Students conveyed their desire for the industry to be involved in assessing them whilst they were in universities.

Based on the above findings, the study concluded that lecturers were incapacitated to deliver CT due to the training they received in colleges and universities which was no longer congruent with the dynamics of technology. The study also concluded that the shortage of machinery and equipment also demotivated lecturers and incapacitated them. It was also concluded that the lack of collaboration between universities and industries posed serious challenges to both lecturers and students.

The study recommends that the quality of the existing lecturing force must be improved mainly through extensive staff development training programmes. There is need for lecturers to be staff developed through training workshops in order to improve on competence. There should be collaboration among University management, lecturers and the industry during curriculum design, implementation and monitoring to improve their attachment and sense of ownership of CT programmes. To improve on students' acquisition of skills, the study recommends that time for Work-Integrated Learning should be lengthened so that students leave the industry well equipped with relevant skills and knowledge.

Key words

Delivery, Clothing and Textiles, Technical Vocational Education, Curriculum, World of work

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank God for the strength and good health that He provided me during this academic journey. I thank you Lord for fighting for me in all the hard times I went through whilst I pursued my PhD at Forte Hare. Thank you Lord for being faithful and taking me this far, you did not leave me halfway. “For I am confident of this very thing, that He who began a good work in me will perfect it until the day of Christ Jesus” (Philippians 1verse 6).

I would like to thank my academic supervisor, Professor Ntombozuko Duku for her guidance from coming up with a proper research topic, to the proposal stage up to the final thesis. Her encouraging comments at every stage of the way motivated me to work harder. Thank you Prof for your unwavering support throughout my thesis journey without which this work would not have been a success.

I also want to express my sincere gratitude to Professor S. Rembe for your motherly love and support from the time I enrolled at Forte until the time I finished. You were always there to advise me and to encourage me when the going was tough. You gave me hope when the situation seemed hopeless. Thank you Prof for being there for me in this academic walk. You have made me realise that it takes a caring, loving and sensitive heart to deal with students. I will always cherish this and by God’s grace I will also follow your footsteps as I enter into the world of academics. May our dear Lord richly bless you Prof.

Special mention goes to my father and mother, Mr and Mrs Masumba, my siblings, Slannagan and Phillandra for your support and encouragement. To My beloved colleagues in the journey: Uloma Obi, Magdalene Tangwe, Toyin Adewumi and Bernadict Ajibade, Lwazi, Emely Muguwe, Shelly Besman, Brenda, Berlita Chitsamatanga, Aarnold Mwanza and Henry Chinhara and Patricia Muhuro, your moral, social and spiritual support kept me focused as I pursued my dream. Many thanks to Professor Maphosa for the academic support you gave me.

I am also grateful to my Pastors: Joyce and Charles Mutukudzi and all the Westgate Assemblies of God members. I could not have made it to this end without your prayers, guidance and encouragement.

Chenai Chiweshe you are a friend indeed. You were there for my boys whilst I was away. Your motherly heart towards them is greatly appreciated.

I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my darling husband, Doctor Denias Muzenda for inspiring me to pursue my PhD studies. You walked with me all the way from the beginning of this journey up to the end. Thank you for your love, morale spiritual and financial support and for taking good care of our three boys Denie jr, Denver and Denley. You understood me every step of the way, I would not have gone this far without your love, support and understanding. It took great love and a caring heart for you to be alone in Zimbabwe with boys whilst I pursued my dream. I thank God for you my darling husband. May our dear Lord richly bless you.

To our three boys Denie jr, Denver and Denley, I thank you for being behind the scenes but every thought of you made me work even harder. I would like to give special gratitude to Denley, affectionately known as professor. You were conceived the time I was to begin this academic walk, but you were so strong that I never gave up until you were born. You endured all the extreme weather patterns in Alice from the extreme cold to the extreme heat. You endured it all my son, on my back or on my lap as I worked towards reaching this far. You are a hero my son. May God bless you so that one day you attain that professorship since you rubbed shoulders with professors and Doctors at a tender age. To all of you my boys, I pray that my academic achievement will act as your guide in motivating you to reach even greater heights in academic excellence. I have set the pace for you my boys and the ball is now in your courts.

I am also grateful to Govan Mbeki Research Development Center for the scholarship assistance which made it possible for me to complete my studies.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my darling husband Doctor Denias Muzenda, my three sons Denias Jr, Denver and Denley and to my parents Angella Masumba and Ferris Masumba whose encouragement and support I will always cherish. The days, months, and years you persevered without your beloved wife, mother and daughter respectively have enabled me to climb yet another ladder in the education arena. May God bless you abundantly!

ACRONYMS

“A” LEVEL	Advanced Level
BA	Bachelor of Arts
BeD	Bachelor of Education
CE	Certificate in Education
CT	Clothing and Textiles
DAG	Document Analysis Guide
DipED	Diploma in Education
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FG	Focus Group
FGA1	Focus Group university A group 1
FGA2	Focus Group university A group 2
FGB1	Focus Group university B group 1
FGB2	Focus Group university B group 2
HCT	Human Capital Theory
HOD	Head of Department
HOD-A	Head of Department university A
HOD-B	Head of Department university B
IHL	Institution of Higher Learning
IP1	Industrial Personnel 1
IP2	Industrial Personnel 2
MOEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
MOESAC	Ministry of Education, Sport, Art and Culture

MOHTEST	Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology
“O” LEVEL	Ordinary Level
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
SPSS	Statistical Packages for Social Sciences
TVE	Technical Vocational Education
UAL	University A Lecturer
UBL	University B Lecturer
WIL	Work-Integrated Learning
ZIMCHE	Zimbabwe Council of Higher Education
ZJC	Zimbabwe Junior Certificate

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CHAPTER ONE

1 CONCEPTUALISATION OF THE PROBLEM

1.1 Introduction

Chapter one serves as an introduction to the entire study. The chapter contextualises the study which examined the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities in Zimbabwe. The background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, purpose of the study, research objectives, significance of the study, delimitations of the study definition of terms and chapter outlines are presented in this chapter. First to be presented is the background of the study.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Technical and Vocational Education (TVE) is used as a comprehensive term referring to those aspects of the educational process involving, in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences (UNESCO, 2001). It entails the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge relating to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life (UNESCO, 2001). Similarly Clarke and Winch (2007) posit that TVE is important as it enriches a person for life and it provides the competences which are necessary in a democratic society. This implies that TVE should equip university students with knowledge and qualifications suitable for the world of work. One component of TVE this study will focus on is Clothing and Textiles (CT). In CT curriculum, students are supposed to be equipped with knowledge, hands-on skills on pattern making, garment

construction, as well as care which will enable them to fit into the world of work. Quality is the benchmark in all these processes.

1.3 The Mandate of Technical Vocational Education (TVE)

Technical Vocational Education systems are well placed to train skilled and entrepreneurial workforce that is needed to create wealth and enable societies to emerge out of poverty (Hawke, 2000). They serve numerous purposes ranging from skills training aimed at providing individuals with occupational skills in specific jobs. According to Crouch, Finegold and Sako (1999) and Oketch (2007) at its heart TVE is supposed to prepare students for the world of work. This can be manifested in different ways such as in programmes for youth yet to enter the labour market, aimed at both formal and informal sector employment and self-employment. It can also be manifested in courses targeted at employed workers seeking new or improved skills in response to technological changes; or in retraining programmes for those who have become unemployed (Crouch, Finegold, & Sako (1999; Oketch, 2007). All such programmes require that relevant skills and knowledge be developed for the current and likely future, shape of the economy. This is an area in which TVE systems internationally have come under severe criticism, it is important therefore to consider the extent to which countries have strong national information systems and effective national fora through which economic and TVE strategies can be aligned.

Current issues and trends in TVE reveal that it can be delivered at different levels of sophistication (Afeti, 2009). TVE can respond not only to the needs of different types of industries, but also to different training needs of students from different socio-economic and academic backgrounds as well as preparing them for gainful employment and sustainable livelihoods (Afeti, 2009; Hawke, 2000). A skilled workforce is a basic requirement for driving the engine of industrial and economic growth in any given country (Kefela, 2010). Thus TVE is believed to hold the key to building this type of technical and entrepreneurial workforce.

Crouch, Finegold, and Sako (1999) posit that TVE systems tend to try to address two main challenges. First, they focus on addressing the problem of youth

unemployment. The origins of this concern lie in the period of post-independence educational expansion in many African countries, which increasingly outstripped the expansion of the formal labour market. Second TVE systems seek to provide skills development geared to current and projected economic opportunities and challenges. There has been a huge growth in attention to this issue in developed countries as well as in Africa in the last quarter of the century as the policy community has become increasingly concerned about the implications for education and training of the perceived transition towards a global knowledge economy (Crouch, Finegold, & Sako, 1999; Oketch, 2007). Inevitably, there is a challenge for national systems in managing the potential tensions between these two objectives and in developing coherent strategies for addressing them.

1.4 Technical Vocational Education Globally

Internationally TVE has been identified as an important tool in addressing youth unemployment, poverty and promoting international competitiveness (Browne, 2012). Production of quality goods is vital for an economy to compete and grow, particularly in an era of economic integration and technological change (Schmidt, 1999). Germany is considered as possessing the strongest education and science systems worldwide (Powell & Solga, 2008). Vocational education and training in Germany has a long tradition which is well-known and respected throughout the world (Greinert, 2008; Ertl, 2000; Heinz, 2000 & Brandt, 1998). Successful countries such as Germany achieve a high degree of collaboration between government and industry at the planning stage of their TVE systems. The German Dual vocational schooling system is driven by industry and the needs of the economy. Content and training methods are largely jointly determined by the industry and training institutions to reflect current vocational practice.

Furthermore, it ensures a successful mix of both theory and practice. To that end, the curriculum is determined by industrial sectors such as textiles technology, tourism, automobile, banking, insurance, office administration, entrepreneurship, interstate transportation, health, government, environmental, restaurant, agriculture, and others (Becker, 2012; Dolgow, 2012; Blossfeld & Stockmann, 1999). The

support Germany gets from the formal and informal sectors is one of the reasons why TVE has been successful (Becker, 2012; Dolgow, 2012). The overall German system of vocational schooling is regulated at a federal level by the *Berufsbildungsgesetz* (Vocational Training Act of 1969) (Powell & Solga, 2008). This Act governs the state's recognition and certification as well as stipulation for the rights and regulations of vocational trainees. In particular, it includes the duration of training, profiles of training, minimum entry requirements, compensation, and overall training plan with syllabus, time frame, and the examination requirements. Usually, trainees spend three to four days at work and one to two days in the lecture room. According to Chapelle (2010), TVE thus ensures there is a job ready for every young person enrolled in vocational institution, because no one is admitted unless an employer has already offered a training contract. In other words, it implies that where there is no job offer, there is no admission.

1.5 Technical Vocational Education Regionally

The need for momentum to reform TVE has increased dramatically, particularly in Africa, partly because of the advent of the structural adjustment programmes and the decline of donor support for TVE (Altinyelken, 2004). There has been growing attention to the importance of making curricula more responsive to the needs of industry and more focused on promoting the employability of graduates across all countries. Botswana and South Africa are widely seen as Africa's economic success stories in TVE (African Development Bank, 1998). In these countries, the social need ensures that skills go beyond the direct and real requirements of labour so that there is a skilled pool from which to draw for future needs (Republic of Botswana, 1997). Training standards are expressed in terms of a nationally agreed framework and internationally accepted learning outcomes and competencies (Republic of Botswana, 1997). South Africa has achieved much in the way of transforming TVE. Durban University of Technology is one good example of South Africa's success stories in TVE. The TVE department maintains strong links with industry throughout KwaZulu Natal to ensure that the content of all programmes is relevant to the real working world (Durban University of Technology, 2013)

One of the greatest challenges for TVE is a continuation of TVE's low status in the eyes of many students, parents, employers and policy-makers (McGrath, 2005). This problem is identified clearly in Botswana and South Africa. In these countries, certain types of education have come to be associated with accelerated upward mobility (Needham, Cloete, Net, Papier, Shepard & Stumpf, 2009). It is believed that traditionally, companies or employers invest more on sedentary workers than those who do skill-oriented work. These sedentary workers are highly regarded than the skill-oriented workers. This problem has its roots in the colonial system where academic education was the route to modernity, social status and relative prosperity (McGrath, 2005).

It is important for future development to change these attitudes. The most powerful potential contributors to a change in TVE's status would be an improvement in TVE skills training and the placement of its students in decent and well-remunerated jobs (Siphambe, 2000). It is argued that the system is unified in terms of purpose but needs to develop clearly defined programmes, which need to be systemically implemented. It identifies some barriers in establishing the coherence between policy, TVE curriculum and practice (UNDP, 2003). In other words, theory in policy should be linked to practice. The Republic of Botswana Report (1997) also found that all stakeholders, employers, the community and trainers, agreed that TVE training should be for both social purposes and labour market demands. In the same report, it was suggested that, training standards should be expressed in terms of a nationally agreed framework and internationally accepted learning outcomes and competencies (Guthrie, 2009; Oketch, 2007; Republic of Botswana, 1997).

The integration of different training delivery systems into a unified system to deal with the issue of uneven quality was stressed as an important ideal. However, as both governments have acknowledged, the pace of change is scarcely fast enough to keep up with accelerating social and economic challenges (Guthrie, 2009; Republic of South Africa, 2003; Republic of Botswana, 1997). In South Africa and Botswana, in seeking to meet both social and economic aspirations, the governments have increasingly identified skills development as a crucial issue in TVE. For instance, in former President Mbeki's statements on a national development vision, he reiterated that skills are seen as both a constraint on socio-

economic delivery and as a means of simultaneously addressing the need for international competitiveness and the uplifting of people in poverty as well as those who lack decent jobs (Mbeki, 2004a & b). To pursue TVE related issues further, skills development thus becomes a bridge for crossing the gulf between market and economic environment in which these TVE reforms have taken place. However, this has not been achieved since there has been a mismatch between the type of students universities are producing and the expectations of the employer (industries) in terms of skills acquisition.

1.6 Technical and Vocational Education trends in Zimbabwe

Soon after independence, most governments of developing countries reformed their educational systems to align them with new national goals. Zimbabwe is one such country that embarked on massive reforms of its education system after its independence in 1980. Among these were the abolition of the two-rationally separated system of education and an emphasis on TVE (Gumbo, 2006). The years between 1980 and 1985 saw, the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) introducing vocational education in schools and in universities after the failure of Education with Production (EWP). This was introduced by the Education Act of 1991 which made a commitment to move from quantitative expansion to quality and relevance in education through vocationalisation of schools and universities (Raftopoulos, 2003). In Zimbabwe, TVE has become a vital mode of education from primary level as well as in Institutions of Higher Learning. The intention was to come up with an education system that mitigates poverty through enhancement of employment creation. A well designed TVE will indeed be education for employment (Ministry Of Education, Sport, Art and Culture, 2008) (MOESAC). Zimbabwe's aim of implementing TVE in its universities after independence was also based on the premise that students after graduation could contribute immensely towards the economic growth of the country through attained technical skills (Zengeya, 2012). The rapidly changing socio-economic environment globally brings into focus the need to reform education to prepare students for the challenges of changing times and uncertain future through provision of diverse skills.

By the year 1990, Zimbabwe was experiencing strong socio-economic development challenges needing the critical attention of its policy makers (Zengeya, 2012). For example, the country's 1992 population census revealed that unemployed citizens constituted twenty-two percent of the population (Central Statistical Office-Zimbabwe, 2011). Fifty-three percent of them were holders of certificates, diplomas or degrees from tertiary institutions like universities, suggesting a mismatch between TVE policy on growth and development and socio-economic development (Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Science and Technology (MOHTEST, 2012).

According to MOHTEST, (2012) in Forms 3 and 4 ('O' Level), students were expected to be offered Technical and Vocational subjects in addition to the academic subjects. This gave rise to a high output of students in secondary schools which gave pressure on the Ministry to come up with a way these students would be absorbed in Institutions of Higher Learning (IHL). The impact of the policy of increasing access to TVE in schools was felt at the only public university in Zimbabwe which was offering teacher training. This created pressure on this institution since there was need for all the students who had attained "A" Level certificates to be enrolled in the institution so as to study TVE at degree level. In 1998, the situation grew even worse (Zengeya, 2012). It was as a result of this outcry that MOHTEST in Zimbabwe has recommended the introduction of TVE in universities after the recommendations of the 1999 Presidential Commission of Enquiry into Education and Training (Nziramasinga, 1999).

The commission recommended an outcomes-based curriculum which is broad-based in terms of subjects offered and which focuses on learning areas, employment related skills and other essential skills to be developed across the TVE curriculum (World Data on Education, 2010/11). This was aimed at addressing the shortage of skilled artisans the industry was in need of. The rapid expansion of technical education in Zimbabwe, which began in 1999, was in response to the very high demand for skilled artisans, as a result of industrial expansion which was at its peak since independence in 1980 (Kariwo, 2007).

In Zimbabwe, universities are mandated to train students in technical and vocational trades. They offer qualifications ranging from the Diplomas to degrees (World Data on Education, 2010/2011). According to the MOESAC, (2008) technical vocational

subjects include: Agriculture, Horticulture, Woodwork, Building, Metal Work, Welding Technology, Clothing and Textiles Technology, Technical Graphics, Performing Arts, Hotel Catering and Tourism, and Computer Studies. For one to advance to this level, he or she should have passed five 'O' level subjects with a grade 'C' or better including English for him or her to proceed to 'A' Level and to be admitted to any University. However, it has to be noted that for one to be enrolled at any university, one should have done at least one technical subject at "A Level" (Art and Design, Agriculture, Clothing and Textiles, Food Science, Textile Clothing and Design and Geometric and Mechanical Drawing) and must have a background of Maths, Chemistry or Physics at "O" Level. The other requirement for a student to qualify for entry at university is that the student has passed two subjects at "A" Level (MOESAC, 2007 & MOHTEST, 2011). At the university, one may either do Engineering, Architecture, Food Science and Textile Clothing or Design (MOESAC, 2007).

The universities receive two different groups of students. The first group are those students who have completed and passed their "A" Levels and are enrolled through direct entry. These are not attached to any organisation and the only time they get industrial exposure is when they are sent on Work Integrated Learning (WIL) by the universities (World Data on Education- Zimbabwe, 7th Ed, and November, 2011, Kurasha, 2010; Makochekanwa & Kwaramba, 2011). The second group are those who come from different organisations who are in need of manpower development. They have acquired skilled already from their previous training, but need to keep abreast with the changing technology. Universities offer both full time and part time Diploma and Degree programmes. Full time undergraduate (Bachelor's) degree programmes last 3 to 4 years depending with the programme. Part time can be 4 to 5 years.

The unavailability of seasoned and highly qualified lecturers is a major cause for concern in universities. Concerns have been raised that there are constant shortages of qualified staff in IHL (Maunze, 2007; Mumbengegwi, 2008). Renowned academics have bemoaned on the skills the lecturers possess in order for them to deliver the CT curriculum in the universities (Anonymous, 2003; Gwaradzimba & Shumba, 2010; Mushonga, 2005). Due to the economic meltdown in Zimbabwe,

there is an exodus of qualified personnel from IHL to the neighbouring countries like South Africa, and to the United Kingdom and the United States of America (Anonymous, 2003; Gwaradzimba & Shumba, 2010; Mushonga, 2005). This left IHL having to recruit lecturers from teachers' colleges and these lacked the necessary qualifications for them to be university lecturers (Anonymous, 2007). The last decade has witnessed IHL in Zimbabwe losing large numbers of key professionals because of a brain drain (Anonymous, 2003; Gwaradzimba & Shumba, 2010; Mushonga, 2005). This massive exodus of qualified personnel in IHL has not only affected the quality of education but also the quality of graduates produced mainly because most institutions are without qualified personnel. Many highly qualified and experienced lectures left the country due to low salaries and poor working conditions (The Financial Gazette 1 August, 2012).

Brain drain was also observed in some African universities (SARUA Handbook, 2009). Key to the success of a vocational programme is lecturers' competence and attitude. In South Africa and Botswana, effective vocationally-oriented and vocational education relies on high quality educators. In as far as South Africa is concerned, part of its success in technical education lies in the calibre of its lecturing staff and its ability to remain in the forefront of developments in Management Education (Durban University Of Technology, 2013 <http://www.dut.ac.za>). Lecturers are selected for their teaching prowess and proven ability in industry. They are encouraged to undertake research which often results in higher degrees and publications (Durban University of Technology, 2013 <http://www.dut.ac.za>). This system also ensures that such lecturers have adequate knowledge and orientation of the workplace and its demands (Needham, et al, 2009). Hence, this study sought to look at the delivery of CT curriculum in Zimbabwean universities.

While concerns have been raised about the lecturing fraternity, renowned writers have also raised concerns regarding some issues which might affect students' learning including the teaching methods used and the irrelevant curriculum (Makochekanwa & Kwaramba, 2010; Gumbo, 2006; Kanyongo, 2005; Zvobgo, 1997). Furthermore the curriculum which is used in universities is out-dated (Ibid). As a result it does not have any relevance to the needs of the industry in this era of globalisation.

Lecturers have also raised concerns informally regarding some issues which might affect the delivery of CT curriculum at university level such as lack of knowledge, lack of enough time for industrial attachment, and inadequate training (National Report on the Development of Education, 2009). Makochekanwa and Kwaramba (2010) lament that the training the TVE students are receiving is not equipping them enough to face the world of work ahead of them. Kariwo (2007) comments that universities have been seen to be the only institutions with the ability to produce highly-skilled people, as well as to come up with new knowledge. With the needed resources and support, students in universities are more likely to receive a first rate education. Consequently, it will not only be students that will benefit in terms of their own personal growth and development but they will also be able to contribute to the country's economic and social prosperity. However, there has been an outcry from the industry that the students from universities do not meet their standards. TVE has also been criticised on the grounds that the training which is provided did not match jobs available (Makochekanwa & Kwaramba, 2011; Gumbo, 2006; Kanyongo, 2005). Atchoarena and Esquieu (2002) in agreement comment that many countries' public TVE institutions were not able to adapt to the new structure of the labour market and the new skill requirements of companies in the formal and informal sectors. The practical nature of TVE calls not only for ensuring standard practices and procedures at the workshop, laboratory but also industrial apprenticeship. Students are exposed to the real Work Integrated Learning to augment the theoretical understanding of what is learnt in the lecture hall (Kurasha, 2010).

The dwindling numbers of students taking TVE as a course at university level in Zimbabwe is an issue of concern (Makochekanwa & Kwaramba, 2011). In one of his key note addresses in October, 2011, the then Minister of Education Sport Art Culture (MOESAC), David Coltart, noted with great concern the dwindling number of students taking up TVE at university level as compared with other departments (MOHTEST, 2011). In line with this, renowned academics have also raised concerns regarding the way lecturers and students look down upon TVE (Makochekanwa & Kwaramba, 2011; Gumbo, 2006; Kanyongo, 2005; Zvobgo, 1997). The attitude and motivation of vocational lecturers have a significant role in improving the image of TVE in universities, performance of vocational graduates as well as their willingness

to take up TVE at this high level. Lecturers frequently lavish praise on those who do well in their academic courses (Al-Ali, 2005). As a result, many students in vocational universities would prefer to be elsewhere, recognising the lower status of the occupations for which they are preparing (Al-Oteawi, 2010). This may result in lower motivation, less learning and lower probabilities that students will enter the occupations for which they have been trained. Consequently, TVE suffers from a competition in status with general academic education, emerging as “second choice” education (Kanyongo, 2005). There is general consensus that those who have taken courses of study generally called “academic” reap substantial financial returns from their education than those students with a vocational education background. This problem is underlined by the approach taken by the international development community, which has prioritised general education and promoted an agenda of privatisation for TVE (Oketch, 2007).

TVE lecturers appear as an anomalous group, with an ambivalent status and an unclear identity yet the technical and vocational lecturer occupies a most important place in modern society. They are the link between industrial society, the “real” world and the educational system (Oketch, 2007). The lecturers are often not respected or given recognition, since the academic lecturers (and even the educational authorities) believe the former do not possess adequate “formal” qualifications or a “proper” academic background (Kanyongo, 2005). This attitude further impresses on the students that academic courses are more “important” or “worthy” compared with vocational courses in terms of job aspirations. Gumbo (2006) asserts that despite all types of attempts to change students’ attitudes that TVE would enable them equally to achieve their goals and improving their position in the same way as academic subjects, it has remained a dream for institutions to deliver massive changes in attitude and aspiration in the absence of any parallel initiatives in the larger economic environment (Kanyongo, 2005).

The perceptions of both vocational lecturers and non-vocational students impact negatively on the attitude of vocational students. This, however, perpetuates the low status students place on TVE. Students perceive TVE as a course for low achievers and as a result, students shun TVE in universities (Mumbengegwi, 2008). As Mungazi (1985) suggests, there is need for the Zimbabwean government to

demonstrate a more aggressive approach to educational innovation and move affirmatively to prepare its students for social change. Societal attitudes born of many years of colonial education tend to associate education that involves practical skills with academic inadequacy, poor rewards, and low social status (Bowles, 2014). These attitudes are also reflected in the labour market, where employers do not value the practical skills attained by graduates of the vocationalised curriculum.

Concerns have been raised on lecturer support systems being employed by university authorities as well as higher and tertiary education officials (Campbell, Mandondo, Nemarundwe, Sithole, De JonG, Luckert & Matose, 2001). IHL have been given the mandate to monitor quality in their own institutions.

According to Kariwo (2007) this arrangement has been welcomed by some universities and it has produced positive result. However, the situation has not been the same in some universities. The same author further comments that there was need for review for some universities have produced poor results in as far as the monitoring of quality is concerned. According to Kariwo (2007) the situation the world over revealed that universities could not engage in quality control without the involvement of a coordinating body. As a result, in Zimbabwe, the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education, (ZIMCHE) was established in 1990 after the parliament of Zimbabwe had realised that the situation in universities was unbearable. ZIMCHE is mandated to monitor quality of work in universities (Kariwo, 2007). However, the council has not achieved its intended goals for it has managed to look at areas pertaining to the establishment of new universities. Kariwo (2007) maintains that little has been done in as far as selection of students into universities, lecturer competency, in terms of quality of their teaching and research as well as issues to do with the setting of general standards. Furthermore, ZIMCHE has not being given enough capacity to act liberally since the council has to report to the ministry.

Hence the study sought to explore how the Clothing and Textiles curriculum is being delivered with the aim of coming up with an appropriate model for CT delivery in universities.

1.7 Statement of the Research Problem

The democratic Government of Zimbabwe has taken measures since 1980 to transform the education system. In the recent past, Zimbabwe's university system used to be highly regarded in the whole of Africa, but it has been crippled by the harsh economic conditions prevailing in the country (ASI, 2007; Kariwo, 2007). This has not spared the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities. Concerns have been raised that there are constant shortages of qualified staff in Institutions of Higher Learning (IHL) (Maunze, 2007; Mumbengegwi 2008). The unavailability of seasoned and highly qualified lecturers is a major cause for concern in universities. Lecturers have also raised concerns informally regarding some issues which might affect the delivery of CT at university level such as lack of knowledge, lack of enough time for industrial attachment, and inadequate training (National Report on the Development of Education, 2009).

Concerns have been raised on the type of training lecturers have received from the colleges and universities (Burroughs 2000; Chuang, Goh, Stout and Dellmann-Jenkins, 2007; Pursell and Quinn 2005). The skills the lecturers possess in order to deliver the CT curriculum in the universities has been a highly contested issue (Anonymous, 2003; Gwaradzimba & Shumba, 2010; Mushonga, 2005). There are also concerns regarding some issues which might affect students' learning including the teaching methods used and the irrelevant curriculum (Makochekanwa & Kwaramba, 2010; Gumbo, 2006; Kanyongo, 2005; Zvobgo, 1997). However, there has been an outcry from the industry that the students from universities do not meet their standards (Burroughs 2000). Makochekanwa and Kwaramba (2010) lament that the training the TVE students are receiving is not equipping them enough to face the world of work ahead of them. The criteria used in admitting students into TVE have been another bone of contention in universities. The dwindling of numbers of students taking TVE as a course at university level as compared to other faculties is an issue of concern (Teferra & Altbaltch, 2004; Sawyerr, 2004).

It is against this background that this study seeks to look at the delivery of the CT curriculum in Zimbabwean universities. This concern has given rise to following research questions:

1.8 Research Questions

The study sought to answer the following main and sub-research questions;

1.8.1 Main research question:

How is the Clothing and Textiles Curriculum delivered in Zimbabwean universities?

1.8.2 Sub-research questions

1. How do students' and lecturers' perceptions on TVE impact on the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum?
2. What skills do lecturers possess for quality delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum?
3. What is the relationship between the Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the world of work?
4. What support systems are in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum?
5. How can an integrated approach to Vertical and Horizontal discourses be achieved in Clothing and Textiles in universities?

1.9 Purpose of the study

The study sought to establish how students' and lecturers' perceptions, skills lecturers possess, the relationship between the Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the world of work and lecturer support systems impact on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities.

1.10 Research objectives

The study seeks to examine:

1. How students' and lecturers' perceptions on TVE impact on the delivery of Clothing and Textiles.
2. Skills lecturers possess for quality delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum.
3. The relationship between the Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the world of work.
4. Support systems in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum.

1.11 Significance of the study

Issues of quality in TVE have in recent years become a major global concern; hence this study was of great importance in that its findings contributed to the existing world of debate on addressing quality in the delivery of the CT curriculum in Zimbabwean universities. According Van Rensburg (2002) studies have also shown that the introduction of TVE has not achieved the intended purpose. Some studies have been done but hardly any study has systematically investigated issues of the delivery of CT to enhance quality in the TVE within universities in Zimbabwe. Hence this study attempted to fill these gaps and explored what was really happening in the lecture rooms in terms of the delivery of CT curriculum in universities. This study intended to find ways of cementing the relationship between universities and industries by ensuring that university graduates possess the basic relevant skills, knowledge and attitudes required by industries when taking up employment. Given the fact that there are green areas, this study helped in finding an appropriate model for the delivery of CT curriculum in universities.

1.12 Delimitation of the Study

The study focused on the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities in Zimbabwe. Institutions of Higher Learning (IHL) in Zimbabwe include universities, teachers' colleges and technical colleges but his study only focused on universities. Zimbabwe has a total of twelve universities, 8 of which are state universities and 4 private universities but in this study, the researcher focused on two state universities out of the four universities that offer CT at degree level. The participants were 30 lecturers, 2 Heads of Departments (HODs), 24 students and 2 officials from two Clothing manufacturing industries.

1.13 Definition of terms

1.13.1 Technical Vocational education

Atchoarena and Delluc (2001) define TVE as education which mainly leads participants to acquire the practical skills, know-how and understanding necessary for employment purposes. In this study, Technical Vocational education is used to refer to education given to students at university level which equips them with hands-on skills. It involves technical and practical subjects.

1.13.2 Delivery

Delivery is carrying out what has been planned, or putting the action plan into effect. It involves activating the policy, program, or project and adapting and adjusting the plan to assure compliance and performance. Delivery in this study means activities conducted by lecturers and students to achieve set objectives in the delivery of the CT curriculum.

1.13.3 Skills

Higgins (1991) define a skill as an individual's ability to consistently achieve a goal under a wide variety of conditions. The goals are considered motor problems. In this

study, a skill is a person's ability to acquire technical knowledge which will enable him or her to perform a practical task efficiently.

1.13.4 Clothing Textiles

Clothing and Textiles is a subject that allows students to understand the knowledge and skills needed in pattern making, garment construction, clothing care, and the clothing or fashion and textile industry. It enables students to evaluate fiber and textile products and materials, demonstrate fashion, apparel and textile design skills and to evaluate elements of textile, apparel and fashion merchandising.

1.14 Chapter Outline

The study consists of six chapters as follows:

Chapter One: Background of the study.

This chapter discussed the background of the study where concerns and issues on the delivery of the CT curriculum in Zimbabwean universities were raised. This section further discussed the statement of the research problem, the purpose of the study and significance of the study. It also presented the research questions as well as objectives of the study. The rationale for the study, assumptions, delimitation for the study and definition of concepts were also outlined in this chapter.

Chapter Two: Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

This chapter was divided into two sections. The first section discussed theoretical framework which informed the study. This study was informed by the Bernsteinian framework of Vertical and Horizontal discourse. The second section outlined the literature relevant to the study. It reviewed what other scholars have written regarding the subject of the study namely: The perceptions of lecturers and students towards TVE, Lecturer competency, the relationship between the CT curriculum and

the world of work and support (including training) and monitoring systems are in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Chapter Three presented and justified the research methodology and design used in the study. The research paradigm, approach and design were explained as applied in the study. Furthermore the population, sampling procedures, research instruments used to collect data and the entire process of data collection; ethical considerations as well as measures to ensure trustworthiness and ethics were discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 4: Data presentation; interpretation and analysis

Chapter Four focused on data presentation analysis and interpretation. In this chapter, the researcher presented and analysed all the data collected through interviews, focus group discussions, questionnaires and document analysis as well as observations. Data was presented using frequency tables, graphs and pie charts.

Chapter 5: Discussion of findings

This is the discussion chapter where the findings were evaluated in light of related literature in order to establish the linkages with the lessons learnt from what has been experienced. The comparison of findings with related literature gave insights that fully explained the situation of what happens in the university learning situation. The discussion of the findings was based on the comparison of the findings with data found in the literature reviewed on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities.

Chapter 6: Summary, conclusions, and recommendations

Chapter Six gave the summary of the findings in relation to the problem, as unearthed by the methods used to abstract the findings from the data and in relation to the themes abstracted from the sub-questions raised. The methods used to reach

the findings and how they relate to the research questions are also part of this chapter. The conclusions and recommendations reached and their implications to ZIMCHE and other policy makers and areas for further research were also included in the chapter.

1.15 Summary

This chapter gave an overview of this study. It highlighted the background and contextualised the problem that led to the pursuit of the study. It gave the socio-economic, socio-political and educational backgrounds of Zimbabwe where the study is located. In addition the chapter underscored the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research questions; objectives; aims guiding the study; the assumptions; significance of the study and the delimitations of the study. In addition, key terms as used in the study were defined. The next chapter discussed theoretical frameworks which informed the study.

CHAPTER TWO

2 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section focused on the theoretical framework that guided the study. The second section looked at the review of the related literature on major issues on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles (CT) curriculum in Zimbabwean universities. This study was guided by the Bernstein framework of Vertical and Horizontal discourses. The literature review will focus on students' and lecturers' perceptions on TVE, the impact of students' perceptions on the delivery of TVE, skills lecturers possess for quality delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum, the relationship between the Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the world of work, support systems in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

2.2.1 Bernstein Framework of Vertical and Horizontal Discourses

Basil Bernstein, a Sociologist by (1990; 96; 99; 2000) wrote widely on pedagogy and its social context and his ideas analytical and analysis of pedagogy and social setting gained recognition among Educationists/ Educational theorists. Bernstein's work was mainly focused on academic and general education. Emphasis was at the secondary level. His work includes a number of interesting assumptions or speculations discussions on Technical and Vocational Education. The argument behind Bernstein (1999) framework was that an independent access to both common knowledge and theoretical knowledge is the basis upon which the society's dialogue is premised. Bernstein views knowledge as the only way a society gets to express its morals and

customs. However, it is important to note that although Bernstein's framework was not vocational-oriented, it is key to this study because the Bernsteinian concepts of framing, classification and recontextualisation inform the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities and the work-integrated learning in industries. Bernstein (1996:103-104) noted that:

The codes of practice have been discussed in terms of family and school, but the conceptual language is not limited to these agencies. It can be applied to any pedagogic relation, or more generally to any transmission relation of control, eg between doctor and patient, social worker and client, psychiatrist and patient, prison staff and prisoners, and to industrial relations.

In this case it will be used to inform the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities. In this chapter, the researcher explores three concepts that form the Bernsteinian framework, that is, framing, classification and recontextualisation and how they relate to the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum. The following paragraphs will discuss the Bernstein framework of vertical and horizontal discourse and how it relates to the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities.

Vertical and horizontal discourses are also found in Early Childhood Education particularly when it comes to transition from pre-school to primary school. Kagan and Neuman (1998) state that vertical transitions deal with movements and changes that take place in educational situations in a child's life, for instance, when children graduate from nursery school to primary school. Transition entails change of identity and status. Children experience a change of identity when they move from nursery school to the junior school. This entails that children are faced with the challenge to comprehend the school rules, language and the teacher. This larger environment makes it difficult for children to find their way (Brostrom, 2001; 2008). This can be likened to a university student when he or she goes on WIL, changing from being a student to a worker. The student has the challenge to cope with the new rules in the industry and to settle down.

In this study, Bernstein's framework was used to generate concepts necessary for understanding the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities.

Bernstein (1996:46) distinguishes the two discourses that make up the pedagogic discourse as the Horizontal and Vertical discourses. These are discussed in the paragraphs that follow. They are discussed separately in this chapter, but it does not mean that they should be treated as two separate entities.

2.2.1.1 Vertical discourse

Bernstein (1996) describes the vertical discourse as a debate of various skills and how they relate to each other. Vertical discourse creates specialised skills and it can be referred to as an instructional discourse. There is need for students to master disciplinary system of meaning as a prerequisite for the use of knowledge in context-specified applications. Bernstein (1999) argues that knowledge that is obtained in educational institutions is arranged following corrective contexts. Boundaries between theoretical knowledge and academic disciplines are plainly stated since each academic discipline has specifications in language usage.

2.2.1.2 Horizontal discourse

Bernstein (1999:159) states that:

A horizontal discourse entails a set of strategies which are local, segmentally organised context specific and dependent, for maximising encounters with persons and habitats.

It is discourse of social order and it defines social conduct. Horizontal discourse can also be referred to as everyday or common sense knowledge. This is a discourse that embeds the instructional discourse. It can also be referred to as the regulative discourse. Gamble (2006) posits that everyday knowledge is particularised knowledge since its applicability rests on the degree to which it is appropriate in a defined context. Bernstein (2000 157): views horizontal discourse as “the tacit, content-dependent knowledge of the workplace. Everyday knowledge is likely to be oral and local.”

Bernstein (1999: 159) argues that “in the case of vertical discourse, there are strong distributive rules regulating access, regulating transmission and regulating evaluation.” These rules are the ones that are used in universities regarding

selection of students into the vocational programmes. Distributive rules entail the selection criteria to be used for both students and lecturer and this varies from institution to institution. It would be interesting to know;

- i) Who regulates the transmission of knowledge?
- ii) Who transmits the knowledge?
- iii) Who is the recipient of the knowledge?
- iv) Who evaluates the transmission of knowledge?

According to Bernstein (2000), everyday knowledge is different from theoretical knowledge in the sense that each body of knowledge is rooted in dissimilar system of meaning.

Bernstein (1999:158) remarks that “*In the educational field, one form is sometimes referred to as schooled knowledge and the other as everyday common-sense knowledge or official and local knowledge.*” However, for the purpose of this study, it is important to note that the contrasts that arise as a result of this dichotomous relationship between the vertical and the horizontal discourses give rise to diverse assessments from both the universities and the industries. As a result, one form of knowledge with majority, in this case the industries dominate over universities in decision making so as silence and exclude their opinions. This antagonistic relationship proliferates challenges in the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities.

2.2.2 Framing and Classification

According to Bernstein: (1990:100),

Frame refers to the degree of control teachers and students possess over the selection, organisation, pacing and timing of the knowledge transmitted and received in the pedagogical relationship.

In simpler terms framing entails the way a curriculum is delivered. Barnett (2006:144) defines “*framing as among other things to the structuring of programmes of study and to the formatting of courses and learning materials.*” At the heart of Bernstein framework is classification which entails the degree of boundary maintenance

between contents (Bernstein, 1999). Classification entails separation amongst curricular programmes which is the subject and the areas of knowledge.

In Technical and Vocational Education (TVE), vocational pedagogy is accomplished through explicit forms of reconstructualising putting into consideration time, space and actors.” Lucas (2014:2) defines vocational pedagogy as:

The science, art and craft of teaching and learning Technical and Vocational Education. It is a sum total of the many decisions which Technical and Vocational teachers take as they teach, adjusting their approaches to meet the needs of the students and to match the context in which they find themselves.

This acts as a roadmap to be followed in teaching and learning. Vocational pedagogy permits syllabus designers in universities to establish where they stand in terms of the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum. It encompasses the way learning activities are designed to meet needs of different students and the ability of universities to adopt different ways in order to achieve their goals in achieving desirable outcomes to meet the demands of the key players; the universities and the world of work. In the same line of thought, Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991) state that different people within an institution participate in designing a mechanism that best suits their situation which would enable them to deliver. Hargreaves and Hopkins (1991: 8) in Rogan and Grayson, (2003:14) posit that:

Development planning increases the school's control over the content and pace of change. It provides a rationale either for saying 'no' to certain demands, since not everything can be put into a single year's development plan, or for saying 'not yet', since some changes are sensibly placed in the second, third, or even later years of the plan. In other words, a strategic approach to planning is adopted and the school ceases to be a target of demands for instant change.

Wheelahan (2010) defines vocational pedagogy as learning by doing. Watkins and Mortimore (1999) states that vocational pedagogy has to do with how knowledge is generated and how skills are established. Lucas (2012) alludes that vocational pedagogy includes some among other key elements: role of lecturers, the kind of

methods, and how the information is viewed. It recognises major determinants of the students' success such as the background of students, attitudes towards Technical and Vocational Education, responses to change, and the advantages and challenges these may pose in a lecture room. Students' perceptions towards Clothing and Textiles are likely to be major determinants of the students' success in acquiring skills. It is also noted that the student composition of classes can affect the achievement of students (attitude to knowledge). Bernstein (1999) establishes that there are many ways that lecturers can use to bring learning to students through the use of different methodologies (means of knowing; approach to tasks) and the organisation of space which entails how the learning environments are organised and equipped for effective transmission and acquisition of knowledge to take place.

Lucas, (2012) also views vocational pedagogy as a systematic way of planning the lecture room activities in terms of the actual teaching and learning activities (methods) and learning and teaching aids. Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) comment that for all educational programmes to be able to achieve their intended goals, it depends on the how lecturers teach and how much students learn, and where learning activities take place, which are the workshops and laboratories. There is need for Technical and Vocational Education lecturers to identify individual differences and needs among diverse students in terms of skills acquisition in order to attain the desirable vocational result. According to Lucas et al, this entails vocational pedagogy.

Bernstein (2000:13) states that the way an academic programme is structured has a bearing on how the pedagogy is transmitted. Technical Vocational Education programmes follow a distinct timetable. Learning programmes are designed in such a way that some topics form the foundation of the subject curriculum. These topics are taught at the onset of the programme since they would be having a link with topics to be taught later on in the curriculum syllabus.

According to Bernstein (1999:275) states that:

Vertical discourse is hierarchical whereas horizontal discourse is segmentally organised and is realised in face to face encounters where meanings are

likely to be both context specific and dependent. Because a horizontal discourse is segmentally organised, acquisitions are likely to be segmental and context specific and therefore pedagogic relations may vary from one cultural segment (context) to another.

The fact that the Horizontal discourse is segmentally organised resembles the way processes are arranged in the industry in the different sections. Tasks tend to be section-specific from the preparation room up to the dispatch room.

Lucas, Claxton and Webster (2010:3) define Technical and Vocational Education as *“the provision of materials, activities and teaching that is designed to prepare people to function, at a specified level, in specific roles in the context of (usually) paid employment.”* The element, classroom environment, refers to lecturer and student interactions, student motivation, resources, classroom management, safety in the classroom and inclusivity. However, inadequate teaching and learning materials, including the status of the lecture rooms hinder teaching and learning and this can make best lecturers to be incapacitated to teach and as a result students end up not getting the best from them. This is the issue with the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities. It is also important for universities to have adequate specialist rooms and equipment because it is a requirement for effective delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum. The aims of the curriculum in vocational education can be considered as primarily work- centered where the focus is on enabling students to become operational by acquiring relevant skills which will make it possible for them to make a smooth transition from universities into the world of work. Without adequate preparation, students will not be competent enough to face the world of work (Tribe, 2005; Tribe, 2002).

Barnett (2006) comments that Technical and Vocational Education has to relate to practicalities of occupations or groups of occupations. Furthermore, *“this goes beyond the most limited schemes for it has to relate to bodies of knowledge that may well not be occupationally specific”* (Barnett, 2006:1144). Barnett (2006:145) further argues that:

If a vocational education learning programme is to contribute to the possibility of a student progressing to higher education, (as is explicitly required of

Technical Certificates), some degree of non-specificity is desirable and perhaps essential.

Watkins and Mortimore (1999) argue that when Technical Vocational Education systems were institutionalised, deliberations about vocational pedagogy were obtained from principles of general education. Watkins and Mortimore further elucidate that currently vocational pedagogy “*sits in a no man’s land between what is taught in universities and by training providers and what is needed in the workplace. And too often employers complain that the content taught does not connect closely enough with the requirements of a particular occupation.*” In line with this, vocational pedagogy is seen to be occupying the space that lies between students and the workplace. From this observation, it can be concluded that academic subjects do not channel students towards workplace preparedness in a straightforward manner. In the current study, the researcher intended to establish whether there is resemblance between Watkins and Mortimore’s ideas and the findings of this study.

Gamble (2013) states that one can gain meaningful comprehensions into what vocational pedagogy entails by a close analysis of how framing is employed in a vocational learning programme. This can be done through the use of teaching and learning guides, syllabuses, how lectures are paced, support materials for teaching and learning as well as assessment methods. Technical and Vocational programmes are designed in such a way that they are conducted in specialist rooms or laboratories for the transmission of both the everyday or common knowledge and the official knowledge between the “actors” which are lecturers and the students. On this note, two questions can be posed:

- i) Should the framing of vocational courses be largely determined by workplace structures or by knowledge structures?
- ii) Is it unrealistic to want it both ways? (Gamble, 2013; Wheelahan, 2010 & Barnett, 2006)

However, advocates of vocational education observe that it is not right to want it both ways since structures of knowledge can be collapsed into job structures (Young, 2006; Gamble, 2013; Wheelahan, 2010 & Barnett, 2006). In as far as this view is concerned, there is no tension since workplace competency entails having the required knowledge by definition.

Bernstein's framework "has an implication for theorising the link between school knowledge and workplace practice" (Wheelahan, 2010:109). The relationship between theoretical knowledge and workplace practice has a bearing on the Work-Integrated Learning (WIL). According to du Plessis (2010), Work-Integrated Learning entails a complete educational approach known as cooperative education, which encompasses the official incorporation of planned everyday practices into overall syllabus.

Cresbert, Bates, Bell, Patrick and Cragolini (2004) view Work Integrated Learning as a platform university students have to increase their awareness of the world of work and how they fit in it. WIL gives students a chance to add onto the official knowledge they obtain from universities to the common knowledge from the industry. The theory learnt would be augmented by the hands-on experience in industries. When a student undertakes WIL applicable to his or her degree of study, it enables the student to gain work experience through growing in self-assurance, maturity as well as self-management. This experience enables one to identify his or her areas of strength and weakness.

Te Wiata (2001) states that students acquire theoretical knowledge and skills in their academic courses. It is only during WIL when this knowledge can be applied to real work experience and to test how the skills can be used in the workplace. This is highly regarded by the industry since employers put great value to the experiences students get in the world of work since they will be directly with the industry. In concurrence Cresbert et al. (2004) allude that graduate employers are considering students who demonstrate critical employability skills that are problem solving, entrepreneurship, self-management, use of technology, ability to adapt and change, as well as planning and organising. These are attributes necessary for a student to compete in the graduate employment market.

Harvey (2000) and Te Wiata (2001) established that students' ability to integrate basic skills was due to the development of confidence in applying skills in the workplace. Bernstein (2000:13) states that "*the purpose of an academic curriculum is to induct students into a field of knowledge while the purpose of a vocational*

curriculum is to induct students into a field of practice". In line with this, Young (2006a) states that although workplaces need knowledge from schools, they need theoretical information that is embraced by subject or discipline specialists who are not biased towards specific contexts. Bernstein's framework implies that there is need for students to be exposed to work- integrated learning in the industries so as to augment the theory they learn in the lecture rooms. However, even when students are allowed to translate their workplace experiences back into the lecture rooms, this can only be possible when workplace experiences are made part of the universities' objectives and criteria by which students are assessed.

By supporting students' ability to reflect, record and articulate the skills and know-how, universities would be encouraging career development and learning in the workplace. This also provides insights for industry and the professions into the university and its students, thereby enriching processes related to attraction, recruitment, and workplace productivity. Therefore, it is the intention of the current study to explore how the students are benefiting from the work-integrated learning which is part of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities.

Mbango (2009) views work-integrated learning as a practice that entails the application of theory to a work-based scenario. Barnett (2006) comments that:

They need to be able to access theoretical knowledge to do so, and this means that occupational progression is strongly related to educational progression, because education is one of the main ways in which most people are provided with access to theoretical, disciplinary knowledge.

Barnette (2006:145) purports that *"vocational pedagogy, the content and the process of vocational learning and teaching is influenced on the one hand by workplace activities, and on the other by disciplinary knowledge."*

On this juncture, is of uttermost importance to note that the different classes of disciplinary knowledge as well as classification boundaries between subjects, and between common knowledge and official knowledge are created by researchers.

According to Barnett (2006) and Young (2006), it is most certain that qualifications in Technical and Vocational Education are premised on applied disciplinary knowledge, unlike academic qualifications. The same authors comment that academic

qualifications channel students along a body of knowledge. On the other hand, Technical Vocational qualifications channel students into a field of practice. Young (2006) acknowledges that academic and vocational education are different, hence lecturers need to equip students with the ability to differentiate between common knowledge and official knowledge. It is also of paramount importance to ensure that the boundaries between common knowledge and official knowledge are clearly stated so as to enable students to identify them easily and thus use the knowledge correctly.

Young (2006a), states that theoretical knowledge enables people to apply meaning to factual including the unimportant, acknowledged including unacknowledged, specific as well as the general. In TVE, the vocational pedagogy is seemingly structured from the simple to complex or from the concrete to abstract. In the Clothing and Textiles curriculum, teaching and learning starts with the theory (abstract) which then entails the practical (concrete).

Bernstein (2000:113) comments:

The way academic disciplines are structured have a bearing on how they are translated for pedagogic transmission. Induction into a particular academic discipline requires induction into its system of meaning, which may have implications for the way knowledge is selected, sequenced, paced and evaluated.

In institutions of higher learning, each academic subject has its own discourse and pedagogy, even the Clothing and Textiles curriculum has its own rhetoric or specialised terminologies and if follows specified methodologies which are unique to the subject. It therefore follows that, for one to be conversant with this academic discipline, it requires training so as to have an appreciation of the specialised terminologies and methodologies.

Young (2006) argue that: *“If pedagogic framing of vocational learning programmes is to reflect aspirations to occupational progression, then it has to provide opportunities for academic progression.”*

As a result there is need for vocational courses to be designed in such a way that they “face both ways”, that is an integrated approach. Barnette (2006:153) further elaborates that:

Quite a number of vocationally-oriented courses that seek to provide a vocational pedagogy in institutions is located in a particular curricular setting and this differs from the curricular setting of modern apprenticeship programme.

There is a strong indication that Technical Vocational Education should be delivered in a way that it will enable one to solve challenges. Quality in Technical and Vocational Education can be ensured through blending of methods (Lucas, 2012). This leads to questioning whether it is practical or possible then for vocational pedagogy to be Three- faced rather than Two-faced. Recontextualisation will be discussed in the next paragraphs.

2.2.3 Recontextualisation

Bernstein (2000:13) “refers to the process in which knowledge is translated for curriculum and pedagogic practice as the process of recontextualisation.” Barnette (2006) is of the opinion that recontextualisation entails:

The transformation of disciplinary knowledge into academic subjects to be studied at various levels and various institutional and non-institutional settings is a process of selection, simplification, exemplification and paraphrase-metaphorically, a process of translation.

This entails the selection of what would be relevant to a particular discipline, in this case Clothing and Textiles curriculum from the broader Technical Vocational curriculum to suit the vocational pedagogy of CT curriculum. Young (2000) and Barnette (2006) assert that many textbooks which are used in several learning situations including vocational education learning environments, are constructed from a panoply of sources through familiarising, reorganising and rewriting so as to suit the needs or specifications of a certain academic subject, the needs of the students and to meet the standards examination bodies would need. This

pedagogising of disciplinary knowledge, making it easier to teach and easier for students to learn in a specified educational context is recontextualisation (Barnette, 2006).

Barnette (2006:146) posit that:

The relationship between knowledge and academic pedagogy is familiar, and subject to the stated qualifications, relatively direct. However, before any notional links can be made between disciplinary knowledge and vocational pedagogy, consideration must be given to the operational demands of workplace activities. Workplaces generate technological and organisational problems which, given the enormous sectoral diversity, are usually sector-specific but which often transcend the details of particular jobs or particular organisational settings.

Thus there is need for vocational pedagogy to make room for situated knowledge since problems are inherent and are inseparable from some job tasks. Situated knowledge play an important role in making sure that a task is accomplished but it may have no relevance outside the context of that task (Gamble, 2013; Young, 2006 & Barnette, 2006). However, it is important to note that it is possible for one to learn a set of given instructions off hand, but this will not imply that they are well versed with the “know-how” for them to perform well on a given task. As a result, there is need for simulation, trial and error learning approaches where tightly situated knowledge is concerned.

Recontextualisation generates a toolbox of appropriate knowledge. Professions that fall under Technical Vocational Education construct their knowledge in the same manner. This entails that recontextualisation is dependent on the demands of a professional practice not on how it can be taught or learnt. However, for recontextualised information to be integrated into occupational education there is need for a further process of recontextualisation. It follows that whilst academic pedagogy encompasses a single procedure of educational recontextualisation of subject knowledge, the route amongst occupational education and subject knowledge follows different recontextualisation procedures. Technological and

organisational problems have been seen as powerful drives in academic disciplines. Layton (1993:59) opines that:

Recontextualisation, the separation of general knowledge from experience, is one of its most successful strategies. Solving technological problems necessitates building back into the situation all the complications of “real life”, reversing process of reductionism by recontextualising knowledge. What results may be applicable in a particular context or set of circumstances only.

Barnette (2006:154) comments that “*vocational pedagogy necessarily involves boundary-crossing*” and the difficulties which this poses for pedagogic recontextualisation should not be underestimated.” Boundaries do not only occur between bodies of knowledge, but there can be boundaries in as far as language, people and identities are concerned. Bernstein’s framework views these boundaries as boundaries between discourses. As a result, there are discourses for different academic subjects. This calls for tough choices when coming up with learning programmes, which poses challenges on lecturers. Gamble (2013:155) alludes that:

A lecturer involved in boundary-crossing pedagogy needs reasonable familiarity with the discourses on either sides of the divide and the recontextualisation strategies that have been used to create the new pedagogic discourses in the available learning support materials and texts. She or he needs a degree of insight into the scope and nature of the reservoir of disciplinary knowledges on which the particular syllabus has drawn as well as some of the realities of the workplace settings to which this (appropriately refashioned) knowledge is deemed to be relevant.

Young (2006) alludes that it does not imply that there is nothing in common between academic and vocational pedagogy. Young further postulates that there is need for lecturers to be provided with the necessary facilities and resources which would enable them to understand and deliver concepts in a manner which would make it easier for students to understand, bearing in mind that these academic and vocational pedagogies can learn from another although vocational pedagogy is embedded within distinctive features in as far as construction, lecture delivery as well as coordination.

The challenge here is that the Technical Vocational curriculum is not guided by the education curriculum. According to Bernstein (1999), the school knowledge is rooted in workplace knowledge and the latter is a dominant discourse. The recontextualising principle does not only select “what is to be learnt” (syllabus/ curriculum) but also how the content is to be learnt (methodology) and both of these are elements of the regulative discourse. This is as a result that the workplace knowledge is the socially acceptable discourse which generates a way that results in the way people conduct themselves. In universities it informs students in any learning environment on what to do, what should be learnt and how to learn it. The next section reviews the related literature.

Section B

2.3 Review of Related Literature

2.3.1 Skills Lecturers Possess to enable them to deliver the Clothing and Textiles curriculum

The quality of lecturing staff is a major determinant of the quality of graduates the universities produce and their eventual impact on the world of work and economic development (Nonaka, 2002). There is generally shortage of qualified lecturers in Zimbabwean universities (Makochekanwa & Kwaramba, 2010). The few universities that offer TVE lack qualified lecturers. Matoti (2010) asserts that the incompetence of lecturers as the chief implementers of curriculum can be a barrier to effective learning. The shortage has led to the use of unqualified lecturers which perpetuates the vicious circle of poor lecturers producing students who do not meet the standards required in the world of work. In Zimbabwean universities, many lecturers have left the teaching profession to escape the worsening economic situation with hyper-inflation having turned their salaries into pittance (Makochekanwa & Kwaramba, 2010). The same authors further allude that most of these academics got employment opportunities with better remunerations in neighbouring countries like Botswana and South Africa and others have gone to Britain and the United States to further their education. Odhiambo (2005) defines brain drain as the movement of high level experts from developing countries to industrialised nations. Brain drain is

the loss of human knowledge, experience, skill and expertise from one area, region, country or geographical location to another (Dei & Asgharzadeh, 2002). It usually occurs from developing to developed countries and as Odhiambo (2005: 131) noted, this concept “is one of the most widely discussed and deeply troubling phenomenon, not only in the educational relations among nations, but also as an anomaly of development in the case of Third World countries”. Brain drain seems to be reversing the gains attained over the past two decades of providing trained lecturers to the system (Kanyongo, 2005).

There are many reasons why highly skilled professionals choose to migrate. As Oyowe (1992: 59–60) points out:

When a highly qualified professional chooses to leave his or her country for another, the person does so for one of several reasons, political or economic; peace and security ; job satisfaction; better conditions; higher living standards.

These are the reasons which are classified as the “push and pull factor” (Odunsi 1996; Shumba & Mawere, 2012). “Push factors” are the conditions that drive the highly skilled away from their country of origin and the “pull factor” is the attracting conditions offered by the developed countries including the current migration schemes in countries such as Australia, Canada and the USA that deliberately target highly skilled immigrants, for instance good remuneration, education opportunities, promotion opportunities, housing allowances, transport allowances as well as health allowances. The unavailability of seasoned and highly qualified lecturers is a major cause for concern in universities. There are constant staff shortages at Institutions of Higher Learning (Maunze, 2007; Mumbengegwi 2008). Research shows that the last decade has witnessed institutions of higher learning in Zimbabwe losing large numbers of key professionals (Anonymous, 2003; Gwaradzimba & Shumba, 2010; Mushonga, 2005) because of a brain drain. According to Zimbabwe Sunday Mail, 4 March 2012:1, the Vice Chancellor of the University of Zimbabwe, Professor Nyagura bemoans that:

The main challenge all institutions face is human resources. In some instances a first degree holder would be tutoring other students trying to

achieve the same goal or a higher qualification. This is the greatest violation of learning standards.

This brain drain has therefore become a serious challenge in attempts to improve the quality of TVE in Zimbabwe. As Teffera (2003) noted, those who remained behind watched themselves become academically stagnated and incapacitated and the majority of them are being comforted by the security provided by a lecturing post. The same author further alludes that there is need for competent lecturers to teach CT so as to achieve quality in TVE in universities. It is also clear that many academics currently in Zimbabwean universities have become divorced from research and publication because of the many challenges afflicting the sector. This crisis has left Zimbabwe's education system in tatters (Makochekanwa & Kwaramba, 2010). However, it has been noted with great concern that this problem is not peculiar to the University of Zimbabwe only but to all the universities. This problem was also observed in some African universities (SARUA Handbook, 2009). Key to the success of a vocational programme is lecturers' competence and attitude. In support of this view, Rogan and Grayson (2003) stipulate that, lecturer capacity is a critical factor if quality results are to be realised in universities.

The Nziramasanga commission (1999) also found out that in universities, the lecturers were under qualified for their jobs. This is a big challenge to quality assurance in the delivery of TVE in universities, for qualifications lie at the heart of the link between economic demand and social demand, or between livelihood creators and livelihood seekers (Matoti, 2010). While the university curriculum is diversified to include vocational courses, frequently the teacher training curriculum has continued to emphasise on academic courses (Access Economics, 2010). This creates a knowledge gap between the lecturer and the curriculum in universities and ultimately, with the world of work. As a result, this hinders the delivery of the CT curriculum for lecturers will be lacking the necessary skills for them to deliver TVE. Stronge (2004) came up with a linear web to depict qualities of an effective lecturer.

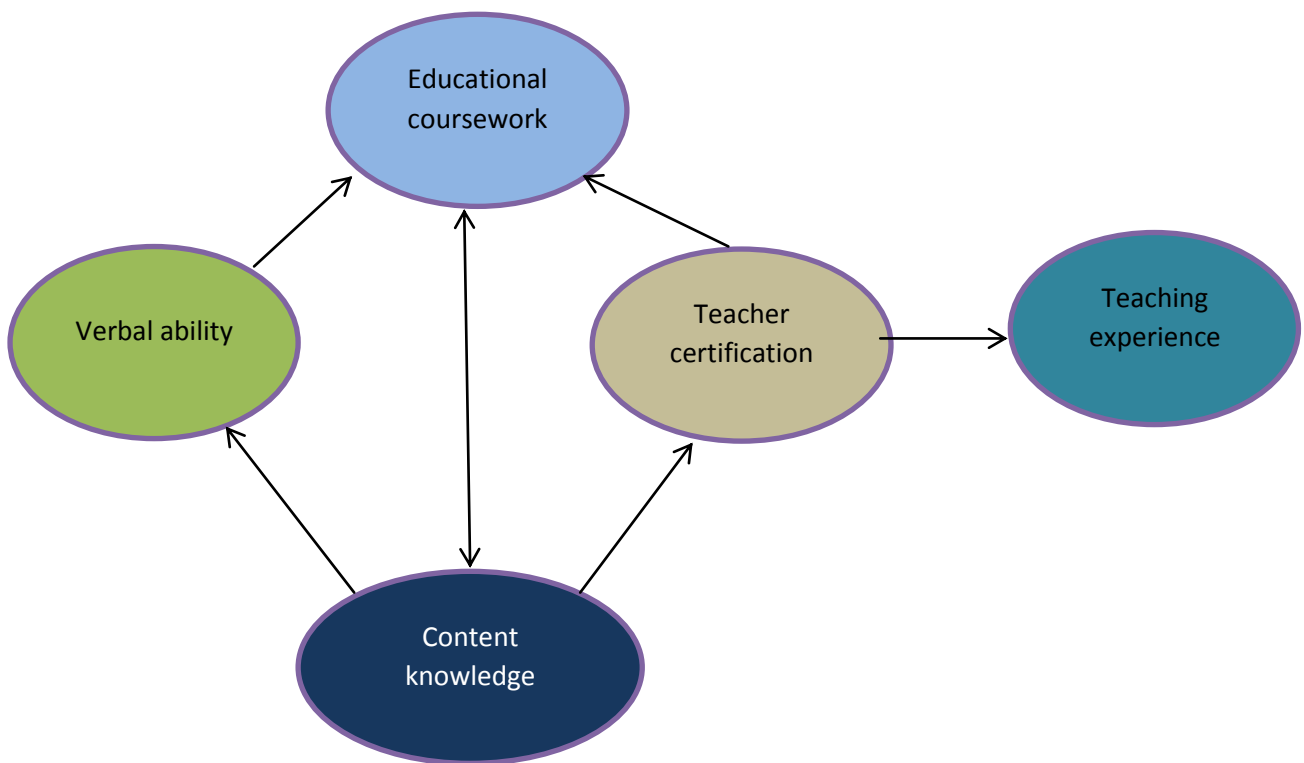


Figure 2-1: Qualities of an effective lecturer (Adapted from Stronge, J, 2004:17)

According to Stronge (2004) qualities of an effective lecturer entail his or her educational coursework, verbal ability, content knowledge, certification and teaching experience. For lecturers to be competent there is need for them to have good communication skills. Lecturers communicate with students through the use of verbal utterances as well as action. Competent lecturers know the type of students they are teaching, slow learners or fast learners. This enables them to pitch their pedagogy and methodology to the level which will enable students to understand what is being taught since if the lecturer uses the same methodology to all the students in a learning situation, it may not be as effective on one student as it can be to another student for students have different learning styles (Rani & Shukla, 2012). Rani and Shukla, (2012: 33) affirm that:

Every student has his or her own learning style, for instance, some students enjoy listening to lecturers, other prefer to read in library some like to be given specific assignment, others to define a problem for themselves and search for solutions, some prefer verbal interaction other like laboratory or other learning experience requiring manipulation or strenuous physical efforts, some are strong minded, self-directed and quite capable of independent study, other prefer interaction with peers, similarly some learners are quite sensitive to physical environment features such as sound levels, conversations, street noises and other distraction while other are insensitive these aspect.

Abott (2009) comments that competent lecturers have one distinct quality in the manner in which they plan their work, design and implement instruction and the way they assess students' work. The same author alludes that in all these activities, their emphasis will be on students' learning. Competent lecturers know the strengths and weaknesses of their students as well as their learning styles (Abott, 2009). In whatever they do in a learning environment, they will be having these at the back of their minds.

What makes teaching and learning exciting is the fact that students have different learning styles which calls on the lecturer to be in a position to make use of different methodologies so as to meet the individual needs of the students for a method which makes learning to one student may not necessarily make learning come to another student (Higher Education Bureau, 2010). In concurrence, Alsagoff, (1995) maintains that a competent lecturer should be flexible in the use of different methodologies. The same author further states that this is also a requirement when one is teaching practical- oriented subjects like CT. There is need for the lecturer to be well prepared so that he or she is able to control the class. Furthermore, lecturers need to make use of modern techniques to augment students' enthusiasm in the subject (Mokhtar, Rahman, Nor, Mokhtar, Yusof, & Idris, 2011). This is also applicable to CT curriculum in which instead of students designing and making patterns manually, the lecturer can expose students to the use of certain software that enables them to design and make patterns using the computer. Good learning outcomes may be achieved when lecturers employ the suitable learning styles for the students he or

she is teaching. Rani and Shukla (2012: 39) acknowledge that there are benefits that go with knowledge about learning styles to lecturers:

- Teacher may match his or her teaching styles with the learning style of the students. Though it will be difficult for him in group teaching.
- Administrators and principals should provide various teaching aids, equipment, good physical surrounding, more books etc. So that teacher may create conducive learning environment in consideration of students learning style preferences.
- Students can gain confidence in their strengths and develop diverse strategies for coping with challenging situation, they may begin to see how they learn most effectively and efficiently and they may be able to take student may learn that their ways are not better or worse than those of their peers, they simply differ in learning style.

It has been observed that when there is a discrepancy in the learning styles, students may become disoriented, restless and perform poorly. Therefore, a competent lecturer has to be skilled in choosing the suitable teaching methods for the subject he or she teaches.

Stronge (2004) states that it is impossible for a lecturer to teach what he or she is not familiar with. According to Nel (1992) teacher training programmes must be designed in such a way that after the training, the teacher will be equipped with adequate knowledge which will enable him or her to deal with students with diverse needs. According to Wenglinsky (2000) lecturers who have specialised in a specific subject area are likely to produce good results in their subject areas. This is also the case with CT curriculum. A study in California avowed that lecturers who have specialised in Mathematics had their students attaining high marks in their achievement tests, (Fetler, 1999). Competency entails knowing the type of pedagogy one has to use as a lecturer in a learning situation and this enables one to determine the fundamental concepts and skills needed for the mastery of the subject (Langer, 2001). This, however, helps lecturers to link the content to the real life situations which enhances better understanding of the content. According to Wenglinsky (2002), lecturers with a better content knowledge enjoy the subject they teach which makes it easy for them

to deliver the curriculum in a manner which makes it easier for students to understand.

Stronge (2004) strongly feels that without adequate educational coursework preparation, lecturers cannot exert themselves fully in their work. According to Stronge (2004: 11), educational coursework entails “*courses teachers took as part of their preparation programme for teaching or as part of post graduate work to earn their certification.*” Darling-Hammond (2000:98) in agreement affirms that:

Despite longstanding criticisms of teacher education, the weight of substantial evidence indicates that teachers who have had more preparation for teaching are more confident and successful with students than those who have had little or none. Recent evidence also indicates that reforms of teacher education creating more tightly integrated programs with extended clinical preparation interwoven with coursework on learning and teaching produce teachers who are both more effective and more likely to enter and stay in teaching. An important contribution of teacher education is its development of teachers’ abilities to examine teaching from the perspective of learners who bring diverse experiences and frames of reference to the classroom.

Teacher certification varies from country to country. In most countries, proper lecturer certification entail that one is a highly competent lecturer. However, some renowned lecturers reveal that if a lecturer is certificated, it does not follow that he or she is competent enough to deliver (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Darling-Hammond et al, 2001; Goldhaber & Brewer, 2007; Laczko-Kerr & Berliner, 2002). These authors claim that certification does not make a difference, but it is just one part that completes the puzzle of lecturer quality. Wayne and Youngs (2003) are of the opinion that for certification to be more acceptable, lecturers should be made to teach in their areas of specialisation. This applies more to CT curriculum where the lecturers need to show the ability to demonstrate knowledge in hands-on skills. In a study of 359 learning institutions, carried out by Ross, Cousins, Gadalla and Hannay (1999), it was discovered that lecturers had decreased competency level when they were made to teach in an area they did not specialise in. This finding illustrates the impact on educators when they are assigned to an area they did not train in. In concurrence, Darling-Hammond (2001) claim that lecturers who teach in their areas

of specialisation produce better results than those assigned to areas they did not specialise in.

In line with this, Laukkanen (2008) alludes that in order to cope with this student diversity, a lecturer has to be a highly educated pedagogical expert. This means that for lecturers to cater for students' individual differences and abilities and to impart skills to students, they should be well trained and well versed in their subject areas. Wong (2009) asserts that for students to achieve academically there is need to change the way an institution is organised as well as the need to change the way lecturers teach. The same author further alludes that institutions that have good pass rates are those that have lecturers know the best instructional practice to employ in a learning environment and thus they will use them to achieve intended goals that is students' academic achievement. Furthermore, what is needed is a strategy that balances the individual preparation of lecturers with the dynamics of their institution and tasks. Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) argue that lecturers need to continually develop themselves within the education system to acquire different knowledge and teaching skills so as to face the new challenges, purpose and scope of the new CT curriculum. However, Grollmann (2008) postulates that promoting the quality of vocational lecturers rests on high level of education and preparation of individual lecturers. This needs to be complemented by policies which acknowledge some of the specific challenges in this field, such as the very specific nature of vocational knowledge and the need for cooperation between different profiles of vocational lecturers and the surrounding community in the world of work.

Another issue pertaining to lecturer competence is the issue of their experience in the teaching of the CT curriculum. There is no firm agreement on how many years makes a lecturer experienced (Stronge, 2004). This depends on the policies of the ministry in charge. For instance in Zimbabwe, MOHTEST stipulates that for a teacher to be regarded as experienced, he or she should have served in the ministry for two years. Earl (2010) states that a lecturer's years of experience in the teaching field have an impact on how one delivers learning programme. Earl (2010) further alludes that lecturers who are just entering institutions face challenges in the delivery of learning programmes because they lack confidence. This is as a result of staff

turnover which has left most universities with lecturers with less effective strategies for instruction and who cannot cope with the challenges of their work.

Experience does not make a difference in lecturer competence as it gives them a platform to grow professionally by learning through practice. Stronge (2004: 14) posits that “*this growth is a part of the learning curve that novice teachers experience as they begin their transformation into competent teachers*”. Darling-Hamond (2000) states that experience enables lecturers in colleges and universities improve throughout their careers. The following are perceived key benefits of experience to a lecturer:

- Develop an increased depth of understanding about the content and how to teach it to students (Covino & Iwanicki, 1996).
- Learn and use various strategies to meet students’ needs (Glass, 2001).
- Learn how to maximise his or her usage of instructional materials, management of the classroom and working relationships with others (Reynolds, 1997).
- Incorporate reflective practice (Allen & Casberque, 2000).

As a result, education must not end after one gets the certificate and signing a contract with the ministry. There is need for lecturers to continuously develop themselves by attending refresher courses and workshops. As a result, there is a mandate put in place by the Zimbabwe Council of Higher Education (ZIMCHE) to drive the change process, by helping identify and shaping the new competencies lecturers need (Wagner, 2000). ZIMCHE has given all universities a mandate that by 2015 all lecturers in Zimbabwean universities should have registered for a Doctoral degree with an accredited university. This is against the backdrop that lecturers in universities were no longer upgrading themselves which adversely affect their delivery of the curriculum. Lecturers involved in the delivery of the CT curriculum in TVE should be given the opportunity to update their technical information, knowledge and skills through special professional development courses, practical training periods in enterprises and any other organised form of activity involving contact with the world of work (UNESCO, 2008). European Union, (2010) observes focusing on high quality teaching as key pre-requisite for high quality education and training in

IHL. It highlights the university lecturers' duty to provide students with the competences they need to adapt to globalised and complex environments. This is where creativity, innovation, initiative, entrepreneurship and commitment to continuous learning are as important as knowledge itself. In particular, promoting the development of lecturers' competence in teaching transversal competences and heterogeneous classes, and collaborating with colleagues and parents, are seen as essential in the delivery of TVE in universities. In the same vein, Barber and Mourshed (2007) concur that increasing attention is being paid to the professional development of lecturers as they are seen as having the greatest influence on student outcomes.

In the light of TVE delivery in universities, Laukkanen (2008) concedes it is essential that a comprehensive professional development programme be established or facilitated for vocational educators (e.g. short courses offered internally; external attendance at conferences, workshops; tailor-made short courses; and implementation of a mentoring or coaching system) to continually up-skill vocational educators to effectively meet the new challenges imposed in their field. Generally this comes through self-education or professional development. Universities can assist by providing in-service training that meets the needs of the faculty, and by promoting continual growth both within and outside the university boundaries (Schunk, 2004). Regardless of the amount of technology or its sophistication, technology will not be used unless faculty members have the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary to infuse it into the curriculum (Luukkan, 2008; Schunk, 2004). Lecturers require prolonged exposure to new ideas and skills before lecture room behaviours change. Picciano (1998) alludes that in order for lecturers to feel in command of educational technologies and to know when and how to use them given that there are varying abilities and knowledge of faculty in a university, seldom will there be agreement on the need for any one in-service topic. The best strategy would be to identify multiple topics and then involve only those lecturers who have needs in the specified content domain. In the same vein, Guskey (2002: 382) concurs that:

What attracts teachers to professional development is their belief that it will expand their knowledge and skills, contribute to their growth, and enhance their effectiveness with students. What they hope to gain through professional development are specific, concrete, and practical ideas that directly relate to the day-to-day operation of their lecture rooms.

In support of the above, Birman, Desimone, Porter and Garet (2000) comment that targeting a professional development activity on a specific subject area or subject specific teaching method is preferable. This stance will motivate lecturers to engage in staff development since they will know that in the end they are the ones to benefit from the whole programme, unlike when the programme does not meet with their teaching needs. Simply providing off-the-shelf workshops designed by external sources will not have as great an impact as when lecturers are surveyed and workshops are tailored to their needs. The strengths of universities reside increasingly in maintaining effective relationships with their environment, offering answers to the needs of all its stakeholders, placing them in the centre of the academic and research processes.

In addition, lecturers should be provided with information on training in educational innovations that may have applications in their particular discipline, in this case, Clothing and Textiles and be given the opportunity to participate in relevant research and development (UNESCO, 2008). Improved lecturer skills in the lecture room, in turn, help facilitate improved student performance. Through both personal improvement as well as their students' performance, it stands to reason that lecturer morale increases. A critical factor, however, is that the professional development program serves the needs of lecturers with relevant examples and instruction. As a result, any effort which is aimed at improving the standard of education should target the lecturer (Kriek & Grayson, 2009). Kahle et al. (2000:2) comments that, “*schools are as good as their teachers, regardless of how high their standards are, how up-to-date are their technology is*”. Therefore, any sustainable improvement in the delivery of TVE in universities should focus on lecturer development. This will give the lecturers the expertise to interpret the curriculum so that they will be able to break it

down into manageable units for easy delivery of the CT curriculum. However, renowned authors like Penuel, Fishman, Yamaguchi and Gallagher (2007) pointed out that a common criticism of professional development activities designed for lecturers is that they are too short and offer limited follow-up of lecturers once they begin to teach. This results in lecturers either assimilating teaching strategies learnt in the workshops with little substantive change or rejecting the suggested changes totally (Coburn, 2004; Tyack & Cuban, 1995). Brown (2004) argues that professional development that is of longer duration and time span is more likely to contain the kinds of learning opportunities necessary for lecturers to integrate new knowledge into practice.

The death of vocational lecturers has augmented the crisis in the delivery efforts. Informants expressed a broad concern at the impending loss of a highly experienced section of the lecturing workforce, and at not having people with the relevant skills and knowledge to replace them as heads of departments, managers, senior lecturers, expert lecturers and mentors (Boardman, 2009; Etzkowitz et al., 2000). This echoed the descriptions in the literature of looming “*knowledge loss*”, “*knowledge collapse*”, and “*knowledge discontinuity*” (Access Economics, 2010; Casher & Lesser 2003). To meet the growing demand for higher education in Zimbabwe, there is need to build the capacity of the remaining academics and, given the reality of the brain drain, the greater challenge is to attract and retain talented staff. Rather than just pushing more graduates through the education pipeline and into teaching and research positions the universities should put in place academic staff development programmes to help the staff they already have (Odhiambo, 2005).

The lack of qualified personnel required for planning and organising TVE projects and designing appropriate curriculum and administrative strategies has resulted in ineffective strategies (Odhiambo, 2005). These have caused wastage in resources usage, ill-defined roles and personality or status conflicts. In the delivery of CT curriculum, because the implementation process often has become a one way system in which a few people at the top issue orders in a “one-way” system of administration. This has caused lecturers who are at the bottom end of the system to be demotivated and disoriented and this has contributed to the ineffective delivery of

the CT curriculum at the university level. Although the lecturer is a principal key in the success of the delivery process, authorities have concentrated more on the aims and foreseen outcomes of the programme leaving the lecturer out of the whole scenario (Boardman, 2009; Etzkowitz et al., 2000).

There is also need for reviewing the terms and conditions of service for all academic staff. In universities it has been reported that there is a serious dearth of necessary instructional equipment and machinery, work with large numbers of students in crowded classrooms, and teach in dilapidated buildings (Makochekanwa & Kwaramba, 2010). Because of this, lecturer motivation is often low, and absenteeism and turn-over rates among them are frequently high (Graham-Brown, 1991). As a result, it is difficult to attract people with science and technical backgrounds into the field of education (Makochekanwa & Kwaramba, 2010; Mwamwenda & Mwamwenda 1992). Therefore, there is further need for clear staff performance appraisal schemes aimed at identifying training needs for staff development and to recognise and reward exemplary performance. This transformation is possible, real and achievable only if both the government and university leadership are committed to enhance quality in TVE.

Grollmann (2008) argues that TVE has changed significantly over recent decades, necessitating that vocational lecturers be equipped with specific technical knowledge have the ability to participate in new institutional roles and new ways of organising learning. This includes among other things the need for lecturers to be erudite in computer- based designs and research so as to cater for student diversity. The same authority further alludes that technology has a tremendous impact on every aspect of our lives and is an accepted part of our daily lives. In CT curriculum, technology increases the options and opportunities for teaching and learning practices. It stands to reason that lecturers who are more open to change will also be more willing to try new ideas in the lecture room as well as in their personal lives. When these lecturers are provided with the opportunity to learn new technology skills and techniques, it appears that they will avail themselves for the opportunity resulting in an increase in their competence. Today many people agree that technology should be used in education. Many countries have already included the integration of technology into education in their agenda for educational development

(Khasawneh, 2009). Khasawneh (2009) explains that in Turkey, for instance, the implementation of educational technologies is the central focus right now, like in many other countries in the World. It is important to mention that the success of this integration depends mostly on the lecturers. Technology in education offers many potential benefits although its adoption is a major challenge for many lecturers in many African countries (Emmanouilidis & Economides, 2010; Topacan, Basoglu, & Daim, 2010)

Lecturers' openness to change influences their willingness to integrate technology into the lecture-rooms. Although it is generally viewed as an internal prerequisite to success, external factors such as professional development and a supportive climate come into play (Kurt, 2012). The same author further argues that an attitude of openness to change facilitates a lecturer's acceptance of technology. However, critical to this acceptance is the need to see relevance in the process. The extent to which lecturers use technology outside the lecture rooms may be an indicator of their interest and corresponding skill in using the technology (Baylor & Ritchie, 2002). These authors identified three patterns of technology use among lecturers. The first is "avoidance" which entails lecturers who assign computer time to the students but do not use the technology for their own purposes.

The second pattern is "integration" in which lecturers spend time experimenting with and learning to use hardware and software and structure learning time to promote effective and increased use of technology by their students. The third pattern is "technical specialisation" and this entails lecturers who have strong computing skills and their use of the computer is more organised and purposeful than average lecturers. Baylor and Ritchie (2002) posit that these classifications, which indicate the effectiveness of lecturer technology use, are indirectly supported by the amount of non-classroom computer-use in which the lecturer is engaging. Teacher non-school computer use was operationalised in this study from the lecturer's perspective to include the number of times technology (e.g. Computer aided designing, word processing, database, spread sheet, graphics, multimedia, and telecommunications) was used at home for non-school activity.

Studies by Grollmann (2008) ; Papier (2008); Pukelis and Fokiene (2008); Brand (2007) and Young (2006) have shed light on current training programmes for

vocational lecturers in the country and abroad, as well as suggesting theoretical underpinnings that may be significant in developing initial training curricula. In distilling curriculum principles for “models of vocational lecturer education in the 21st century”, Lynch (2009:60) includes as guidelines for university faculties that “faculty understand the philosophy, effective practice and methods of inquiry related to work force preparation and development”, and that “programmes are grounded in academic education, workplace subject matter, technology, professional education and clinical practices”. There appears to be broad agreement on the theoretical underpinnings of vocational lecturer education which acknowledges particularly the acquisition by vocational lecturers, of “vertical”, disciplinary knowledge (Bernstein, 1999) as in the traditional education and specialist subject disciplines. In addition there is need for an understanding of “horizontal” knowledge (Lave & Wenger, 1991) that is situated in workplace technologies.

It is this combination of bodies of knowledge that could pose significant challenges to education faculty in the delivery of the CT curriculum as Finch (1998) concludes in an international overview of university vocational teacher preparation: Vocational lecturer educators must embrace contemporary educational and workplace philosophies and practice if they intend to prepare vocational lecturers for the next century, even if this may require many teacher educators to undergo large scale professional development. The biggest challenge to education involves giving lecturers the confidence to believe in themselves that they can accomplish the task at hand. According to Laukkanen (2008) and Grollmann (2008) many of the teaching practices in developing countries are not conducive to student learning. Ineffective practices include:

- (i) Long periods of lecturing and rote recitation: for example, in Botswana, students listened to lecturers for 57% of the time, and spent 43% of the observed instructional time on oral recitation.

These methods of teaching, however, do not promote effective learning, which results in students losing interest in learning resulting in them not gaining the necessary skills the world of work embraces.

- (ii) having students copy from the blackboard with little or no explanations or elaborations from lecturers because of their incompetence.

Makochekanwa and Kwaramba (2011); Nkomo (1995) reiterate that lecturers should have the capability to interpret the national curriculum. Failure to do so results in poor lecture delivery for if the lecturer does not understand the syllabus; it is an obvious case that lecture delivery will be a nightmare. In essence, lecturers should be individuals of high calibre, who are able to deliver content and make learning come for students. Without well qualified and committed lecturers, learning becomes difficult because students of diverse abilities need different levels of attention. The researcher thus deems it necessary for the lecturers to be staff developed on syllabus interpretation, so that they may have confidence before the students when delivering a lecture. Although centralised models of curriculum development have been put in place in universities, these have often neglected the most important variable in successful curriculum change that is the lecturer. For example, in Zimbabwe where ambitious departures in curriculum policy have been declared, there has been little evidence of the required training or repositioning which would translate these objectives into practice (Kurasha, 2010; Kanyongo, 2005; Mungazi 1985).

- (iii) Giving students few opportunities to ask questions or participate in active learning.

Due to lack of knowledge of the part of the lecturer, lecturer -pupil interaction is non-existent. This is as a result of fear of being asked questions they would not be able to answer due to lack of subject content as well as lack of confidence in themselves. According to Earp (2010) lecturers should view students as active participants who can also contribute meaningfully to the learning process than to view themselves as the fountain of knowledge. The same author further alludes that this scenario is commonly practiced in northwest Europe, Scandinavia, Australia and Korea, southern Europe, Brazil and Malaysia. In support, Evans (1993:143) acknowledges that *“If there is lack of public confidence in lecturer’s professional knowledge, there will be a parallel crisis of confidence in lecturers’ professional execution of duties”*.

In the same line of thought, Wentzel (2002) and Nkomo (1995) postulate that lecturers’ personal qualities and intelligence influence the way they handle lectures, and teaching aids (resource materials). Thus, the lecturer’s level of professional

competence can adversely influence effective curriculum delivery. It has been noted that teaching styles can help to interpret the influences of lecturers on student achievement and on attitudes towards a subject (Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006). Classroom practitioner's teaching behaviour and teaching styles can make an important difference to student learning (Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006; Wentzel, 2002). As a result, there is need for lecturers to continually develop themselves within the education system. This view is also shared by Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) who argue that lecturers need to acquire different knowledge and lecturing skills so as to face the new challenges in the lecturing fraternity, as well as to understand the purpose and scope of the new curriculum.

- (iv) having students memorise texts with few opportunities for hands-on involvement.

This method of teaching results in the production of students who lack the skills necessary for them to enter the world of work. Rodriguez and Sadowki (2000) state that rote learning is not a good way of making students learn. When given the opportunity to be creative, students will take their learning to higher levels and become actively engaged in lessons by contributing meaningful ideas and insights (First Results from TALIS, OECD, 2009).

This type of environment will be most conducive to fostering learning. Systematic reflective thinking about teaching is predicated upon a broad and in-depth understanding of what is happening in the classroom. This implies that there is need for quite sophisticated understanding of teaching and related activities before it is possible to engage in effective teaching practices (Hatton & Smith 2009).

There is a general agreement that teaching methods that involve students actively result in students performing well in their academic work and this makes it possible for all students to be part of the learning activities thus no one will feel to be an outcast (Crosling, Heagney & Thomas, 2009; Parker et al., 2005; Thomas, 2002; Bamber & Tett, 2001). Active learning is often associated with experiential, problem-based and project-based learning, and other forms of collaborative learning, endless reliance on the large lecture format. A lecturer exuding high levels of competency

must have high expectations for the students he or she teaches (Higher Education Bureau, 2011). It is of paramount importance for a lecturer to be impartial when treating his or her students.

A consistent lecturer treats students fairly and in the same way in any learning situation. Students are quick to pick on an unfair practice by the lecturer. For example, students complain of unfairness when lecturers treat one group of students differently or when they give preferential treatment to other students (Higher Education Bureau, 2011). If a lecturer expects less effort from students he or she is teaching, he or she will receive less effort in turn. As an effective lecturer one should portray an attitude that impresses on the students that he or she knows they can perform up to the level of the lecturer's expectations. This also gives students a sense of confidence. In CT curriculum a lecturer should ascertain students that they can produce artifacts which are up to the level of workmanship he or she expects. However, caution should be taken not to create unrealistic expectations for these will be the enabling factors to students' academic achievement.

The researcher feels that this is a more ideal approach in the teaching of Clothing and Textiles for it is a hands-on discipline which needs students to manipulate materials, equipment and machinery and experiment with them. This view is also confirmed by Schunk (2004). Pedagogies that involve students as active participants in a learning situation, rather than as recipients of knowledge, show respect for students' views and experiences, and therefore diversity and difference is less likely to be encountered in IHL (Jones & Thomas, 2005). The benefits of student-centred learning that includes greater staff-student and peer interaction can be understood in relation to the social and emotional dimension of learning. This engagement influences students' sense of belonging and their motivation to learn and achievement (Kosir & Pecjak, 2005; Askham, 2004; Thomas, 2002).

Research shows that students learn better when educators acknowledge them as valuable and significant persons. Lecturers with a positive attitude towards their work are realistic about the demands of their teaching assignments, they show high levels

of dedication and strive to make a difference in the lives of the students they teach (Peart & Campbell, 1999). They make use of their own enthusiasm for the subject to reach and motivate their students in turn. The lecturers are excited about the content they teach and this is expressed through the learning experiences they expose their students to. Their goal is not only to present the learning material, but they are also keen to see their students succeed in acquiring knowledge and skills (Ford & Trotman, 2001). The process of expressing high regard, respect and acknowledgement for students is called confirmation (Sieburg, 2006). Such a friendly learning environment is considered enabling for learning TVE. Thus TVE lecturers have some responsibility to provide a setting that facilitates students' engagement and learning, which gets students to participate in activities that lead to the success of the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities (Kezar & Kinzie, 2006). This study would explore further the raised concerns on skills lecturers possess to deliver the CT curriculum in Zimbabwean universities.

2.3.2 Lecturers and Students' Perceptions

Determinants of students' academic performance have received significant attention in the education literature. Student performance is generally viewed as a product of socio-economic, psychological and environmental factors. The factors are expected to vary from one country to another and from place to place. Hence, the attempt was made in the literature to look at perceptions of lecturers and students as a factor that affects students' performance in CT curriculum in universities. The attitude and motivation of vocational lecturers have a significant role in improving the image of TVE in universities, performance of vocational graduates as well as their willingness to take up TVE at this high level. The attitudes of lecturers also help to shape students' job aspirations. When a lecturer has a positive attitude, he or she will trust that all students will be successful; there are no losers amongst the students (Akywampong, Kwame & Lewin, 2002; Christophel, 1990; Flores & Day, 2006). A teacher's positive attitude is a catalyst as it sparks extraordinary results cause a chain reaction of positive thoughts, events and outcomes.

Key to the success of a vocational programme is lecturers' attitude. Lecturers frequently use practical work as a form of punishment, while they lavish praise on those who do well in their academic courses (Al-Ali, 2005). As a result, many students in vocational universities would prefer to be elsewhere, recognising the lower status (and expected salaries) of the occupations for which they are preparing (Al-Oteawi, 2010). This may result in lower motivation, less learning and lower probabilities that students will enter the occupations for which they have been trained (assuming that such employment opportunities are available).

A myriad of factors have been seen to have an impact on student's performance. Among these, Schneider, Gruman, and Coutts (2012) have found lecturer and student attitudes to be the most outstanding factor. Lecturers' attitudes can both enhance students' academic achievement or can be detrimental to students' achievement as well. As stated by Schneider, Gruman, and Coutts (2012) a desired educational outcome may not occur due to the attitude one may be bearing. Attitudes play a major role in the success or failure of the delivery of any curriculum in universities. If people involved in the delivery of a particular programme have a negative attitude, it is most likely that the programme will not succeed. Rex and Singh (2003) reiterate that negative attitudes of lecturers and students in TVE are the major barrier to the successful delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum.

Lecturers' attitudes have a great influence on what students learn and as such students' perceptions are a reflection of those attitudes held by their lecturers. However, it is worth noting that the word "attitude" often has a negative undertone. Every lecturer or student has an attitude, so it is best to identify the type of attitude that is a healthy attitude, a positive attitude, negative or an agreeable attitude. This attitude focuses on the ability of the lecturer to accommodate students in the learning environment. Research has established that students and lecturers account of each other's' attitudes. This implies that there is a positive correlation between the attitude lecturers display in any learning situation and that of students (Skinner & Belmont, 1993). It has been observed that when lecturers do not show maximum commitment when teaching students, there is a high possibility that students will retaliate by having unbecoming behaviour as a way of showing their displeasure on the lecturer's attitude (Demagnet & Van Houtte, 2012; Van Houtte & Stevens, 2008).

Lecturers contribute to their profession through their actions and utterances and these affect those who hear it. According to Cawelti (2004), those lecturers who have high regard for their profession get the same from their students.

Lecturers' attitudes have been seen to have an impact on the climate of any IHL. For instance in CT curriculum students may delay submitting their artifacts or they may produce artifacts that may be below standard. Some lecturers display a friendly and accommodative atmosphere and others are not friendly and unaccommodative as well (Hoy, 2003). An accommodative and friendly approach enhances the institutional climate and the learning environment for students whereas an unfriendly and unaccommodative environment impedes students' learning. There is need for a lecturer to exude positive attitude in a learning environment for it is an asset in life. A positive attitude can help one to cope with the day-to-day stressors in an amicable way without impacting negatively on the students. It is also important to bear in mind that in teaching and learning, everything is not static, there are bound to be changes or disruptions to the day-to-day activities. This can be as a result of important workshops, conferences or meetings. As a result, a positive attitude is important not only for the lecturer's stress level but also for the students who expect the lecturer to be in charge and take control of any situation that may arise.

Renowned educational researchers from USA, France, Belgium and UK avow that lecturers' attitudes have a significant impact on students' educational achievement (Jussim & Harber, 2005; Rosenthal, 2002; Trouilloud, Sarrazin, Martinek, & Guillet, 2002; Agirdag & Van Houtte, 2011; Van Houtte & Van Maele, 2012; Rubie-Davies, Hattie, & Hamilton, 2006). The lecturer represents or resembles the content and the institution. As a result, how a lecturer presents himself or herself is of uttermost importance since it has a bearing on how the students, other lecturers, policy makers and the community perceive the institution (Thornton, Peltier & Hill, 2005). From the same source, educationists believe that the way a lecturer teaches impacts on the students' preference to a particular subject.

A lecturer who is highly enthusiastic about his or her subject area may transfer those feelings to the students. Personality is one of the most fundamental characteristics of

a competent lecturer which is not easy to change (Thornton, et al, 2005). As a result one's personality has a bearing on how he or she delivers a learning programme. As students interact with lecturers on a daily basis, it is likely that lecturers' attitudes also shape other aspects of their lives Hallinan (2008). Lecturers' attitudes towards a learning experience can leave a mark on their students' lives. School experiences mold, shape, and, can influence how students view themselves inside and outside of the learning environment. These memories can linger in a students' mind for a long time, even after graduation and this can impact on the decisions one will make in a life time. Positive attitudes and actions employed by lecturers in any learning environment eventually can make a positive difference on the lives of their students.

Recent studies by Gwaradzimba and Shumba (2010) and Makochehanwa and Kwaramba (2010) have shown that the successful delivery of an educational curriculum depends largely on the attitudes of educators who eventually determine how they implement the curriculum in the classroom. Lecturers' attitudes are a major enabling or disabling factor in the delivery of any curriculum (Bullock, 2004). The attitude and motivation of TVE lecturers have a significant role in improving the performance of TVE graduates as well as their willingness to learn. Lecturer motivation in vocational institutions is a critical factor in achieving vocational objectives (Al-Ali, 2005). Factors related to motivating lecturers in developing their own programmes include caring for student, attention to professional growth and a desire to keep programmes up-to-date with changing technology (Al-Ali, 2005).

A competent lecturer should be able to give students the freedom to learn through exploration and experimentation for this enables both lecturers and students to contribute to the learning environment for a relationship of closeness and acceptance to develop (Creating Effective Teaching and Learning Environments: First Results from TALIS, OECD 2009). In the same vein, Kersaint, Horton, Stohl, and Garofalo (2003) reiterate that lecturers who have positive attitudes towards teaching are comfortable with exploring new methods of making learning easy, for example the use of Computer-aided learning or technology in Clothing and Textiles when making patterns. When lecturers are more comfortable with using computer aided learning, they are therefore confident enough to incorporate it into their day-to-day lectures. Woodrow (2002) stresses that any successful transformation in

educational practice requires the development of positive user-attitude towards the new curriculum or technology

TVE lecturers appear as an anomalous group, with an ambivalent status and an unclear identity yet the technical and vocational lecturer occupies a most important place in modern society for he is the link between the world of work (industrial society), the “real” world and the educational system (Oketch, 2007). The lecturers are often not respected or given recognition, since the academic lecturers (and even the educational authorities) believe the former do not possess adequate “formal” qualifications or a “proper” academic background (Kanyongo, 2005). This attitude further impresses the students that academic courses are more “important” or “worthy” compared with vocational courses in terms of job aspirations. Worldwide there has been a long tradition of grouping students in according to different tracks, be it based on ability or policy requirement (Araujo, 2007; Boaler, William, & Brown, 2000). Van Maele and Van Houtte (2012) stipulate that students in practically-oriented tracks have been badly labelled since the late 1960’s. Gumbo (2006) asserts that despite all types of attempts to change students’ attitudes that TVE would enable them equally to achieve their goals and improving their position in the same way as academic subjects, it has remained a dream for institutions to deliver massive changes in attitude and aspiration in the absence of any parallel initiatives in the larger economic environment (Kanyongo, 2005). The perceptions of both vocational lecturers and non-vocational students impact negatively on the attitude of vocational students. This, however, perpetuates the low status students place on TVE.

As earlier pointed out, students perceive TVE as a course for low achievers and as a result, students shun TVE in universities (Mumbengegwi, 2008). In his study, Smerdon (2002) found that students in vocational tracks had negative attitude to their programme whereas those in academic track had positive attitude towards their programme. It has been shown that technical or vocational courses are less demanding than academic ones (Van Houtte, 2006a). According to Schofield (2006), lecturers in academic and practically-oriented tracks approach teaching differently using learning material. The author further posits that in practically-oriented tracks, course content is approached in a manner in which emphasis is

more on skill acquisition unlike in academically-oriented courses in which more emphasis is placed on concepts. As a result of this discrepancy, both lecturers and students have a negative attitude towards practically-oriented courses. Smerdon (2002) and Fang (1996) maintain that lecturers have some conceptions about their job, as a result when they find themselves teaching students in a track which is looked down upon, they find it difficult to adjust. As a result of this many lecturers are demotivated and lack confidence in the students they teach and this perpetuates the stereotype that practically-oriented students are academically weak (Ball, 1981; Van Houtte, 2006b).

As earlier stated, students look down upon TVE (Makochekanwa & Kwaramba, 2011). The Colonial era has left a legacy which portrays TVE as a career path for the less academically endowed (Johanson & Adams, 2004). For many parents in African countries, the TVE carries an aura of being too 'non-academic' (Cloete, Needham, Net, Papier, Shepard & Stumpf, 2009). This perception has been driven by the low academic requirements for admission into TVE (Johanson & Adams, 2004). These deeply embedded attitudes are difficult to change. Therefore, holding lower expectations on TVE for some students can perpetuate lower academic performance and inhibit students' success. Thus, the duration of training of TVE programmes, combined with the lower formal qualifications typically required by Ministries of Higher and Tertiary Education (MOHTE), (Baker, Fabrega, Galindo, & Mishook, 2004) as compared to other academic subjects (in the faculties of Law, Medicine, Languages, as examples) perpetuates the low status students place on TVE.

Students do not take TVE seriously and they label such students as low achievers (Kolbe, Partridge, & O'Reilly, 2011). As a result, students shun TVE in universities. This labelling behaviour can affect students' performance. As a result the number of students enrolling for TVE is lower as compared with other faculties in universities. According to Rojewski and Park (2005), the critical cause of decreasing student enrolment in university in TVE programmes is the strong negative stigma that is placed on vocational education, for instance, most families and children regard it as second best, as inferior to the academic route. They are, therefore, psychologically unsuited for manual work. They further state that universities offering TVE are

actively perceived as dead-ends for the minority of students, who unwillingly enter the university because of difficulty with a possibly more "rigorous" academic curriculum. To many, vocational institutions are understood as institutions of terminal education for students who fail in general academic school (Rojewski & Park 2005). For vocational educators, an increased academic rigor as key to effectively prepare youth for the world of work should be perceived as an advantage.

TVE lecturers are often not respected or given recognition, since the academic lecturers (and even the educational authorities) believe the former do not possess adequate "formal" qualifications or a "proper" academic background (Kanyongo, 2005). The same author further comments that it is also perceived that those who have taken courses of study generally called "academic" reap substantial financial returns from their education, thus producing the paradoxical conclusion that academic education has a greater value than vocational education. This attitude further impresses the students that academic courses are more "important" or "worthy" compared with vocational courses in terms of job aspirations. This distinction, which is actually grounded in the nature of the two curricula, is allowed to carry the implication that some education prepares students for the 'world of work' and some does not. The traditional distinction was developed by educators, but the labour market has its own way of appraising qualifications (Rojewski & Park (2005). TVE suffers from a competition in status with general academic education, emerging as "second choice" education. This problem is underlined by the approach taken by the international development community, which has prioritised general education and promoted an agenda of privatisation for TVE (Oketch, 2007).

The perceptions of both vocational lecturers and non-vocational students may impact negatively on the attitude of vocational students. Lecturers' attitudes have been found to be a major predictor of the use of new technologies in instructional settings (Isleem, 2003). The same authority states that lecturers' attitudes towards computers affect not only their own computer experiences, but also the experiences of the students they teach, especially in TVE. Al-Oteawi (2002) commented that attitudes towards computers affect lecturers' use of computers in the lecture room and the likelihood of their benefiting from training. Therefore, attitudes of lecturers and students have to be changed if they are to see dignity in TVE. Gray (2005), remarks

that teachers' attitudes can be changed if they are exposed to staff development programmes. However, it can be devastating if this change does not come by since lecturers are regarded as agents of change in the delivery of the CT curriculum. When teachers are exposed to staff development activities, they acquire new skills, knowledge, beliefs, attitudes and ways which help them to deal and cope with change (Gray, 2005).

Rogan and Grayson (2003) state that students' attitudes to learning and responses to change, is likely to be a major determinant of the student's success in their courses. Additionally, some students with an unrealistic view of themselves may perform poorly too. For instance, those who tend to be overconfident or naive about the requirements of their academics may register very poor performance. Conversely, when students do not believe in themselves or when they have low self-confidence, there are high chances that they under-achieve (Powers, 2006). At times, students imagine that they are victims of the system and this can lead to academic failure. In some instances, some students may be too proud to ask for help when they encounter a problem in their studies (Bowen, & Richman, 2000). As a result this attitude may lead to students attaining poor results since they would have failed to get help from the lecturers. Also, some students find it difficult to grow or develop because they tend to resist change in their learning process and this can impede their academic progress. Change can be in the form of the number of artifacts being made in a semester or the duration of practical lectures. In other situations, a student may not work well in groups yet this is a necessary part of the vocational academic environment.

Lauglo, Akyeampong, Mwiria, and Weeks (2004) assert that positive attitudes towards TVE should be promoted among students if they are to acquire skills relevant for future trades and occupations. Plax, Kearney, and Downs (2008) share the same view with Lauglo et al., (2004) when they postulate that promoting favourable attitudes towards a given school subject is the equivalent of encouraging the student to study the subject with eagerness and persistence. There is therefore a dire need for all stakeholders in Zimbabwe to inculcate positive attitudes towards TVE among their children.

Parents, teachers and students evaluate the curriculum in relation to what has been done in the past (Gumbo, 2006; Gatawa, 1990). The preference for academic achievement by most post-colonial countries is a direct result of the attitudes developed during the colonial era where vocational education was looked down upon (Lauglo et al., 2004; Zvobgo, 1994). This may result in lower motivation, less learning and lower probabilities that students will enter the occupations for which they have been trained (assuming that such employment opportunities are available). In contrast, it has been noted that in a number of mainly middle-income countries like South Africa, TVE institutions (especially those with a specific technical focus), have been able to overcome these limitations, establishing good links with the world of work and acquiring the capacity to adjust curricula and enrolments as skills demand in the market changes (Rojewski & Park, 2005). However, the researcher feels that improved lecturer attitude and favourable employment outcomes increase student demand for the courses and improve motivation in learning TVE.

The development of lecturers' positive attitudes toward Information Communication Technology (ICT) is a key factor not only for enhancing computer integration but also for avoiding lecturers' resistance to computer use in Clothing and Textiles curriculum (Watson, 1998). Lecturers' attitudes towards a new technology has often been seen as one of the most notorious obstructions to technology adoption and integration worldwide (Pelgrum, 2001). Technology has a tremendous impact on every aspect of our lives and is an accepted part of our daily lives. In education, technology increases the options and opportunities for teaching and learning practices (Khasawneh, 2009). The same author further alludes that nowadays a lot of people strongly feel that technology should be infused in the university curriculum.

According to Topacan, Basoglu, and Daim (2010), many countries (including Zimbabwe) have included technology in their university curriculum design policies. It is worth noting that the implementation rests solely on lecturers. Many renowned authorities avow that when technology is included in the university curriculum, it can bring forth lots of benefits. However, its implementation remains a challenge to many lecturers in many African countries (Khasawneh, 2009; Emmanouilidis & Economides, 2010; Topacan, Basoglu, & Daim, 2010). A large number of studies

have shown that lecturers' computer competence is a significant predictor of their attitudes towards computers (Al- Oteawi, 2002). Al-Oteawi (2002) found that most lecturers who showed negative or neutral attitudes toward the use of ICT in education lacked knowledge and skill about computers that would enable them to make "informed decision.

However, there is a conventional overriding assumption in the realm of vocational education. The assumption upon which TVE is premised is that it results in an economic return on investment to the student and society (Kanyongo, 2005; Makochekanwa & Kwaramba, 2010). It is on this premise that vocational education is believed to have the potential of reducing unemployment and also increase productivity. The parents and politicians who support vocational instruction in universities draw their thinking and rationale from this hypothesis. One of the most universal agreements about vocational education's purpose is the preparation of students for employment opportunities in existing and emerging careers and occupations (Gumbo, 2006; Mndebele 1997). However, any given country has its own unique perspectives which cause TVE systems to be seen as more or less viable education options.

However, the researcher feels that Vocational curriculum courses and programmes must be oriented such that emphasis is placed on general education and 'soft' skills, namely life skills, language and communication skills, mathematical skills, higher-order thinking skills, interpersonal skills and computer skills so as to do away with the stigmatisation, thus placing more value to TVE. Students are almost totally ignorant of the concept of vocational education and of its potential significance for national development. This is not only because of the weakness or even absence of existing vocational guidance, particularly in the primary and junior secondary years but also because of the low status and irrelevant curriculum of vocational education courses which do exist. So they are not ignorant of the realities, but are ignorant of the potential (Rojewski & Park 2005). From these revelations cited above, the study sought to find out what perceptions lecturers and students have towards the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities.

2.3.3 The Relationship between universities and the world of work.

The development of skills for employment is an important international policy area, but one that has been relatively ignored in sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2010). In particular, concerns about the effectiveness and feasibility of skills transfer between education and the world of work, suggest that care must be exercised, especially when skills linked to employability are implanted within or added to existing programmes of study in universities (Dubbey, Chipofya, Kandawire, Kasomekera, Kathamalo & Machili, 1991 cited in Hall & Thomas, 2005; King, 2011). There is a significant problem of graduate unemployment and of graduates progressing to low skilled work in the non-formal sector in Zimbabwe. In many African countries, the second-class status of TVE makes young people hesitant to choose TVE as their career preparation (UNESCO, 2003). To make TVE more attractive, the curriculum should be designed to make articulation between TVE and the world of work (National Report on the Development of Education, 2009).

The link between universities and the world of work is weak or non-existent in many developing countries (Werfhorst, 2007). Baba, Shichijo and Sedita (2009), Bekkers and Freitas (2008), posit that, the link between universities and industries should yield a significant transformation in as far as TVE is concerned. As a result, there is need for a professional to continually learn throughout their career, with the intention of deepening their knowledge, skills, and staying abreast of developmental issues (Bekkers & Freitas, 2008; Sachs 1997). The skills and education system form a fundamental pillar for the success of an industrial policy. There is currently insufficient integration between industrial policy objectives and skills in the education system. There is therefore a need from much closer alignment between industrial policy and skills and education development, particularly with respect to sector strategies (DTI, 2009). The labour market is unable to absorb the existing university graduates while, paradoxically, there are not enough skills in the general labour force to stimulate the creation of firms in the technology fields to generate more jobs in these areas (Bekkers & Freitas, 2008).

Well-prepared vocational and career guidance should be available to TVE students making them fully aware of the nature of the curriculum, choices available and possible career opportunities. Transferability of skills from basic to advanced levels and flexible opportunities should help to enhance human capital development because without doing that, students may fail to be equipped with the relevant skills. Makochekanwa and Kwaramba (2010) lamented that the training the TVE students are receiving is not equipping them enough to face the world ahead of them. The contact time does not include attachment to industries but only theoretical aspects of their modules. If it does include the contact time, it will not give the students enough time to acquire all the relevant skills necessary for them to fit in the world of work. The practicals students do in laboratories are not relevant enough to equip them with the necessary skills. Kariwo (2007), states that universities play a crucial role in the economic development of a country. The same author further elaborates that in developing countries, universities are the only institutions which can produce manpower with the skills required by the world of work. Universities play a crucial role in society as producers and transmitters of knowledge. However, as a result of globalisation, such institutions are in a state of decline and this brings the situation to the attention of the International community (Kariwo, 2007), hence the researcher's interest in this area.

According to Turnbull, Littlejohn and Allan (2012) there is need for universities to equip students with skills that are relevant to the world of work. The same authors further maintain that there should collaborative learning strategies between universities and the world of work in this era when there is an outcry for the need to prepare students for the workplace. Harasim (2000) comments that nowadays there is a privilege which can allow universities to involve the world of work in coming up with the curriculum. Turnbull, Littlejohn and Allan (2012) maintain that in designing educational outcomes, collaboration, sharing of knowledge and ideas between lecturers, students and the workplace is greatly valued. The same authors further comment that when all parties involved cooperate with each other, and commit to the collaborative achievement of their intended goals imparting skills to students may not be a challenge. Furthermore, Turnbull, Littlejohn and Allan (2012) elaborate that

collaborative learning strategies between IHL and the world of work is growing at an alarming rate as lecturers seek improved ways to prepare students for the workplace. A curriculum designed as a result of this collaboration is likely to produce desirable results since the integration of views between the two parties involved will result in the production of wholesome students with qualities that satisfy the needs of both the universities and industries.

In many countries, if not all, the second-class status of technical vocational education makes young people hesitant to choose TVE as their career preparation (UNESCO, 2010). UNESCO (2010) suggests that to make TVE more attractive, there is need for the curriculum to be designed to make articulation of TVE in IHL possible. Well-prepared vocational and career guidance should be available to TVE students making them fully aware of the nature of the curriculum, choices available and possible career opportunities. Transferability of skills from basic to advanced levels and flexible opportunities should help to enhance human capital development because without doing that, students may fail to be equipped with relevant skills for them to be absorbed by the world of work.

Students completing at universities are not well equipped with relevant skills (Kariwo, 2007). The same author points out that students who complete in universities, from universities do not get the necessary skills. The Herald, 1 August, 2012's concern is that if students are not given the required skills at university level, there are limitations in their absorption into the world of work. As a result of this, the President of the Republic of Zimbabwe, President Mugabe established the ministry of Psychomotor skills in 2013 (NewsdzeZimbabwe, Tuesday, January, 21, 2014). This was as an attempt to ensure that students in institutions acquire relevant practical skills. President Mugabe affirms that:

That's why I am saying our education must have the psycho-motor elements. If you get an education and that education does not enable you to do things that education is hollow and we don't want hollow education and that's why we have a minister who should ensure that the psychomotor element in our education is vibrant (21 January, 2014:11).

According to Mawodza in The Herald, October, 14 2013, the Psychomotor ministry is a body of knowledge which will enhance skills development and proficiency in

industrial tasks among students in the country. The introduction of psychomotor skills development is an attempt to boost national human capacity development. Generally, there is lack of enough time for industrial attachment and inadequate training in TVE in universities (National Report on the Development of Education, 2009). The contact time does not include attachment to industries but only theoretical aspects of their modules. The practical lectures which are carried out in laboratories are not relevant enough to equip them with the necessary skills needed by the industry.

Ball (2002: 11) affirms:

Higher education will need to understand the nature of creative enterprises to help students and graduates to learn about the industry and how to access training and development opportunities. The implications are that staff needs to update their knowledge about the world of work, take more responsibility for preparing students for the transition to work and encourage multidisciplinary working to mirror what is happening in the workplace. This involves a shift towards an outward-looking culture providing a bridge with the real world, extending beyond the formal undergraduate curriculum. It will be important to seek out exemplary initiatives that achieve these requirements and disseminate these within both higher education and the creative industries sector.

According to Royal College of Art (1998) studies have shown that students who graduate from universities find it difficult to make a smooth change over from the universities to the world of work due to lack of skills and this hinders their progress. Furthermore, the same source further alludes that the students feel inadequately prepared to face the realities in the workplace and the students would have liked their course content to have been more inclined to the needs of the world of work. A study of Royal College of Art instituted that students feel discouraged the period immediately after entering the world of work due to lack of confidence, support and the increasing demands of paying for accommodation, transport and debts (Royal College of Art, 1998).

It is worth noting that similar results were produced by the study that was done into graduate design and craft businesses at the University of Brighton (Ball & Price, 1999). In this study, expertise and confidence in the workplace were crucial in one's transition from the universities into the world of work, yet these attributes were often found to be lacking in most students entering the world of work. Some of the students were quoted to have said *"If only someone would point me in the right direction I need someone to tell me what to do next"* (Ball & Price, 1999: 27). Burroughs (2000); Ball (1999) and Press and Cusworth (1998), established this to be a major concern since one can be taught to be an expert in an area, but it was difficult to teach confidence for it is an attribute developed in students as they learn through organised active learning, practical oriented projects, and collaboration between universities and industries.

Critics of TVE suggest that the success of such education in the developing countries depends upon its being made an integral part of the overall development plans of those nations (Kember, 2010). In fact, if this were done, the debate in favour of TVE would be resolved. But the question of how this proposal should be achieved still remains, just as the issue of how to integrate the academic and vocational courses in the universities was not adequately addressed by its advocates. Quality is an important issue in TVE delivery in universities for different stakeholders, for instance, MOHTEST, researchers, the academic staff, industry, taxpayers as well as government officials (Segers & Dochy, 2006). Quality is related to the aim of higher education institutions. Quality is defined by some as fitness for purpose or as effectiveness in achieving institutional goals.

According to Kapur and Crowley (2008), a high quality institution is one that clearly states its mission (or purpose) and is efficient and effective in meeting the goals that it has set for itself. Great universities nurture mankind's highest ideals and defend them against all odds. Their effectiveness as social and economic catalysts is measured by their ability to achieve excellence (Tether & Tajar, 2008). Therefore, quality assurance systems are systematic procedures aimed at monitoring and enhancing quality. It may provide users of the system with a guarantee that institutions, courses and graduates meet certain standards (Kapur & Crowley, 2008). Thus universities should give more importance to pioneering local and national

development by producing and transferring new knowledge and technology to the industrial sphere (Shane, 2004; Tether & Tajar, 2008; Bekkers & Freitas, 2008). However, in the educational setting, the concept of quality assurance refers to the intention and activities planned to assure quality, not the checking of academic standards.

According to Bogue (1998:10-12) there are at least four streams of activity in contemporary approaches to assuring quality in universities:

1. Accreditation and programme reviews: the more traditional approach embracing the principles of peer review and external standards.
2. Assessment and outcomes movement which calls for the development of performance evidence and attention to value-added questions.
3. Total quality management (TQM): invites institutions' attention to continuous improvement and customer satisfaction.
4. Periodic accountability and performance indicator reports. Lim (1999) argues that the 'best practice in quality assurance in higher education' includes:
 - (i) Establishing a mission for the institution followed by the functions that have to be carried out to achieve this mission and setting the objectives for each function;
 - (ii) A quality management system introduced to ensure the quality of the programmes;
 - (iii) An external audit system to assess the effectiveness of the management system;
 - (iv) Strong commitment on the part of university leaders and managers to quality advancement.

According to Lim (1999), there are two reasons for the introduction of quality assurance programmes in universities in developing countries such as Zimbabwe: firstly, simply because it is fashionable and secondly, it will improve the quality and relevance of their graduates and research programmes and thus enable universities to play a more effective role in the economy. Materu (2007) alludes that changes brought about by the transition to a knowledge economy have created a demand for higher skill levels in most occupations in Africa. As such, countries wishing to move towards the knowledge economy are challenged to undertake reforms to raise the

quality of education and training through changes in content and pedagogy (Materu, 2007). Higher education in Africa is critical to achieving this because the sector educates students in a range of disciplines and supports other levels of education including TVE. TVE aims to provide the country with a pool of trained and skilled manpower to meet the labour market's ever-changing needs (Patel, 2008). Such a labour force has better absorptive capacity for technological changes and innovation, while informed entrepreneurs can make better use of resources. Both are essential to greater productivity and economic growth.

It is only the technologically skilled who can exploit national resources efficiently. In the modern environment, scientific progress and innovation can effectively overcome many of the obstacles to development in the form of TVE (Patel, 2008). Therefore, the challenge for Africa in general and Zimbabwe in particular in an attempt to create this knowledge economy, is to improve the quality of its higher education in TVE. Quality assurance could play a key role in initiating this. In many developing countries, university education has moved from elite to mass education within a very short time and Zimbabwe's development is not isolated. In Hong Kong, for example, universities are visualised as centres of excellence catering for the privileged upper class but there has been a transition from elite to mass higher education within the past decade (Kember, 2010). A study of Kenyan universities by Sifuna (1998) investigating issues in public university governance that contribute to the rapid expansion of university education and its impact on the quality of education confirmed, among other issues, that unplanned growth of university education has led to a sharp decline in the quality of education in universities.

It is therefore apparent that the ZIMCHE intervenes in universities. The objective of government's involvement in universities is to ensure quality, maintain accountability and ensure the training of students meets the country's economic development needs. Kapur and Crowley (2008) postulate that the degree of government involvement in finance, admissions, and regulatory policies affects quality in TVE as well as efficiency, and innovativeness. Considering the crucial role of the state in most TVE systems in developing countries, government regulation must promote institutional autonomy, flexibility, and innovation to support improved quality, (Materu, 2007). The same author further comments that general policy framework,

institutional infrastructure, and incentive mechanisms of the higher education system have hampered efforts to make universities become the focus of technology transfer and indigenous technology development. Kember (2010) argues that universities have been unable to manage the different, often conflicting, functions of disseminating ideas, preparing society's leaders, training the labour force, and generating new knowledge.

Higher education policies deeply rooted in concerns for preserving cultural identity and forging national unity have created a climate that does not encourage the independent and innovative thinking necessary for academic research. This has contributed to the brain drain of the best technically trained nationals of developing countries to the industrialised countries, where the environment and conditions for advanced research are more favourable. This in turn adds to the scarcity of academic staff in the new technological fields in developing countries, and this is the case with universities in Zimbabwe. Bangladesh, India, and Pakistan, for example, have highly qualified professionals worldwide, but they do not benefit their own countries because of the lack of the necessary infrastructure and incentives.

By contrast, Korea has adopted science and technology policies designed to create incentives to bring expertise back to the country. Institutions are built and outfitted with the most advanced equipment to receive returning technical personnel (Castells, 2006). China is an example of a country that reoriented its TVE system to enhance its link with the industry (Yorke & Longden, 2004). After the Cultural Revolution, China realised that the old political and ideological functions of the universities had not brought about modernisation. A new emphasis on higher education and science and technology as the key to development emerged. As a result, the Chinese government launched a concerted effort to enhance the capacity of universities to carry out research linked to economic development needs of the country (World Bank, 2002). According to Yorke and Longden (2004), the leading national universities began to develop two types of staff: teaching faculty that spent 70 percent of their time teaching and 30 percent carrying out research, and research faculty who spent 70 percent of their time on research and 30 percent on teaching. As a result, university cooperation with industry and the National Academy of Sciences increased.

Another barrier to the link between universities and the world of work is the selection criteria used for students to take up TVE (Castells, 2006). Literature has revealed that selection of students in most countries is done through assessment of aptitudes and competencies as well as through examinations (Werfhorst, 2007). The performance of students in the world of work is determined by the calibre of students selected into the TVE programme. According to Werfhorst, (2007), the choice of access policies has implications for quality and efficiency. Thus inappropriate selection policies produce repetition, dropouts, and waste in IHL.

To promote quality and the best use of resources, admissions policies must be fair and be based on candidates' merits and ability to benefit from higher education and not otherwise (Castells, 2006). Access policies must also encourage institutions to respond to the demand for different types of TVE by different stakeholders, and to recognise and react to labour market signals. It is worth noting however, that to cope with excess demand and to ensure that graduates' skills are relevant to the labour market's needs, access policies should reflect the diversity in students' backgrounds and abilities. They should encourage institutions to adjust their objectives and programs to respond to this diversity, and to allocate students among fields of study and institutions according to ability and area of TVE desired. For this study, the link between industries and universities is one area to explore since it is part of the concerns raised by different stakeholders.

Selection for TVE is based on public examinations at the end of secondary school and access to universities is open to all who pass the examination (World Bank, 2008). In Zimbabwe universities are currently admitting only one out of four applicants (2,500 out of a pool of 10,000 per year). Applicants are admitted based on their grades at "A" Level (Dubbey, Chipofya, Kandawire, Kasomekera, Kathamalo & Machili, 1991 in Hall & Thomas, 2005; King, 2011). There are no selection policies to achieve equity and no evaluation of the adverse impacts of selection criteria (World Bank, 2000). Ensuring the quality of intake of students becomes all the more important in as far as the delivery of TVE in universities is concerned (Yorke & Longden, 2004; World Bank. (2000). Selection policies influence the quality of educational outcomes. Selection for quality is necessary if TVE is to produce the

type of graduates that will push forward the frontiers of knowledge and technological innovation in the world of work.

However, it can be observed that in some cases, some students are placed into TVE programmes so as to suit the timetable. Such moves can impact negatively on the students' skill acquisition for they will be lacking intrinsic motivation (Maree & Frazer, 2008). The same authors further argue that students have a better chance of finding employment if they take up TVE at university level if only they do not take up TVE programmes as a last resort or as a third choice. In line with this, Yorke and Longden (2004); World Bank (2000) comment that students who are placed in TVE classes are sometimes unfairly placed without the use of correct standard of selection. There is a danger of misplacing students because some of them are young and immature to make informed decisions at "A" Level. Some students may choose a wrong programme because of peer pressure without making an informed decision. Thus, using "A" Level examinations results to select students with a flare in TVE is a noble idea as students with the right aptitude and ability for technical subjects can be channelled to the correct track (Dubbey, Chipofya, Kandawire, Kasomekera, Kathamalo & Machili, 1991 in Hall & Thomas, 2005; King, 2011).

Universities need to develop better criteria for assessing students' potential for benefiting from TVE and better performance-based measures of the outcomes of university training. Maree and Frazer (2008) posit that marks and grades provide objective criteria for assessing students' performance and help to place students in identifiable groups. These students are placed in different classes according to the way they would have performed in a particular test. The same authors argue that while achievement test can be important in TVE guidance, achievement test data by themselves have limited meaning. They need to be augmented by other information-data about interest, and aptitudes- to arrive at the best decision possible.

In many developing countries admissions tests may not be valid in predicting applicants' ability to benefit from TVE in universities. Often a lack of staff qualified in assessment techniques and practices hampers the development of reliable measures of achievement and learning ability. It has been instituted that assessment

can have immense implications and can cripple a student permanently if it is not authentic (Maree & Frazer, 2008). For example, the selection instrument in Cameroon does not correlate with educational or labour market outcomes. Rather, it is a convenient tool given limited resources and places, and the need to give all taxpayers' children a fair chance to enter publicly-funded institutions. Similarly, in Uganda the demand for TVE in universities continues to expand despite no assurance of employment and the lack of relevance of the studies offered to the world of work. On the other hand, China uses its university selection examination to guarantee the quality of education and to make the best use of its resources. In the 1970s Chinese authorities replaced national examinations based on academic criteria with family background and political criteria. This policy crippled China's universities and slowed its economic growth for a decade. China reinstated the rigorous national academic examinations in the 1980s as part of its modernization effort. The current policy is to achieve a certain level of development through high quality TVE, and to address equity problems gradually.

In Malaysia a small TVE sector has been equated with quality. TVE spaces were restricted and selection policies were supposed to select the top performers to ensure that all students graduated with appropriate skills. However, it should be noted that selection and recruitment policies will determine the quality of graduates produced; the level of knowledge and skills they attain; and their adaptability, creativity, and entrepreneurial skills. Such issues are an important dimension of the policy and institutional setting of TVE, and will influence the pace and success of change and development in the world of work in many countries. On the contrary, it should also be noted that failure as signalled by assessments can reduce self-esteem, lead to inhibited social relations associated with shame, can take the enjoyment of learning and close employment avenues (Harlen, 2007). Given these effects, assessment should be fairly and accurately done and hence the relevance of including this aspect in the current study since it is one of the concerns students have in colleges. What is of relevance to this study is that the selection of students into TVE in universities plays a crucial role in determining the quality of graduates produced; the level of knowledge and skills they attain so that they can be absorbed into the world of work.

The curriculum is usually situated within a discipline, which determines the curriculum contents and the disciplinary norms and expectations that shape the academic culture and values and the ways of learning which are expected or assumed (Crosling, et al 2009). It is however supposed to act as a bridge between universities and the world of work. Literature reviewed showed that an inappropriate curriculum has led to the production of graduates whose skills and specialisations do not reflect those needed in the labour market (Quinn et al., 2005; World Bank. (2000). It is argued that the curriculum ought to be culturally relevant to support widening participation and to prepare graduates for living and working in a diverse society (Crosling, Edwards & Schroder, 2008). Heagney (2008) and Thomas (2002), argue that most IHL in developing countries are finding it difficult to produce students with skills needed by the world of work because of the irrelevant curriculum. Bamber and Tett (2001) recommend that relevant course material should be used in TVE programmes in universities. Similarly, Haggis and Pouget (2002) suggest that there is need to strengthen the links between the curriculum and students' own experiences and views of the world.

Blackwell et al. (2001) argue that the higher education curriculum should offer students the opportunity to reflect on employment and other experiences to explore the learning and skills development that is involved in these activities. Barrie (2005) similarly argues that the TVE undergraduate curriculum from the first year onwards should assist students to develop 'graduate attributes', which, amongst other things, will assist them in future employment, and life more generally. There is need for learning and teaching to develop personal, social and employability skills (Glover et al., 2002). The same author further argues that the extension of partnerships between IHL and employers are essential to improve the employability of graduates. The literature reviewed above is of paramount importance since it helps the researcher to focus on critical issues that may provide answers to how the relationship between universities and the world of work may pose challenges in the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities.

2.3.4 Support systems in place to enable the delivery of CT

Hellinger (2002) regard monitoring and support as an in-class support system designed to provide assistance directly to the lecturer. For this to work, it must be frequent and continuous. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2002) have emphasised the need for monitoring or scanning as an important factor in the success of any lecture room activity. It may be physical design or implementation process of any learning activity which seeks to ensure that input deliveries, work schedules, targeted outputs and other needed actions are proceeding according to plan. It includes periodic checks for compliance with policy, tracking implements delivered and re-examining the needs of the programme as per original design. According to UNESCO (2007), monitoring is the regular observation and recording of activities taking place in a programme. It is a process of routinely gathering information on all aspects of the project. To monitor is to check on how project activities are progressing. Monitoring is observation, systematic and purposeful observation. Ornstein and Hunkins (2004) define monitoring as the continuous process of ensuring that the implementation of the plan is proceeding smoothly.

Monitoring involves the collection of information about the project in progress. The emphasis is on continual feedback about the ways in which the resources are used and the manner in which implementation is being conducted and also giving feedback about the progress of the programme to different stakeholders and beneficiaries (Mogobe et al, 2007; Pohan et al, 2011). These data are constantly fed back to those people involved in the programme so that the immediate changes and adjustments can be made (Birdsall & Kelly, 2007). According to UNESCO (2007), there is need to evaluate programmes that are being offered in universities so as to check on quality as well as to see whether they are achieving their intended purpose. Regular monitoring enables policy makers to check on the effectiveness of the programmes through the results they produce, as well as to check on the expenditure in the delivery process as well as to dictate challenges before it is too late (UNESCO, 2007). According to Mogobe et al, (2007) when monitoring is done properly, policy makers and stakeholders are in a position to evaluate the worthiness of the programme against the outcomes, thus it should be an ongoing process.

In as far as TVE delivery in universities is concerned; it is thus the duty of Chairpersons and deans of relevant faculties, ZIMCHE officials as custodians of curriculum delivery to monitor the programme (Coleman, 2005). The chief instructional supervisor at university level is the chairperson. Monitoring and evaluation have become integral components of any reform process (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2004). More so, the chairperson's leadership is critical to the success of the delivery of TVE in universities. The overall duty of the chairperson is to provide the means for curriculum delivery through ensuring that enough time contact time has been allocated to each TVE programme on the university timetable, the classes are well resourced with adequate instructional materials (Word Bank Report, 2008). The World Bank Report further posits that it is also the duty of the chairperson to ensure that an environment that is conducive to learning prevails. The other role of the chairperson is to guide lecturers in interpreting the curriculum through lecture observation and ensuring that lecture schemes of work, lecture plans, and records of marks are prepared regularly in accordance to the departmental requirements.

Hellinger (2002) posits that monitoring involves the chairpersons looking at lecturers' weekly plans and the learning objectives, as well as goals they are working towards achieving. This includes assessing students' levels of performance and progress by examining the garments they are making in their practical lectures, seeing to it that the skills being imparted to them are relevant enough to meet the demands of the world of work ahead of them. Zepeda (2006) postulates that teaching is the primary work of lecturers. It should be the basis for in-class assessment of teaching and learning for both lecturers and students. This is necessary for universities if the curriculum has to be delivered in accordance to its objectives. Supervision reports have to be written in every semester for every lecturer so as to monitor the way they are delivering the lectures. However, it is worth noting that formal monitoring procedures by themselves do not produce better results as revealed by Coleman, (2005). The same author argues that all research on effective TVE delivery in universities show that paying constant attention to students' academic performance is key to success. This is in line with findings of the U.S. Department of Education (2004:11) that successful chairpersons *"analyse instruction and student learning through regular lecture observations and provide detailed feedback to lecturers that*

supports instructional improvement".

Coleman (2005) and Hellinger (2002) argue that many good monitoring practices go unreported because of the isolation of lecturers, universities and policy makers from each other. In light with the above, monitoring thus exposes new ideas to scrutiny and this helps in weeding out mistakes before it is too late and further helps in developing promising practices. However, Mutopa, Shumba, Shumba, Maphosa and Mubika (2006) posit that knowledge of the job description of chairpersons is still very limited although monitoring is one of their critical key result area. Nonetheless, there is continued interest in the way chairpersons run their day-to-day activities in order to enhance quality delivery in TVE programmes in universities (Hellinger, 2002). The researcher agrees with the above assertion as lack of monitoring can cause problems of lecture delivery, students' commitment to TVE programmes and unfair distribution of resources in TVE departments. According to Mutopa et al (2006), this will adversely affect the delivery of the CT Curriculum in universities.

In most Sub-Saharan countries TVE suffers from lack of qualified personnel to monitor it (Gill et al., 2000). As a result, TVE has not been successful in Zimbabwean Universities. This has been attributed informally by the media to various environmental such as unsuccessful monitoring and evaluation strategies being employed by university authorities as well as higher and tertiary education officials (Daily Sun, 2011). Kariwo (2007), states that policy makers have given universities the authority to monitor quality in their own institutions. However, this arrangement has produced good results in some universities whilst some were found wanting (Kariwo, 2007). ELVASED (2008:7) reiterates that; *"many good programmes do not always add up to good policy, good programme documents do not necessarily translate into good projects and good projects do not always ensure the success of a programme"*.

Everard, Morris and Wilson (2004) affirm that it is impossible to get all information from the monitoring system, and this is why follow ups need to be done in the form of evaluating the programmes. This is also true with CT curriculum where there is need for serious monitoring in universities to see whether the programme is being implemented in the designed way. These same authors comment that data used for

monitoring can be used at a later stage as additional information which also can be processed in the analysis and reporting stages in evaluating the programme. It is important to note that when a programme has been well monitored, it will call for a reasonable budget, thus serving on resources. In line with this, Kariwo, (2007) further postulates that another impediment has been the general neglect of consistent and organised monitoring strategies. Such issues can impact negatively on the development of human capital through TVE since lecturers may not get necessary support. These professionals can lose the chance of being corrected at the opportune time. This has plunged the entire effort of quality delivery of TVE in universities into a hopeless future.

In cases where monitoring has occurred, little or no attention has been paid to the outcomes. This implies that there is often no effective feedback, thus scarcely any communication between the various actors within the delivery process, and virtually no hope for modification of the strategy, and consequently for an effective programme (Musegedi, 2007). Birdsall and Kelly (2007) allude that at times these programmes lack thorough monitoring resulting in ineffectiveness of these programmes. With reference to Universities in Zimbabwe, Musegedi (2007) posits that since universities are autonomous, their approaches to ensuring quality in TVE vary from institution to institution. Literature reviewed shows that programme implementers should have the ability to monitor and support progress of the programmes at hand for accountability to ZIMCHE. Given these effects, monitoring should be fairly and accurately done and hence the relevance of including this aspect in the current study since it is one of the concerns stakeholders raised with regards the delivery of TVE in universities.

2.4 Summary

Section A of this chapter discussed the theoretical framework that informed the study. Section B reviewed literature covering an array of issues that were raised in the research questions centering on the impact of students' perceptions on the delivery of TVE, skills lecturers possess for quality delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum, the relationship between the Clothing and Textiles curriculum

and the world of work. The study also reviewed literature on support systems in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities. Chapter Three gave an insight on the design and methodology that was used in this study.

CHAPTER THREE

3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presented the research methodology and methods that were employed in the study. Creswell (2003) posits that a methodology in research refers to the strategy or plan of action that links methods to outcomes and governs the choice and use of methods. According to Bryman (2004), a research methodology is a method that is used to collect data in research. It involves use of a variety of data collection instruments namely the interview, questionnaire, observations and document analysis. All the data that was gathered during data collection emanated from the research questions that the researcher had designed in chapter 1. The research questions were as follows:

3.2 Main research question:

How is the Clothing and Textiles Curriculum delivered in Zimbabwean universities?

3.2.1 Sub-research questions

1. How do students' and lecturers' perceptions on TVE impact on the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum?
2. What skills do lecturers possess for quality delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum?
3. What is the relationship between the Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the world of work?

4. What support systems are in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum?
5. How can an integrated approach to Vertical and Horizontal discourse be achieved in Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities?

3.3 Orientation of the Research/ Research Paradigm

Research paradigm is a perspective about research held by a community of researchers. It is based on a set of shared assumptions, concepts, values and practices (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Thus it is an approach of thinking about and doing research. Maree (2007) is of the opinion that a paradigm is a set of assumptions or beliefs about fundamental aspects of reality which gives rise to a particular world view. Paradigms serve as the lens or organising principle by which reality is interpreted. According to Du Plooy (2003) a paradigm is a fundamental image of the subject matter within science. It serves to define what should be studied, what questions should be asked and what rules should be followed in interpreting the answers obtained.

Paradigms have to do with knowledge claims. Paradigms like a foundation hold the whole research together and enable researchers to follow principles that make it possible for other researchers to authenticate the results. As a result, the selection of an appropriate paradigm in this study to examine the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities was deemed of great importance for it determined the guiding philosophy behind the actual programme delivery process. In research, there are a number of paradigms namely: positivism, interpretivism and post-positivism (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). However, this study was conducted within the framework of the post-positivist paradigm. According to Ryan (2006), post-positivism aims to merge the negative labelling against positivism. Major principles of post-positivism are elucidated in the paragraphs that follow:

Wolcott (1990:31) cited in Ryan (2006) comments that:

Post-positivist researchers do not see themselves as inevitably solving the problems they set out to investigate. Research can answer questions and indicate causes and coming up with the right questions. This does not mean that we go off conducting research without an idea of what is to be investigated.

This principle of post-positivism was applicable to this study. The researcher was guided by research questions so as to solicit information from the respondents during the data collection phase. These questions enabled the researcher to remain focused on issues on the delivery of the CT curriculum in Zimbabwean universities and saved as evidence that the researcher was aware of what she wanted to establish regarding the topic under study.

The post-positivism paradigm values and encourages different approaches and encourages insights that extend beyond the realm of measurable facts (Ryan 2006). Post-positivism is a shift away from positivism. It is a wholesale rejection of the central tenets of positivism (Trochim, 2006). Post-positivist paradigm aligns in some way with the interpretivist or constructivist paradigm (O'Leary, 2004). Post-positivists see the world as ambiguous, variable and multiple in realities. The post-positivism is a knowledge claim that challenges the absolute reliance on one knowledge claim as advocated by interpretivists and positivists (Maree, 2007; Creswell, 2003). This was relevant to this study since the researcher was interested in gathering evidence that could be used to examine the delivery of CT curriculum in universities.

Ritchie and Rigano (2001) posit that the post-positivistic approach to research opens the door to multiple methods and different world views as well as to different forms of data collection and analysis so as to provide and justify that rigor in the process of carrying out the research which are dimensions that were key to this study. The researcher also wished to maintain an interest in some aspects of quantification (positivism) yet at the same time incorporate interpretivist concerns around subjectivity and meaning, hence the researcher was interested in the use of the pragmatic combination of qualitative and quantitative methods to understand the delivery of CT curriculum in Zimbabwean universities (Maree, 2007).

Researchers working with this paradigm combine both qualitative and quantitative methods. The post-positivist paradigm emphasises the importance of multiple measures and observations, each of which may possess different types of error, and the need to use triangulation across these multiple errorful sources to try to get a better lead on what is happening in reality (Trochim, 2006). These data collection techniques produced both quantitative and qualitative data, which was compatible with the post-positivist paradigm (Maree, 2007; Bergman, 2008; Guba & Lincoln 2005). Post-positivism was preferred since it was suitable for this study since it accommodated ideas from both the positivist and interpretivists world views making it a flexible paradigm. In this study, the main sources of data were semi-structured interviews, self-administered questionnaires observation and document analysis. The post-positivism paradigm was suitable for this study because the paradigm facilitated the use of multiple methods and different world views as well as the use of different forms of data collection and analysis, which were dimensions that would be key to this study.

Hutton (2009) acknowledges that it is not possible to gain knowledge by using one method. Furthermore, Hutton explains that there are various routes a post-positivist researcher can use to get credible findings in a single research study. In this study, the researcher took advantage of this opportunity that post-positivism embraces and used a multiple data collection instruments (questionnaires, interviews, observations and document analysis) in a single study. The use of these multiple data collection instruments enabled the researcher to obtain both qualitative and quantitative data which is one of the strengths of post-positivism (Maree, 2007). Furthermore, this enabled the researcher to gain a deeper insight on how the CT curriculum is delivered in Zimbabwean universities. This view is supported by Kelly (2006) who affirms that triangulation enables researchers to understand a phenomenon better since they would have approached it from different angles. After data collection and analysis, the researcher was able to compare as well as to contrast results from both quantitative and qualitative data and measure to what extent they correlated or differed. By so doing, the researcher got total and well substantiated conclusions on the delivery of the CT curriculum in Zimbabwean universities. Therefore, from this discussion, it was of paramount importance for this study to be premised within the post-positivist paradigm.

Morgol (2001) maintains that positivism assumes that reality cannot exist separately from the knower. What it means is that the knower cannot be separated from the known. In the current study, this was useful in that it assisted the researcher in gaining knowledge on how CT curriculum is delivered in Zimbabwean universities. The researcher was careful enough to maintain a greater sense of subjectivity in this study for it was not possible to achieve objectivity (Maree, 2007).

Richie and Rigano (2001:752) state that:

In post-positivist research, truth is constructed through a dialogue; valid knowledge claims emerge as conflicting interpretations and action possibilities are discussed and negotiated among the members of a community.

In this study, the researcher managed to put into consideration the different views of lecturers, HODs, Operations managers and students towards the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities and the ways in which they reacted when they were being interviewed. This gave way to the debate which arose as the researcher discussed the findings which then prompted the researcher to come up with conclusions as well as recommendations.

Wolcott (1990:19) cited in Ryan (2006) maintains that:

In post-positivism, the researcher recognises the common humanity that connects researchers and the people who participate in research. We regard ourselves as people who conduct research among other people, learning with them, rather than conducting research on them.

This was relevant in this study since the researcher adhered to all ethical considerations when dealing with the respondents for she valued the humanity in them. In this study, all respondents remained anonymous to the reader since no one could identify them. Neuman (2006:142-146) maintains that “anonymity *is the ethical protection that ensures that respondents remain nameless; their identity is protected from disclosure and remains unknown*”. Furthermore participation was voluntary and those who volunteered had the right to agree or disagree to be tape-recorded during

interviews and any respondent was free to withdraw from participating in the study anytime he or she felt so.

Similar to Post-positivist ideologies are the views in pragmatism and realism. In pragmatism, the concern is “what works” best for understanding a particular research problem. According to Crossan (2003) what works is what is useful and should be used regardless of any philosophical assumptions, or any other type of assumptions. A pragmatic position implies the choice of a method that considers what will work best in a given situation to meet practical issues faced in an inquiry and thereby answer the research question (Trochim, 2006). Instead of “methods” being important as is the case in the positivism knowledge claims, the pragmatist views the “problem” as the most important part; hence, researchers should use all approaches to understand the problem (Creswell, 2003). As a result, Stewart and Floyd (2004) comment that data collection and analysis methods are chosen because they are most likely to provide insights into the problem with no philosophical loyalty to any alternative paradigm. A researcher’s research design should be planned and conducted based on what will best help him or her answer his or her research questions. Pragmatism, like realism and post-positivism, opens the door to multiple different worldviews and different assumptions as well as to different forms of data collection and analysis methods (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh & Sorensen 2006; Floyd 2004; Stewart & Floyd 2004; Crossan, 2003).

According to Healy and Perry (2000) realism concerns multiple perceptions about a single, mind-independent reality. Rather than being supposedly value-free, as in positive research, or value-laden as in interpretive research, realism is, instead, value cognisant; conscious of the values of human systems and of researchers (Krauss, 2005). Realism recognises that perceptions have certain plasticity and that there are differences between reality and people’s perceptions of reality (Bisman, 2002). From this discussion, it may appear difficult to separate the philosophies embedded in post-positivism, realism and pragmatism.

Some authors claim that realism is a branch of post-positivism (Maree, 2007) hence, the weaknesses associated with post-positivism may also apply to realism and pragmatism. From the above discussions, it has been seen that each paradigm has

its own strengths and weaknesses. Many of the criticisms made on one knowledge claim may apply equally to the other. For practical research purposes, there is not an automatic preference for one technique above another. From these considerations cited in the discussion, it was necessary for the researcher to locate the study in the post-positivist paradigm. This is supported by Healy and Perry (2000) who posit that, both qualitative and quantitative methodologies are very important and should be thoughtfully mixed in a single research study.

3.4 Research Approach

A research approach is the structure of research. It is the “glue” that holds all the elements in a research project together (Trochim, 2006). According to Maree (2007) there are different research approaches, namely quantitative, qualitative and mixed method approaches. Cresswell (2003:5) comments that the difference comes as a result of answers sought by the researcher to the following three questions:

- i. What knowledge claims are being made by the researcher?
- ii. What strategies of enquiry will inform the procedures?
- iii. What methods of data collection and analysis will be used?

Positivism, interpretivism and post-positivism including realism and pragmatism are the knowledge claims, among others. Cresswell (2007) postulates that the strategies of inquiry (traditions of inquiry or methodologies) provide specific direction for procedures in a research design. These strategies can be experiments, quasi experiments, or surveys (in quantitative studies), they can be ethnographies, case studies, or phenomenological research, (in qualitative study) (Creswell, 2003). This study adopted a mixed methods approach which is associated with post- positivist paradigm that combines the survey (quantitative) and the case study (qualitative) approaches. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches have their strengths and weaknesses, but when used together, these methods can be complimentary and allow for a more complete analysis of the research situation (Cresswell, 2007). This was useful in seeking answers to the research question: How is the Clothing and Textiles Curriculum delivered in Zimbabwean universities? The researcher preferred the mixed method research approach since it was very likely to provide a complete

understanding on the delivery of the CT curriculum in Zimbabwean universities. The mixed methods approach is discussed in the next paragraphs.

3.5 Mixed Methods Approach

The mixed method research is a procedure for collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative (QN) and qualitative (QL) data at some stage of the research process within a single study to address aspects of the same general research problem (Cresswell, 2007; Maree, 2007). Cresswell (2007) reiterates that mixing implies that the data or findings are integrated or connected at one or several stages within the study. The aim is to understand the research problem more completely. According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2006) mixed methods research is a type of research design in which qualitative and quantitative approaches are used in type of questions, research methods, data collection and analysis procedures, or in inferences. In agreement, Creswell, Plano Clark, et al (2003) as well as Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie (2003) state that mixed methods research is a research design with both philosophical as well as methods of investigation.

In this study, the qualitative (QL) data carried more weight as opposed to the quantitative (QN) data hence **QUALquan** (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). This was as a result of the fact that the research questions were more biased to qualitative than quantitative. The use of quantitative data in this research enabled the researcher to get reliable data that could be generalised to the entire population from which the sample was derived. Quantitative data in this study was in the form of a questionnaire which allowed the researcher to obtain information pertaining attitude, behaviour, or performance instruments (Cresswell, 2003). In this study, questionnaires were administered to lecturers, HODs and industrial personnel. After collecting data, it was easy for the researcher to arrange the large amounts of data obtained to numerical summaries or into graphs or charts which made analysis easier as well as providing answers to the research questions (Ngulube, 2009). Furthermore, quantitative data enhanced examining of lecturer competency, perceptions of lecturers and students, the relationship between universities and the

world of work as well as monitoring strategies in place in universities to enable the delivery of the CT curriculum.

The advantage of using Qualitative data enabled the researcher to quantify phenomena in data collection and analysis since data is expressed in the form of words revealing the attitudes, values as well as feelings of the respondents (Babbie, 2010). Qualitative enabled the researcher to gather data through interviewing respondents, analysing documents as well as doing some observations in the areas under study. The use of interviews in qualitative allowed the respondents to supply answers in their own words. By using document analysis, the researcher was able to get more information from documents like university policy documents, curriculum being used in universities, schemes of work, work plans among other things and from the industries, inventory, yearly records of students taken for attachment, correspondents with universities, as well as students' log books.

In Mixed methods research, the qualitative approach enabled the researcher to observe phenomena and interpreting events as they occur in their natural settings with the aim of capturing the richness of everyday behaviour (Stangor, 2011). In universities under study, the researcher managed to observe lecturers as they taught the CT lectures in the workrooms or laboratories. This enabled the researcher to gain an understanding of how lecturers taught, how knowledgeable they were to the subject matter, teaching methods they used, lecturer student interaction, the type of machinery and equipment used as well as the quality of artefacts students were producing as part of their coursework. On the other hand, the researcher managed to visit Clothing and Textiles industries and had the chance to see students and their supervisors in the sewing rooms, doing their day-to-day work as well as getting a chance to see the type of equipment and machinery that is being used in industry. This permitted the researcher to get first-hand information on how CT is being delivered in universities.

The use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone. This allowed the researcher to learn information on how CT is delivered in the universities and to draw inferences that could not be achieved by using a single approach. Thus it provided a

potential for substantial strengths that the component approaches could not achieve when used singly. In so doing, one method gave greater depth while the other gave greater breadth and this provided results from which the researcher could make better inferences. A researcher can use the strengths of an additional method to overcome the weaknesses in another method by using both in a single research study. For instance, words, pictures, and narrative can be used to add meaning to numbers and numbers can be used to add precision to words, pictures, and narrative (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Qualitative and quantitative research used together produced more complete knowledge necessary to inform theory and practice, added insights and understanding that might be missed when only a single method was used as in the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities (Cresswell, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). If the researcher had used one approach in this study, for instance, the quantitative approach only, she was not going to get a chance to see the students and lecturers in their natural setting, that is the workroom or laboratory, neither was she going to see the activities in the sewing rooms in industries. As a result, the use of the mixed methods approach enabled the researcher to take advantage of the qualitative approach so as to counteract shortfalls of quantitative data in finding answers on how the CT curriculum is being delivered in universities.

According to Trochim (2006) mixed method research is supported by post-positivistic as well as pragmatic and realism ideals as they advocate the use of multiple measures and observations, each of which may possess different types of error, and therefore need to use triangulation across these multiple errorful sources to try to get a better lead on what is happening in reality, hence the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods to collect data in this study. Investigations using mixed methods research may count participants' correct responses (quantitative) and also collect narrative descriptions of some behaviours or information (qualitative) in order to construct a data set that more completely answers the research questions (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

In mixed methods research, the researcher collects both numeric data (scores on the survey instrument or ratings) and text data (open-ended interviews or observations) either concurrently or sequentially (Cresswell, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

Sequential procedures imply that the researcher collects both the quantitative and qualitative data in phases (sequentially) while concurrent procedures mean that the researcher will collect both quantitative and qualitative data at the same time (concurrently) (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed concurrently. The researcher then chooses variables and units of analysis which are most appropriate for addressing the study's purpose and finding answers to the research questions. In mixed method research, the researcher constructs knowledge about real world issues based on pragmatism which places more emphasis on finding the answers to research questions than on the methods used (Patton, 2002). Cresswell (2006) maintains that in mixed methods research, the researcher is given the flexibility to use as many instruments for collecting data as possible and this enables the researcher to collect more meaningful data. This is unlike in quantitative research where the researcher has limitations regarding the data collecting instruments he or she can use in a single study.

In mixed methods, both qualitative and quantitative have their strengths and weaknesses, but when used together, these methods can be complimentary and allow for a more complete analysis of the research situation (Cresswell, 2007). Mixed methods research provides strengths that offset the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative research (Cresswell, 2006). The same author further argues that quantitative research is weak in that it does not give room for one to get an idea of the natural setting of the phenomena under study. This catered for researcher bias which is associated with qualitative research. As a result, quantitative and qualitative complement each other hence in this study they were used to examine the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities. On the other hand, qualitative research is seen as deficient because of the personal interpretations made by the researcher, the ensuing bias created by this, and the difficulty in generalising findings to a large group because of the limited number of participants studied. The researcher preferred the mixed method research approach since it was very likely to provide a complete understanding on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities.

The use of different data collection instruments enabled the study to counteract the

criticisms that are levelled against qualitative and quantitative data. The study collected data from different sources using various data collection tools which gave greater truthfulness in as far as the findings are concerned.

Below is a summary of the research framework:

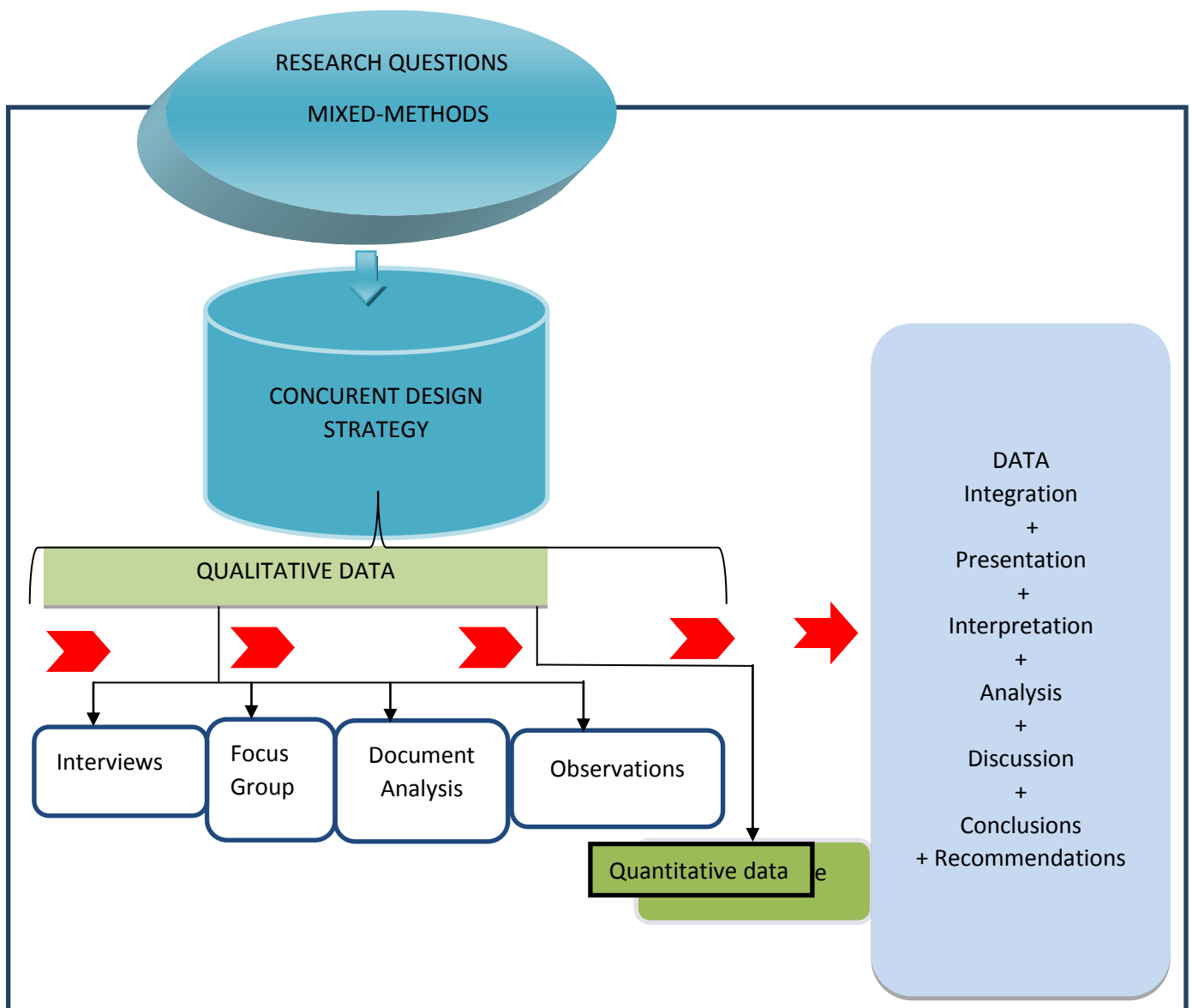


Figure 3-1: Study framework (Own Source)

In the above diagram, qualitative data (interviews, focus groups, document analysis and observation) and quantitative data (questionnaires) would be collected and analysed concurrently.

Table 3-1: Data collection instruments that fall under different research questions

RESEARCH QUESTION	DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS
How do students' and lecturers' perceptions on TVE impact on the delivery of Clothing and Textiles?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus Group Discussions (FGD) • Questionnaire • interviews
What skills do lecturers possess for the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FGD • Questionnaire • interviews • Document analysis guide (DAG) • Observation
What is the relationship between the Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the world of work?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FGD • Questionnaire • interviews • DAG
What support systems are in place to enable the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FGD • Questionnaire • interviews • DAG • Observation

In this study care was taken to ensure that there were appropriate data collection instruments employed to ensure that the required data was collected concurrently on each research question.

3.6 Research Design

A research design is the “glue” that holds all the elements in a research project together (Trochim, 2006). It is the structure of research which really outlines what the researcher seeks to find out from the study and how he or she will carry out the study. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) there are four basic mixed method designs, namely: explanatory design, the exploratory design, the triangulation design, the embedded design and concurrent triangulation design. This study adopted the concurrent triangulation design and this is briefly explained in this study.

3.6.1 Concurrent Triangulation Design

Concurrent procedures involve collecting both quantitative and qualitative data at the same time during the study (Cresswell, 2003). The researcher then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) the use of two different methods is an attempt to confirm, cross-validate or corroborate findings within a single study. According to Kelly (2006) triangulation involves the use of different types of instruments in a single research study. This enhances the researcher’s understanding of phenomena for he or she will be looking at the phenomena from various angles.

Triangulation has been widely used in social sciences due to its ability to aid accuracy in research (Stangor, 2011). This design uses separate quantitative and qualitative methods as means to offset the weaknesses inherent within one method with the strength of the other method. In this case, the quantitative data collection and qualitative data collection were concurrent, happening during one phase of the research study. In this design, the results of the two methods are integrated during the interpretation phase (Tashakori & Teddlie, 2003; Cresswell, 2003). The interpretation either may note the convergence of the findings as a way to strengthen the knowledge claims of the study or must explain any lack of convergence that may result. This gives room to well validated and substantiated findings.

In this study, the researcher obtained quantitative data by administering semi-structured questionnaires to lecturers. Qualitative data were obtained through interviews with HODs, industrial personnel, focus group discussions with students and observations. Documents with information on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum generated qualitative data. The data analysis and interpretation (transforming qualitative themes or codes into quantitative numbers), was similar with a concurrent triangulation design (Creswell, 2003). This enabled the researcher to compare and contrast results from the questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, observation schedules and documents on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities. Furthermore, this enabled the researcher to determine the extent to which the instruments did and did not concur with each other. Relevant data from each of the research instruments were compared when answering a specific sub-research question which enabled the researcher to develop more complete and well-substantiated conclusions on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities.

Various reasons for using concurrent triangulation mixed method design are cited in this study. Concurrent procedures are less time consuming than the sequential procedure (Creswell, 2003). It was the case in the current study which also capitalised on reducing the time for data collection, processing and analysis. The quantitative approach enabled the researcher to generate a large amount of data within a short time. In this study, the mixed method approach ensured that biases that might be innate in any single method should counter balance or eliminate the biases of other methods. Quantitative approach guaranteed less time for data analysis as the researcher used SPSS to facilitate the statistical analysis process. Quantitative data was used to triangulate the qualitative data while in other cases it was the opposite. The data supplemented each other during the data collection, data analysis and interpretation process. Population, sample and sampling will be discussed next.

3.7 Population, Sample and Sampling

3.7.1 Population

Wallen and Fraenkel (2000) comment that a target population is a population about which information is sought. It comprises all those potential participants that can make up a study group. A population can refer to a group of people that share one or more characteristics from which data can be gathered and analysed. Zimbabwe has a total of twelve universities, 8 of which are public universities and 4 private universities respectively. This study targeted all the 4 public universities that offer CT at degree level and 4 Clothing manufacturing industries. The population for the study comprised lecturers from the CT department, HODs of the faculties, CT students in the selected universities and industrial officials. The Universities were identified as universities A and B while the industries were identified as 1 and 2. In this respect, it was also convenient for the researcher in terms of money and time constraints to conduct the study in those institutions.

3.7.2 Sample and sampling methods

A sample is a selection of people from a population one is interested to study (Karavakas, 2008). From the above population, a sample was selected since it was not possible to carry out the study in all the universities and industries. The sample comprised 32 lecturers from the selected universities, 2 Heads of Departments (HODs), 24 students and 2 Operations managers from the Clothing industries. According to Babbie (2008) the ultimate purpose of sampling is to select a set of elements from a population in such a way that descriptions of those elements accurately portray the total population from which the elements are selected. Sampling is the process of selecting units (people, organisations) from a population of interest so that by studying the sample one may fairly generalise results back to the population from which they were chosen (Trochim, 2006). Sampling is the act, process, or technique of selecting a suitable sample, or a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population. In the same vein, Karavakas (2008) comments that the advantages of using sampling are that it makes the research practical and enables the researcher

to organise the research with ease. Furthermore, the same author states that sampling reduces the costs of research and saves on time.

3.7.3 Methods of Sampling

In research, there are two classes to which sampling methods belong (Babbie & Mouton, 2006). These are probability methods (representative sampling or random sample) and non-probability methods which are also known as a purposive sampling (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). According to Maree (2007) probability methods are based on the principles of randomness and probability theory whilst non-probability methods are not. In a probability sample, the chances of members of a wider population being selected for the sample are known whereas in the non-probability sample the chances of the wider population being selected for the sample are unknown (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

3.7.3.1 Non-probability sampling methods

The researcher purposively selects a particular section of the wider population to include or exclude from a sample (Maree, 2007; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). As a result, non-probability sample deliberately avoids representing the wider population. It seeks only to represent a particular group of the wider population, for example a group of Clothing and Textiles students in Zimbabwean universities. In this case, there is no attempt to generalise results. Small scale research often uses Non-probability samples which are more useful in small scale research because they are far less complicated to set up, are considerably less expensive and can prove perfectly adequate where researchers do not intend to generalise their findings beyond the sample in question (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The following are types of non-probability sampling: quota sampling, convenience sampling, dimensional sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling (Maree, 2007; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Purposive sampling technique has been selected because of its relevance to this study and it is discussed below.

3.7.3.2 Purposive sampling

According to Johnson and Christensen (2012) purposive sampling is a non-probability form of sampling. It is sometimes called judgemental sampling. In purposive sampling, the researcher specifies the characteristics of a population of interest. In this study, the researcher chose universities and industries. It has been stated that in this procedure, the sampling units are not chosen in a random manner. They are chosen on the basis of some of their characteristics. In this case, the universities that the researcher included in the study offered CT curriculum at degree level and the industries were Clothing manufacturing industries which take students from universities for attachment or placement.

The researcher then located the people with these characteristics. This is most common with Qualitative researchers. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) posit that in this way, the researcher builds up a sample that is satisfactory to his or her explicit needs. This was applicable in this study for the researcher purposively chose HODs, lecturers and students in the CT department and personnel from the Clothing manufacturing industries for they were perceived to be rich with information the study sought to establish on the delivery of the CT curriculum in Zimbabwean universities. The selection of institutions for study was also based upon considerations of feasibility and accessibility. The two universities in the study, (Universities A and B) were purposively selected since the researcher was interested in getting information on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum from students and lecturers who deliver the programme. The two universities are known to have expressed commitment in the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum that is type and relevance of programmes being offered and historical background.

The researcher was informed and convinced by this sampling technique adopted to gather in-depth knowledge on particular issues (on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum). By virtue of their professional role, expertise or experience HODs, lecturers and industrial personnel were rather purposively selected since they sought to have rich information on how the CT curriculum was been delivered in

universities. In this study, by purposively sampling the key informants and specialists cited above, data that addressed the research questions was generated. It was assumed that the HODs, lecturers, students, industrial personnel would have much first-hand information on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities.

It should, therefore be noted that, the purposive sampling is based on the assumption that a great deal can be learnt about issues of concern. For instance, in this research: a detailed study of a few information-rich cases was conducted on: The perceptions of lecturers and students towards TVE, competency of lecturers, The relationship between the Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the world of work and Support (including training) and monitoring systems in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum.

3.8 Data collection procedures

3.8.1 Initial consultations

The researcher's supervisor, Professor Duku, wrote an introductory letter granting the researcher permission to collect data (see Appendix 2). The researcher used the letter obtained from the supervisor to seek permission from the Human Resources managers of the institutions concerned including the industries. The letter informed them about the research, its purpose and duration. After permission was granted, the researcher made appointments with HOD's, lecturers and industrial personnel. The HODs helped the researcher to locate the relevant students and to organise them into groups.

3.8.2 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted as a final preparation to check the usability and effectiveness of the interview guide instruments and the validity and reliability of the closed and open-ended questionnaires. The pilot study helped the researcher to

establish clarity and reliability of the questions on both questionnaires and interviews in terms of content, wording question ambiguity, bias and sequencing (Borg & Gall 1993; Clark & Cresswell, 2014). Johnson and Christensen (2012) comment that it is a cardinal rule in research that the researcher must try out the questionnaire with five to ten people. Thus the purpose of a pilot study was to remove deficiencies on the instruments so that respondents found no difficulties when responding to instruments. Pilot testing was necessary to determine if the ways in which respondents understand questions are relatively similar across the group and whether the information was easily accessible to respondents. It was necessary to ensure that the items were such that responses correlate to what the study intended to measure.

As a result, there was need to confirm the strengths and weaknesses of the instruments to be used in the current study in terms of logical sequence of questions, wording and other unnecessary ambiguities. The research instruments to be used in this study were pilot-tested in Zimbabwe in different universities and Clothing industry, different from the ones the main study included. After pilot testing the instruments, necessary changes were captured and effected on the final research instruments. The participants of the pilot study were not part of the research sample for all universities and industries under study.

3.8.3 Data Collection

Since this study used mixed methods approach to collect both qualitative and quantitative data, appropriate data collection methods used in this study included: questionnaires (quantitative), face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions, observations and document analysis (which are qualitative in nature).

3.8.4 Interviews

According to Rowley (2012: 260) interviews are “*face-to-face verbal exchanges in which one person, the interviewer, attempts to acquire information from and gain an understanding of another person, the interviewee*”. In the same vein, Cohen and Manion (2006) observe that an interview is a conversation between two or more

people that is initiated by the interviewer for the purpose of obtaining research relevant information. Basically, interviews aim at collecting rich descriptive data that helped the researcher to understand the participant's construction of knowledge and social reality. In this study, 2 HODs from both universities were treated to in-depth face-to-face interviews, 16 lecturers and 2 Industrial personnel. The industrial personnel were given the interview guides in advance since they wanted ample time to prepare answers since they have tight schedules in their work places. According to Kelly (2006) an interview should not be too long. It should last for one hour and half at most so that the respondents' listening span would not be affected. In this study, interviews lasted for one hour. The researcher made sure that in as much as she wanted to get a lot of information from the respondents; she tried not to make the interviews too long.

According to Maree (2007) interviews fall into three groups namely: open-ended interview; semi-structured interview; and structured interview. In open-ended interviews, the focus is on the participant's perceptions of an event or phenomenon being studied. Maree (2007) posits that in structured interviews, the questions are detailed and developed in advance. There is not much probing in structured interviews since the questions are overly structured. This kind of interviews is used frequently in case studies or when dealing with large sample groups to ensure consistency. It is advisable to conduct the interviews with more than just one informant as a way of avoiding bias in the data to be collected. In semi-structured interviews, the participant is required to answer a set of preset questions that define the line of inquiry. In this study the researcher used semi-structured interviews to solicit data from the respondents as they allowed respondents to express themselves at some length (Sarantakos, 2005).

The advantage of using semi-structured interviews in this study was that they provided access to what was inside a person's head and they made it possible to measure what a person knows (knowledge or information), what a person likes or dislikes (values and, perceptions), and what a person thinks (attitudes and beliefs) (Cohen et al, 2000). The researcher was very attentive to the responses given by the interviewee since she needed to probe and seek for clarification of answers so as to

identify new emerging lines of inquiry that are directly related to the phenomenon under study. In agreement, Remler and Ryzin (2011:64) maintain that:

Semi-structured interview guide helps to ensure that each interview covers substantially the same topics, although the guide is meant to be a flexible tool not a standardised script. Some respondents may have a lot to say about certain topics and less about other topics, and the order of in which topics come up during the course of the interview may vary.

Brown and Schulze (2007) comment that a semi-structured interview schedule can be adopted to maintain a degree of consistency in the questions while allowing some flexibility with room to probe the participants during the interview. Probing allowed the researcher to solicit for more information from the respondents as well as getting clarifications on some aspects pertaining to the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities.

It is the duty of the researcher to establish good rapport with the interviewees since this is an extremely important factor in the success of an interview (Rowley, 2012). The same authors further highlight that it requires practice on the part of the researcher to create an open and relaxed atmosphere during interviews. This atmosphere may depend on where the researcher and the respondent sit level of privacy, body language or small talk. As a result, in this study, lecturers, HODs and Industrial officials were interviewed in their own offices at a time that was appropriate to them. The researcher requested to capture detailed notes during interviews by means of a voice recorder. After obtaining permission from participants, their views were recorded. The researcher used an interview schedule guide to keep the participants focused on the questions. The face to face interaction enabled the interviewer to collect verbal and non-verbal data. It availed a chance to contextually modify questions so that the interview maintained currency and relevancy. This way adjustment to insider perspectives of meaning was realised.

3.8.4.1 Advantages of interviews

The major advantage of interviews is their flexibility and adaptability (Babbie & Mouton, 2006). The researcher can probe further so as to solicit greater depth of information from the interviewee. This observation was considered relevant to this study since it suited the demands of qualitative research. Vague statements were also clarified when a researcher made follow-up questions and this helped respondents to get clarity on what information the researcher needed. In this study, this aspect enabled the researcher to solicit greater depth of information from the respondents. The interviewer built trust and rapport with respondents thus making it possible to obtain information that the individual probably would not reveal through other data collection methods (Babbie & Mouton, 2006).

3.8.4.2 Disadvantages of Interviews

Haralambos and Holborn (2008) are of the opinion that interviews have many setbacks in that the responses given may not be accurate and may not reflect real behaviour. Because of the presence of the researcher, participants may tell lies or they might not have the relevant information the researcher will be looking for. If the interviewees are aware of the researcher's perspective, they can give misleading data by providing information that the interviewer wants to hear (Rowley, 2012; 2005; Patton, 1990). As a result, the researcher was sensitive and never forced respondents to answer questions that they did not want to answer (Maree, 2007). Interviewees may be influenced by the presence of the interviewer and the answers given may be influenced by the way the interviewees define the situation (Patton, 1990). In this study, the researcher made sure that answers given by respondents were not influenced by the way the interviewees defined the situation since it is always cited as a problem in research. Interviews can be expensive and time consuming since they can require a lot of travelling as well as hours of training to develop interview protocol. Time was also required to transcribe and interpret recorded data.

In this study, several mechanisms were put in place in order to alleviate the effect of the above mentioned limitations. For example, bias was reduced by avoiding

gestures that were suggestive such as the nodding of one's head, giving remarks such as "yes or no", to authenticate or reject the participants' responses. Triangulation of data from all research instruments used in the study, further reduced bias.

3.8.4.3 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

Kruger and Casey (2009) define a FGD as a carefully planned series of discussions designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive and non-threatening environment. By opting for this design, the researcher sought to understand meaning from the students' point of view in a non-controlling and open way (Patton, 2002). Kitzinger (2010) regards focus groups (FGs) as a forum of group interviews that capitalises on communication between the respondents in order to generate data. According to Barber (2008) FGs can be viewed as group interviews, only that FGs do not rely on question and answer format as is the case with group interviews, rather they rely on the interaction within the group. According to Barbour (2008) focus groups in research are known to be especially effective in studying professional practices. In agreement, Karts and Williams (2001:4) point out that:

If researchers and educators want to create learning tools that appeal to students and teachers, or measure how teachers feel about sensitive curriculum issues, focus groups may be a useful departure point.

This explains why the researcher in this study opted for FGD as one of the data gathering instruments because the study at hand concerned the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities. A focus group interview was based on the assumption that group interaction would be productive in widening the range of responses, activating forgotten details of experience and realising inhibitions that may otherwise discourage participants from disclosing information on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum (Maree, 2007). FGD allowed for an in depth discussion on the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities. They allowed the researcher to have a greater understanding of what lay behind an opinion or how students approach an issue, in this case how students view the delivery of CT curriculum.

When planning a FGD, the first thing the researcher needed to do was to identify the type of people he or she wanted to be participants in the study and what he or she wanted to accomplish. Participants were selected on the basis of their interest and background in the topic under study. In this study, 24 (4th year) students in the CT programme were selected to form the focus groups. In the proposed study, the researcher conducted four focus group interviews for the students. There were 2 focus groups from each university comprising 6 students each. This was in line with the observation noted by Kruger and Casey (2009) who advise that focus groups are composed of 5 to 10 people. The researcher was alert to the purpose of FGD which was to select participants who were forthcoming and willing to disclose their opinions, experiences, feelings and thoughts. These fourth year students were rich with information on the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities and their experiences on attachment in their 3rd year were of great advantage to the researcher. The size was made small enough to allow participants to get opportunity to share experiences, yet large enough to allow for diversity. Too small a group results in too small a pool of ideas whereas too big a group does not allow full involvement of all members. The setting should be comfortable and participants placed so that they can easily see and hear one another.

The discussions were held in venues which were spacious and away from the lecture rooms and laboratories. In this study, the FGD were conducted in an environment which was stress-free and as near natural as possible (Kenny, 2005). In this way the researcher created a conducive environment where the participants felt free to spell out their views on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities. The researcher made sure that all students had an equal opportunity to participate and at the same time keeping the session moving so that the participants would not spend a lot of time discussing one aspect since the interest was to cover several aspects. Firstly, the researcher introduced herself to the focus group and she spelt out the objectives of the research. Ground rules were set so as to maintain order in the group. The researcher sought permission from the students to record the interviews. The discussions were based on the basic questions that the researcher had prepared in advance with follow-up questions in order to control the discussion and elicit the information required. The university students shared their views and perceptions on the delivery of the Clothing and

Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities. The researcher's role was to negotiate, communicate, record data, and facilitate discussions during the interviews.

3.8.4.4 Advantages of FGD

One advantage focus group interviews will bring to a study is rigour that comes by way of triangulating information collection methods (King, & Horrocks, 2010). Similar observations were noted by Babbie and Mouton (2006) echo the same sentiments when they identified that focus group interviews yield a large amount of interaction on the topic in limited time. This assisted the researcher since time aspect was an issue of concern when collecting data. FGD with students were an essential data gathering tool for this study in that the responses provided an in-depth view about the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities. FGD rely on the interaction within the group (Barbour, 2008). In this case, the researcher created an environment that was conducive to enable interaction of participants so as to solicit enough views on the subject under discussion as they think more deeply about answers and reflect critically upon them in their responses to others (Krueger and Casey, 2009, Maree, 2007). This was an essential data gathering tool for this study since the respondents provided an in-depth view. According to Maree (2007) group interviews are valuable because they allow diverse categorisations and sentiments to emerge, showing how participants reconstruct viewpoints in response to challenges.

3.8.4.5 Disadvantages of FGD

Information collected from focus group interviews may be biased through group processes such as domination of the discussion by the most outspoken individuals (Maree, 2007). In this study, the researcher overcame this problem by encouraging every member of the focus group to contribute as she directed the questions that needed elucidation to the seemingly passive students. This was done without making any participant feel discouraged and making sure the group did not divert its focus from the topic under discussion. All participants congregated in the same place at the same time which was a bit difficult since the potential participants live in different places and some had no lectures on the day the discussions were to be held. In this study, this was not a major challenge since all focus group participants were from the CT department. The HODs helped the researcher to assemble all the students by sending them emails and their response was overwhelming. Both quality

of the discussion and the usefulness of the information depended on the skill of the moderator to encourage discussion and to maintain focus. However, the researcher was alert not to over moderate since too much moderator control meant that the researcher would hear too little of the participants' own perspectives.

The views or ideas of an individual can be influenced by the presence of other people (Haralambos & Holborn, 2008). Chabaya (2007) notes that some participants may be reluctant to state their views in public or there may be power struggles in the group and this spoils the discussions. If the researcher is not careful, or does not remain focused and guide the group, it may divert and end up giving irrelevant information which the researcher would not have asked for (Barbour, 2008). In this study, the researcher was able to guard against such scenario during the discussions since she gave the focus group participants ground rules before the interviews commenced. It was one of the researcher's objectives to give each participant an equal chance to participate.

3.8.5 Questionnaires

Questionnaire investigations involve mailed or electronic distribution of the instrument that asks questions to the participants. They can be used to collect both quantitative and qualitative data from large samples of people in survey designs (Maree, 2007; Babbie & Mouton, 2006). According to Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2007) questionnaires can be administered in several ways including self-administration, post, telephone, and face-to-face interview. According to Maree (2007); Babbie and Mouton (2006) in postal surveys, questionnaires are mailed to respondents who have to read instructions and answer the questions. This makes it possible for respondents to respond accurately to the questions. Once the respondents have completed the questionnaires, they send them back to the researcher since a stamped and self-addressed envelope would have been provided to them by the researcher. This is an expensive way of collecting data. The expense can be increased when there is low response rate and the researcher is forced to send out reminders or incentives in order to increase participation (Babbie & Mouton, 2002). The researcher did not opt for postal survey because of the stated limitation hence she made use of self-administered semi-structured questionnaires.

The semi-structured questionnaires allowed the respondents to give their views freely using their own words (Babbie 2008). The questionnaire had both closed and open-ended questions. Open-ended questions enabled the respondents to give their own sentiments with regards the delivery of CT in universities.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) observe that in self-administered group questionnaires, data is gathered in large amounts from many participants concurrently as the researcher waits while a whole group of respondents complete questionnaires. Maree (2007) acknowledges that, many respondents complete the questionnaire within a short space of time and the researcher can clarify issues which are unclear to the respondents. The researcher's presence allowed her to clarify vague statements as well as to collect the questionnaires as soon as they are completed which enabled her to get good response rate (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Considering such advantages noted above, this study adopted the self-administered group questionnaires.

In this study, questionnaires had the advantage of soliciting different views from respondents and allowed for anonymity and privacy so that the researcher would get more truthful responses from lecturers on sensitive issues on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities (Babbie, 2008). Among other things, the questionnaire collected information on perceptions of lecturers and students towards TVE, lecturer competency, the relationship between the CT curriculum and the world of work and monitoring and training strategies in place. The questionnaire guaranteed the respondents anonymity since they were free to express their honest views on sensitive issues with regards to the delivery of CT curriculum which they were not free to express in interviews.

This enhanced the possibility of gaining more information from the respondents. Lecturers selected in each university completed the questionnaire while the researcher waited for them to complete them. Respondents sat individually so that they would not influence each other's responses. In support, Chabaya (2007) comments that filling in of questionnaires on the spot helps in minimising contamination of responses through discussions with others. The researcher waited until all questionnaires were completed. This was an advantage for it ensured a

100% response rate. To some extent, this overcame the problem that usually arises with the use of questionnaires, which is that a large number of respondents might not return the questionnaires (Maree, 2007). The fact that questionnaires were first be pilot studied ensured that the language used was easy to understand, not ambiguous to determine the time taken by respondents to answer the questionnaire and to ensure that the categories used would not confuse the participants.

3.8.5.1 Advantages of Questionnaires

Haralambos and Holborn (2008) postulate that the use of questionnaires is a practical way to collect data and can be used to collect large quantities of data from a considerable number of people over a relatively short period of time. In this study this aspect was useful in that the researcher managed to collect data from 16 lecturers who were located within different geographical areas. This also made it possible to save time (Maree, 2007). The other advantage of using questionnaires was that the results from this research could be easily quantified and be analysed quickly and easily by the aid of computers (Creswell, 2002; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

It was easy to administer group questionnaires since it was quick (time saving), easy to clarify issues to respondents as was observed by (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). It was convenient and fast to collect all instruments back from lecturers and this provided a higher percentage of responses thereby enhancing maximum rate of questionnaire return to the researcher.

3.8.5.2 Disadvantages of Questionnaires

Despite the reliability of questionnaire data, it lacks validity since some respondents may be unwilling or unable to give full and accurate responses to questions or they can simply tell lies. Respondents may interpret questions differently or wrongly if the researcher is not careful enough with wording (Cohen, et al., 2000; Merriam, 1998). The researcher was present to clarify questions which respondents did not understand. It is an expensive method of collecting data especially when they are to be distributed over a wide geographical area (Babbie & Mouton, 2002). However, costs were incurred during purchasing of stationery and printing of the questionnaires. On the other hand, costs were cut since the researcher distributed the questionnaires herself. When administering questionnaires, it is not possible to see how people act and react neither towards each other nor towards questionnaire

items (Maree, 2007). These limitations were overcome through triangulation (interviews).

3.8.6 Document Analysis

When one uses documents as a data gathering technique, one will focus on all types of written communications that may shed light on the phenomenon that one is investigating (Maree, 2007). Borg, Gall, and Gall (2003) posit that qualitative researchers often study written communication found in natural settings as data sources. Maree (2007) points to the usefulness of documents for theory building. Written data sources may include published and unpublished documents, company reports, memoranda, agendas, administrative documents, letters, reports, e-mail messages, faxes, newspaper articles or any documents that are connected to the study. In research there are primary and secondary sources of data (Maree, 2007; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

Primary sources of data are unpublished. These include a letter in a newspaper or a company report which the researcher has gathered from the participants or organisations directly (for instance, minutes of a meeting, reports, correspondence). In other words, these are the original sources of data. Secondary sources refer to any materials (books, articles) that are based on previously published works (Creswell et al., 2007). The researcher was careful enough to evaluate the authenticity and accuracy of the records before using them because not all information placed on the internet is accurate and not everything that gets written in a report is factually correct (Maree, 2007). Before choosing which document to use, the researcher verified what kind of document she would deal with, whether primary or secondary, official or unofficial communication.

Of great interest to this study were such documents that are related to the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities such as students' learning modules, log books, the curriculum being used or curriculum related information and other physical material present, policy circulars, course outlines, minutes of meetings, lecturers' records to solicit information on learning and teaching methods and topics to be covered. Beforehand, the researcher established which documents

she was likely to get access to. The researcher checked for evidence of Staff development workshops conducted and memos for students from industrial attachment. All the documents stated above served to substantiate the evidence from other sources (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The use of these documents was considered on the assertion that some of the uncaptured detail from universities by other sources could be fully captured.

3.8.6.1 Advantages of Document analysis

In this study both primary and secondary sources of data were used to enable researcher to develop an understanding of issues of the phenomenon under study (Yin, 2003). According to Maree (2007) the use of documents as a data collecting technique enabled the researcher to obtain a lot of data on the perceptions, values and beliefs of participants. Documentary research is more economical in monetary terms and on the time aspect. In this study, document analysis complemented interviews and questionnaires in the data collection process and enlightened the researcher on some aspects which needed elucidation.

3.8.6.2 Disadvantages of Document analysis

Documents are affected by time factor. The data sought might be out-dated and this will give a completely wrong picture of what is happening on the ground. In agreement, Maree (2007) posits that before selecting which documents to use, the researcher has to verify the publication date, lest one will be dealing with a phenomenon that has changed in recent years. This is true in this study for policies and curriculum change with time. These changes may be as a result of technological advancement (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The authenticity of documents can be compromised by the fact that the people may choose what to and what not to record. As a result, Creswell (2002) reiterates that, a researcher purposively selects the documents to look at during a specific study. The researcher therefore carefully used the documents at each university under investigation by selecting those that had a bearing on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities. However, the researcher was conscious that some of these documents could be counterfeit, as they may not be original documents but only produced for that moment to serve a certain purpose.

3.8.7 Observation

According to Maree (2007) observation is a systematic way of recording the behavioural patterns of participants, objects and occurrences without necessarily questioning or communicating with them. Observation entails studies that involve the systematic recording of observable phenomena or behaviour in a natural setting (Gorman & Clayton 2005). In the same vein, Baker (2006) reiterates that observation permits researchers to study people in their native environment in order to understand "things" from their perspective. Observation is a qualitative data gathering technique where the observer uses the senses to gather bits of data (Maree, 2007). However, in observation, it worth noting that the researcher has to decide on what to observe before designing a guide. In this study, for the data collection process, the researcher knew in advance what she wished to observe being guided by the research questions of the study and this served time.

Maree (2007) posits that in qualitative research there are four types of observations namely observer as participant, complete observer, complete participant and participant as observer. This study used the "observer as non-participant approach". The observations were centered on an observational schedule which is attached in the appendices section (see Appendices 8 & 9).

The researcher gets into the situation, but focuses mainly on her role as observer in the situation (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). The researcher did not influence the settings since she just sat in the university CT Laboratory and observed how the students were doing their practical lectures, operating the machinery and the assistance they got from lecturers. The same stance was taken for the observations that were done in the Clothing manufacturing industries. She noted down all aspects observed. The advantage of observation is that the researcher was able to record behaviour as it occurred. Leedy and Ormrod, (2005); Moyles (2002) are of the opinion that the fact that the researcher or observer is an outsider enables him or her to see phenomena about the situation in which the people involved may take for granted. Thus, observations enabled the researcher to understand the framework of the programmes. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) observations enable the researcher to discover phenomena that participants might not freely talk about,

for instance in interview situations. In this study, it enabled the researcher to collect data on the physical setting organisation of the universities' laboratories or workrooms, as well as the work rooms in the Clothing manufacturing industries.

In industries the researcher observed students on attachment in the work room. The artefacts they were producing were observed in terms of quality, and processes involved. This gave the researcher a chance to compare the quality of garments the students are producing when they are in universities and when they are on attachment in industries. The researcher also had the chance to see the type of machinery and equipment being used in the industries and how students were operating them. This however, enabled the researcher to gain a deeper insight and understanding and first-hand experience on the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities regarding how CT lectures are being conducted, in terms of the teaching methods used to impart knowledge and skills to the students, the type and quantity of machinery in the laboratories and the work students are producing in terms of quality and numbers. In line with this, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007: 396) allude that:

Observation provides a reality check, it can be of facts such as the number of books in a classroom, the number of students in a class, it can also focus on events as they happen in a classroom for instance the amount of teacher and student talk, and the amount of group collaborative work and even behaviour of students in general.

The researcher had a chance to see some artefacts made by students in line with their skills empowerment.

However, the disadvantage was that, when using observations, participants may want to impress the researcher or may not fully participate knowing that they are being observed. Participants are likely to behave differently, usually in the direction of what they perceive to be more socially approved or in accordance with the observer's expectations (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). The presence of an observer may also create an unnatural atmosphere. Another limitation is that the researcher can miss out on observation she or he will be noting down an aspect he or she has noticed.

The researcher may get carried away by focusing on a particular event and by so doing misses out on other aspects which will be equally or more important. The use of the observation schedule enabled the researcher to minimise on these limitations.

3.8.8 Data Processing

The quantitative and qualitative data that was collected in this study was raw and muddled. As a result, there was need for the researcher to process or prepare the raw data for analysis. According to Kothari (2004) data processing implies editing, coding, classification and tabulation of collected data. In other words, data analysis refers to a method of inspecting, cleaning, converting and modelling data. This was done with the aim of highlighting valuable information. The data needed organisation and trimming for it to be understood. According to Kothari (2004) the researcher will find suitable ways that will make this data orderly and to make it sensible so that it would contribute to the understanding of the research problem.

3.8.9 Editing

According to Kothari (2004) data editing is a process of examining the raw data to detect and correct errors and omissions. Editing of data enables the researcher to check the raw data for accuracy and to see if it would have been uniformly entered into computer for coding and tabulation since frequency tables and graphs will be constructed. In this study, editing involved identifying errors and omissions in the raw data, eliminating incomplete or invalid information and making corrections wherever possible to ensure accuracy, consistency with other data gathered, and uniformity of entries to facilitate coding and tabulation. Wrong entries were corrected by cross-checking the consistency of answers against responses to previous and proceeding questions. The qualitative data from the interviews, focus groups discussions, observations and document analysis which were handwritten were placed in groups or categories on the basis of common characteristics. For the handwritten notes, field editing involved completing, translating and re-writing the hand written notes immediately after coming back from the field so that the notes made sense. The tape recorded data was transcribed. Thereafter, the researcher came up with themes for the notes and these were entered on Microsoft word and

backed up in multiple sources including flash disks and forwarding copies to the researcher's email address.

3.8.10 Coding

Johnson and Christensen (2012) view coding as a process of marking segments of text data with symbols, descriptive words or category names. In the same line of thought, Kothari (2004) defines coding as the process of assigning numerals or symbols to answers so that responses can be put into a limited number of categories or classes appropriate to the research problem. In this study, the quantitative data was coded by assigning both symbols and numerals.

3.8.11 Classification

Data classification is simply the process of arranging or placing data in groups or classes on the basis of common characteristics (Kothari, 2004). In this study, classification was mainly done on the qualitative data. The qualitative data was re-read and code words were assigned to each text segments using the verbatim coding method. The codes were then collapsed into themes and categories. All the manually transcribed data were safely stored in a file.

3.8.12 Data File Creation

Quantitative data was analysed using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS). This was done to summarise data; compile appropriate tables and graphs; and examine relationships among variables. The data file was stored on a flash disk, the hard drive and a copy was sent to the researcher's email account for back-up. The hard copy responses to the questions were filled and kept safely.

3.8.13 Tabulation

Tables and figures were constructed from the SPSS data file to facilitate further analysis of the data.

3.8.14 Data Analysis

Since this study was premised within the framework of the post-positivist paradigm, both qualitative and quantitative data were generated and collected. Both quantitative and qualitative data were interpreted together (triangulation) and were analysed concurrently. Once all data had been generated and collected, captured, processed results were condensed. The SPSS programme package was engaged to process and analyse the data thereby providing a summary of the frequency counts, percentages and the calculation of appropriate indicators. The raw data from questionnaires was then captured by the computer in stages such as editing, coding, classification and tabulation (Kothari, 2004, Hills, 2000). The process of editing data enabled the researcher to check the raw data for accuracy and to ascertain that the data was uniformly entered into computer for coding and tabulation since frequency tables and graphs were constructed (Kothari, 2004). All the computer data was stored in a flash disk and hard drive for future reference.

Qualitative data was analysed using themes. Categories were identified that helped cluster the data into meaningful groups. Data from observations and document analysis were scrutinised for specific meanings they might have in relation to the study. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005) data analysis in qualitative research involves the following steps:

- Organising details about the case.
- Categorisation of data.
- Interpretation of single instances.
- Identification of patterns or themes.
- Synthesis and generalisation.

These steps were followed in this study albeit with changes where it was deemed indispensable. This was in an attempt to be rigorous. In this research, qualitative data were generated in form of handwritten notes and tape recorded. The tape recorded data was transcribed. The main task of the researcher was to categorise ideas, responses into various themes and sub categories. This was done by way of inductive coding which is the process of assigning numerals or symbols to answers so that responses can be put into a limited number of categories or classes appropriate to the research problem (Kothari, 2004).

The study also collected data that was numerical and such data enabled the researcher to make a summary of activities and to compare variables. This assisted the researcher in explaining the phenomena under study. The volume of data and type of data collected may vary in relevance making it difficult to identify themes or patterns in order to develop the analysis (Chabaya, 2007). As a result, the researcher took the necessary precautions in coming out with themes so as to minimise challenges inherent in the analysis of qualitative data. King and Horrocks (2010: 149) affirm that:

Identifying themes is never simply a matter of finding something lying within the data fossil in a rock. It involves the researcher making choices on what to include and what to discard and how to interpret participants' words.

Qualitative data analysis tends to be an ongoing and iterative (non-linear) process, implying that data collection, processing, analysing and reporting are entwined not merely a number of successive steps (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). After this discovery, the researcher managed to read the transcripts over and over again so as to establish likeness of themes. Great care was taken to rephrase these themes which entailed a high level of reflexivity. Matters arising from interviews, questionnaires, document analysis, focus group discussions and observations were blended together to come up with the findings of the study. However, it was the duty of the researcher to keep reliability and trustworthiness in reporting the findings.

3.9 Measures to ensure Validity, Reliability, Trustworthiness, Credibility and Triangulation

3.9.1 Validity and Reliability

Validity is an important component of research which tenders the result to be valid or invalid and as such, if the results are invalid, the purpose of research becomes useless. Cohen et al. (2000:105) concede that “*validity is thus a requirement for both quantitative and qualitative or naturalistic research.*” Validity in quantitative data is a critical issue and might be improved through careful sampling, appropriate

instrumentation and appropriate statistical treatment of the data. According to (Maree, 2007) reliability has to do with the consistency or repeatability of a measure or an instrument. High reliability is obtained when the measure or instrument can be replicated, that is do repeated measurements of the same phenomenon produce consistent results if the research is repeated on the same sample (Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). However, total reliability is difficult to achieve since human beings are not static in the way they perceive certain phenomenon. One cannot expect to have the exact findings in subsequent data collection procedures even though the sample is the same. Nevertheless, researchers need to strive towards achieving validity and reliability in research. In this study, the researcher ensured that the instruments were designed in such a way that they measured what they were supposed to measure, that is the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities.

Face and content validity of the data collection instruments was ascertained by the researcher's supervisor, Professor Duku, including colleagues from the School of Further and Continuing Education. Their main task was to add, edit or eliminate irrelevant items in the research instruments and ensure that there was adequate coverage of the topic being studied. In this study, the researcher tested for validity and reliability of the instruments through pilot studying, before their administration to reduce errors as explained in section 4.6.2. Triangulation of the different forms of data that was collected also added to the reliability and validity of the research process and the findings. The study also used more than four different data sources.

3.9.2 Trustworthiness and Credibility

The notion of trustworthiness centres on meaningfulness which in qualitative data would be applied to experiences (Suter, 2006). According to Guba and Lincoln (1985) trustworthiness includes credibility, transferability and dependability of research results. The same authors further argue that a qualitative study cannot be called transferable unless it is credible. In qualitative studies, an instrument yields trustworthy data to the extent that inferences made on the basis of the data are in fact accurate. This means that data must accurately describe what it is targeted to describe. In qualitative studies reliability is infused in terms of trustworthiness of data

collected. According to Corbetta (2003) this means the instruments used to collect data have to consistently produce the same results when repeatedly used especially with regards to the respondents' answers to enquiries made. In the study verbatim statements were used to enhance accuracy and trustworthiness.

In this study, the measure of trustworthiness was guided by Nieuwenhuis' (2007) model of trustworthiness. This model includes credibility, applicability, dependability, and conformability. Credibility was achieved by making full use of verbatim when reporting the results and applicability was achieved by careful selection of a diverse sample within the study context. Furthermore, dependability was achieved by rigorously following laid down procedure, while conformability took into consideration the need for compliance with both regulations of doing research with people consistent with set national and university standards. In this study, triangulation of different forms of data was done to check accuracy and consistence of the research findings.

Credibility was confirmed by having the participants review the descriptions of the interview so as to verify whether what was written down was what was intended to be communicated. In this study, credibility was achieved through peer debriefing, persistent observation and triangulation (Babbie & Mouton, 2006). Peer debriefing took place as the researcher further sought clarity on unresolved issues as well as briefing peers on research findings. The researcher met regularly with the supervisor to review decisions made and questions raised during the research as a way of enhancing dependability. Transferability was established through thorough descriptions that describe the context extensively and carefully until saturation of concepts occurred (Yang, 2006). Dependability and conformability were supported by documenting the logic of the research process so that reviewers could track the data and its source, and understand the data interpretations.

Triangulation was employed through the use of interviews, group discussions, questionnaires, observations and document analysis. The researcher discussed regularly with the supervisor any issues arising during the research as a way of enhancing reliability. Contributions and feedback from the supervisor also enhanced reliability of the study.

3.9.3 Triangulation

Triangulation in research is when a researcher seeks convergence and corroboration of results from different methods when studying the same phenomenon (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). This can substantially increase the credibility or trustworthiness of a research finding. Triangulation was effected through the use of more than four different data sources namely: questionnaire, interviews, focus group discussion, observation and document analysis. The use of multiple sources of data helped to deal with the problem of uncertainty and unclarified issues as these provided answers to the main research question through responses from research instruments. Briggs and Coleman (2007) pin-point that the integrity of being rigorous, careful and utterly accurate in processing information is the mark of a credible researcher. It is also noteworthy to heed the call for researchers to be transparent. Burtler-Kisber (2010) urges researchers to be transparent to participants and the public in order to enhance trustworthiness.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

According to Suter (2006:79) ethics are *“established guidelines that encourage responsible research practices and assure the protection of human participants.”* This definition highlights the researcher’s mandatory duty of keeping participants safe at all times. It picks on two key issues that researchers must be responsible and that incompetence has no place in a profession where millions of people could be affected by what a single researcher writes. Secondly it calls for researchers to eliminate injury be it emotional or physical. Cohen et al. (2000:105) posit that:

Ethics embody individual or communal codes of conduct based upon adherence to principles which may be explicit and codified or implicit and may be abstract and impersonal or concrete and personal.

Education is a social action, data gathering and analysis within this study inevitably impacted on the lives of other people involved in the study. As a result, it was worthwhile in this study to abide by ethical considerations as contained in the Faculty of Education Handbook of Post Graduate Qualification Policies and Procedures so as to ensure that individual rights would not be infringed upon.

3.10.1 Right to privacy and participation

In this study the right to privacy and participation was ensured in a number of ways. In line with the right to privacy and participation, is the idea of gaining entry into the universities and Clothing manufacturing industries where the data was collected. In this study, the researcher negotiated with gatekeepers for permission to access participants at research sites. In this case the gate keepers were the Human Resources management from both the universities and Clothing industries. This is as highlighted by Creswell (2003) that researchers need to respect research sites so that the sites are left undisturbed after the research study. The researcher ensured that participants were not forced to participate in the study but do it freely and voluntarily. This was reinforced by the use of the consent form which every participant read and signed before the commencement of each session. Creswell (2003) notes that participants have the right to participate voluntarily or to withdraw from the study at any time. Those who agreed to participate freely signed the consent form and participated in the study. The researcher also sought permission to use a voice recorder during both the focus group discussions and the interviews. This procedure was applied to the two Zimbabwean universities under study as well as the Clothing industry as the informed consent form contained a summary of the study.

3.10.2 Right to confidentiality and anonymity

In research, the right to confidentiality and the right to anonymity put the respondents at ease to give information which might otherwise be regarded as sensitive. Hence, it was important in this study that respondents were given an assurance of the researcher's adherence to issues of confidentiality and anonymity. According to Cohen et al (2000) confidentiality means protecting the privacy of respondents by keeping the data sources as confidential as possible while anonymity deals with disguising the identity of the respondents. As a result, in this study, no names of respondents were taken or recorded. This was meant to protect the respondents' identities and give them an opportunity to give their honest opinion without the fear of victimisation. For the sake of confidentiality and anonymity, universities under study were identified as universities A and B respectively and the Clothing industries were

identified as 1 and 2. The use of group data rather than individual data facilitated the retention of participant anonymity since no individual response could be traced back to the individual or the university under study.

3.10.3 Avoiding harm or damage to participants

According to Flick, Von Kardorff & Steinke (2004) in any study, if the researcher is not careful, it is possible to harm informants not only by exposing information about individuals but also by discussing them as a group, in a publication in a way which they may find harmful or which actually disadvantages them. Harm can be embarrassment, anger, irritation, physical and emotional stress loss of respect from others, negative labelling, invasion of privacy and damage to personal dignity. Since universities under study are public institutions competing for academic excellence, they will be protective of their credentials hence in this study the universities will be referred to as A and B. Clothing industries were also named 1 and 2. As a result, the research outcome was treated with vigilance to avoid harm or damage to the universities and industries. The researcher in this study adhered to issues of confidentiality as discussed under the section on “right of confidentiality and anonymity”.

3.11 Summary

This chapter discussed all the technological aspects that guided this study. The chapter looked at the different research paradigms that exist in nature and placed this study in the post-positivism paradigm due to its use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches to research. The research approach employed for this study was premised mainly on the post-positivist paradigm. The chapter further examined the different research designs in an effort to locate the study into its suitable context. After a thorough examination of the designs, the study fitted into the mixed method design that uses concurrent procedures in the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data. The chapter also looked into the population, sample and sampling techniques that were involved in the study. This gave insights into the population from which respondents were solicited. The chapter also defined the actual sample

and the techniques that were followed to arrive at this sample. Thereafter data collection instruments were detailed and these included questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions, and document analysis. Issues of validity, reliability and trustworthiness; data analysis; ethical considerations were also discussed in this chapter. Chapter Four will look at data presentation, interpretation and analysis of the findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

4 DATA PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents data under the following sections: skills lecturers possess for quality delivery of Clothing and Textiles, perceptions of lecturers and students towards CT curriculum, The relationship between universities and the world of work and support systems in place for quality delivery of CT curriculum.

Presentation and analysis of data was done in line with the research questions of the study. The major research question was: How is the Clothing and Textiles Curriculum delivered in Zimbabwean universities?

The sub research questions were:

1. How do students' and lecturers' perceptions on TVE impact on the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum?
2. What skills do lecturers possess for quality delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum?
3. What is the relationship between the Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the world of work?
4. What support systems are in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum?
5. How can an integrated approach to Vertical and Horizontal discourses be achieved in Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities?

4.2 The Sample

The sample consisted of 2 HODs and 32 lecturers. In addition there were 24 students who made up the four focus groups and 2 industrial personnel. For students, 4 focus groups were created with 6 students each. The 2 HODs, 16 lecturers, 24 students and 2 industrial personnel were treated to face-to-face interviews. The remaining 16 lecturers responded to the questionnaire. The codes that were used for this sample are illustrated in Table 5 below:

Table 4-1: Codes of respondents for the qualitative data

Data collection instrument	Respondents	Codes
Focus group discussions	Students enrolled for CT in the two universities	FGA1, FGA2, FGB1, FGB2 (where FGA1 = focus group discussion with students from university A number 1, FGA2= focus group discussion with students from university A number 2, FGB1= focus group discussion with students from university B number 1 and FGB2 = focus group discussion with students from university B number 2)
Interviews	HODs in CT department from the two universities	HOD-A – HOD-B (where HOD-A = interview with Head of Department from university A and HOD-B= interview with Head of department from university B)
	Lecturers in CT department from the two universities	UAL – UBL (where UAL = interview with lecturer from university A UBL=interview with lecturer from university B)
	Industrial personnel from the two industries	IP1 – IP2 (where IP1 = interview with industrial personnel from industry 1 and IP2= interview with industrial personnel from industry 2)

4.3 Biographic Information of Respondents

In this study biographical data has been included since it assisted the researcher to compare the data obtained from various sub-groups, for example number of lecturers who responded to the questionnaire and interviews; age, gender, academic post, academic qualifications and years of teaching experience. For instance, professional qualifications of lecturers will give a better understanding on whether or not they are suitable for the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities. Professional qualifications also have an effect on the lecturers' capacity to deliver the Clothing and Textiles curriculum. Biographical data provides a picture of the level to which these participants are likely to understand the delivery of the programme. The respondents' educational background is likely to influence their knowledge of the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum. With reference to academic staff, their ages, qualifications and experiences will determine the quality of data to be gained by the researcher from the questionnaires in order to answer the main research question of this study.

Table 4-2: Biographic data of University based respondents

Variables	Description of variables	Lecturers & HODs n = 34	Students N = 24
		%	%
Gender	Female	32.4	54.2
	Male	67.6	45.8
Age	18-24yrs	0.00	87.5
	25-31yrs	41.2	16.7
	32-38yrs	17.6	08.3
	39-45yrs	17.6	00.0
	46++yrs	23.5	00.0
Academic Qualifications	ZJC	00.0	
	“O” Level	35.3	
	“A” Level	64.7	
Professional Qualifications	CE	0.00	
	Dip Ed	0.00	
	BA	0.00	
	BED	29.4	
	Masters	64.7	
	PhD	5.90	
Teaching Experience	Less than 1yr	11.7	
	1-5yrs	26.5	
	6-10yrs	23.5	
	11-15yrs	26.5	
	16-20++	00.0	
	Over 20 yrs	11.7	
Academic Post	Junior Lecturer	41.2	
	Lecturer	35.3	
	Senior Lecturer	17.6	
	HOD	05.9	
Academic year of study	Year 1		0
	Year 2		0
	Year 3		0
	Year 4		100

As reflected in the Table 4.2, 34 lecturers participated in the study. Out of this number 11(32.4%) were female lecturers from university A. There were no males

from this university. Sixty seven percent were lecturers from university B comprising of 11 (32.4%) males and 12 (35.3%) females. Of the 34 lecturers, 11 (32.4%) were male while 23 (67.6%) were female. Of these 34 lecturers, 18(16 lecturers and 2 HODs) were interviewed and the remaining sixteen responded to the questionnaire.

In the focus groups, the participants were both male and female, 54.2% were females and 45.8% were males. Disaggregating information by gender in studies of this kind is necessary, especially when comparing trends across genders to make judgments of which gender is being affected in one way or the other. For instance industrial attachment affects both male and female students differently, hence the need to solicit ideas from both sexes. Female students, for instance, were the only ones who complained of being sexually harassed and gender discriminated when on attachment. Male students did not appear to have any complaint of that nature. However, although male students were not directly affected, they knew what was going on with their female counterparts.

Table 4.2 shows that the ages of participant lecturers ranged from 25 to 46 years and above. Of these lecturers, 14 (41.2%), were in the age group category of 25-31, 6 (17.6%) were in the age group of 32-38, 6 (17.6%), were in the age group category of 39-45, while 8 (23.5%) were above 45 years.

Data from the Table 4.2 indicated that all focus group participants from universities A and B were below the age of 40. This inferred that the experiences from such respondents were common hence they would feel free to open up their views to each other. From both universities, 18 (75%) students were between 20 and 24 years, 4 (16.66%) were between 25 and 29 and 2 (8.34%) were between 30 and 34 years. The distribution of the participants by age range revealed that the majority of them were in the professionally acceptable age group. There were no lecturers below the recommended minimum 20 years of age. This meant that the lecturers were mature enough for the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum according to the MOHTEST. According to MOHTEST (2007), for one to qualify as a University lecturer, he or she should have a minimum of 20 years. Lecturers' ability to deliver

Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities is based on experience which is likely to be influenced by their age. Lectureship in universities requires individuals who are mature enough to identify with what is involved in the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum. One such indicator of maturity in this profession was one's age.

Table 4.2 unveils that from universities A and B 12 (35.3%) lecturers had "O" Level as their highest academic qualification, 21 (61.8%) had "A" Level. One respondent (2.9%) had a qualification she obtained from France which was equivalent to "A Level". At the end of 4 years, which is "O" Level, one gets a certificate which enables him or her to proceed for "A" Level which completes secondary schooling. "A" Level certificate enables one to go to university or a technical or teachers' college depending on the passes attained and the career one wants to pursue.

Table 4.2 also shows that the majority of the lecturers, and HOD's, 22 (64.7%) in the universities under study were holders of a Masters' degree, 10 (29.4%) had Bachelor of Education degree (BeD) and a small percentage of these 2 (5.9%) had Doctor of Philosophy degree (PhD) qualification which is an added advantage in terms of professional qualification. The above data implied that 10 (29.4%) lecturers were under-qualified to teach in universities since they only had first degrees, BeD. Findings revealed that these lecturers were from university B. However, the problem is that these lecturers had just finished their degrees and were automatically employed by the same universities while lacking the necessary expertise. However, although data from the participants in this study indicated that the majority of these lecturers had higher academic qualifications; focus groups revealed that the lecturing staff fell short of the expertise to deliver Clothing and Textiles. It was reported by the HODs that for one to qualify as a minimum professional entry qualification for a university lecturer as from 2015 should be a PhD. This is as a result that the nature of training lecturers' received as well as their qualifications had a bearing on how they deliver.

Table 4.2 shows that 14 (41.2%) were junior lecturers, 12 (35.3%) were ordinary lecturers, 6 (17.6%) were senior lecturers and 2 (5.9%) were heads of departments. One observation is that there were a lot of junior lecturers (41.2%) in the CT departments in the universities that participated in the study. The researcher reasons

that this had a negative impact on the delivery of CT curriculum since they would not be conversant on issues regarding the delivery of CT curriculum, for example pedagogy. In this study, it was of paramount importance to obtain data pertaining to the number of years one has been teaching CT since this has a bearing on how one delivers CT. Data from Table 4.2 reveals that 11.7% lecturers had been teaching CT curriculum for less than one year, 26.5%, between 1 and 5 years, 23.53% had been teaching CT for between 6 and 10 years, (26.5%) had between 11 and 15 years and 4 (11.7%) had been teaching CT for over 20 years. These findings revealed that most of the lecturers (88.2%) had been teaching CT for less than 20 years. Only a handful had been teaching CT for over 20 years.

In this study, it was of paramount importance to consider the academic year of study of the focus group respondents since it had a bearing on the depth of information they would contribute to the study. All the students who participated in the group discussions were fourth year students. These had gone through their first, second and third year of study, hence they would provide the researcher with meaningful information on the delivery of CT curriculum in universities.

4.4 Skills Lecturers possess for quality delivery of clothing and textiles

In response to the question on whether or not lecturers specialised in CT, it emerged from the interviews with lecturers that all the lecturers had specialised in CT. However, data gathered from questionnaires with lecturers revealed that not all of them had specialised in CT. All lecturers in university A, that is 16 (100%) had specialised in CT. From university B, 5 (31.25%) had specialised in CT and 3 (18.75%) of the lecturers highlighted that they had specialised in Art and Design. After further probing on why they were teaching CT yet they did not specialise in it, the lecturers reported that they were teaching other modules with CT components for instance fabric dyeing, fabric printing but as time went on they were given more courses in CT due to staff shortages as revealed by lecturers in interviews. It was reported that they accepted the offer due to fear of losing their jobs. Thus it can be observed that in some universities, although lecturers had specialised in other

subjects, they were teaching CT. Consequently, some lecturers reportedly mentioned that they were lacking both content and pedagogic skills since they were not necessarily tailored to teach CT.

One of them stated that:

When I started, I was teaching Art and Design as a module in CT, but due to manpower shortages in the department I was completely absorbed in teaching all the modules. I could not deny for fear of losing my job.

Data was further solicited on when the lecturers specialised in CT as shown in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4-3: Years of attaining qualifications to teach clothing and textiles

University	1998	2000	2002	2003	2004	2006	2010	2012
UAL	2	2	1	1	1	1	0	0
UBL	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	4
TOTAL	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	4

From Table 4.3, it emerged that most of the lecturers (37.5%) in university A had done their specialisation more than 10 years ago. This is evidenced in Table 4.3 were 6 out of 8 lecturers had 10 or more years of specialisation. From the 6 lecturers, 2 specialised in 1998, 2 lecturers in 2000, 1 lecturer in 2002 and 2003. Two lecturers had 9 and 7 years of specialisation respectively. In university B, there is no lecturer with 10 years of specialisation; all of them have less than 10 years of specialisation as shown in Table 4.3 Two lecturers have 9, 7 and 3 years of specialisation respectively. Four specialised one year ago. It was noted that all these lecturers specialised in universities. This information was congruent with the data solicited in document analysis done by the researcher. The data from interviews with HODs exposed that the two HODs specialised in universities.

Information gathered from questionnaires also revealed that 6 (37.5%) lecturers from university A (UAL) had years of specialisation ranging from 17 years to 29 years. One (6.25%) had 23 years of specialisation, the other 1 (6.25%) with 22; 2 (12.5%) had 19 and 17 years of specialisation. Three (18.75%) had 6 years of specialisation. Six (37.5%) of these lecturers did their specialisation in universities and 2 (12.5%) attended Technical colleges. Information from UBL revealed that 1(6.25%) lecturer had 23 years of specialisation, 2 (12.5%) had 6 years. It was worth noting that 2 (12.5%) had 2 years, 2(12.5%) had 1 year and 1 (6.25%) was still on training. From these lecturers, 4(25%) specialised in universities and 4 (25%) in Technical colleges.

4.4.1 Lecturers training to deliver Clothing and Textiles

In this study, it was indispensable to establish whether or not lecturers were adequately trained to deliver CT for lecturers are the channel through which information passes to the students in the learning situation in universities. This is done by drawing from the goals of education and then lecturers get to execute them in a professional manner. During interviews lecturers 6 (18.75%) reported the fact that they were adequately trained to deliver CT. The reason provided by lecturers as deduced from their explanations was that they were producing good results or high pass rates in CT. For example respondent UAL said: *all the years we have had high pass rates in CT*. In support of this claim respondent HOD-B explained:

Yes, I have a Masters degree which is higher than the degree the university is offering. (HOD-B)

There were mixed feelings here for some respondents 10 (31.25%) alluded to the fact that they felt they were not adequately trained to deliver CT since the content they had was now out-dated. So much has changed since the time these lecturers graduated from colleges. Respondent UAL remarked:

Our content is out-dated since we trained more than 13 years ago. Trends in CT have changed so many times because of the new technologies so we need staff development.

Respondent HOD-A concurred with the view that the content or information they have from colleges and universities is out-dated, commenting:

I feel not adequately trained since there are so many changes that have taken place as a result, I need more training to keep at par with the changes in the Clothing and textiles arena.

It was reported through these interviews that when these lecturers got the training in colleges and universities, the machinery they were using were mainly manual. Due to technological advancement, the machinery being used have since changed and this makes them incapacitated to teach Clothing and Textiles. With regards to the content aspect, it was reported that some of the practical processes they learnt during training are no longer applicable nowadays. This is as a result of new and dynamic fashion trends, hence the need for further training.

Data from the questionnaire also showed that from university A, 8 (100%) lecturers felt they were adequately trained to deliver CT. In university B, a different picture was portrayed. Out of the 8 respondents, 6 (37.5%) emphasised that they had received enough training and 2 (12.5%) stated that they lacked the practical aspect of training.

There was also evidence to the fact that besides being qualified, lecturers lacked some experience to handle practical skills in CT for most lectures were done theoretically. Lecturers 15 (46.9%) reported that the training they received in colleges and universities did not equip them much on the practical aspect of CT and as a result, they felt they were incapacitated to deliver. They also reported that they did not know how to go about the practical part because of lack of enough training in colleges and universities.

Data were also elicited from respondents intended to find out from HODs whether or not lecturers in their departments possessed the required qualifications. The HODs from the universities under study commented that all the lecturers had the required qualifications. HOD-A exposed that:

One must have a diploma and a first degree in CT as a minimum requirement and a Masters degree in CT.

From document analysis, it emerged that all the lecturers had the minimum requirements to teach at university level, that is a first degree.

As a follow-up on the whether lecturers possessed the required qualifications, both HODs were in agreement that all the lecturers in their departments met the minimum required qualifications. This was also in harmony with the information gathered through document analysis. HOD-B reiterated:

Yes. They all have their first degrees hence they meet the minimum requirements

In response to the question on how staff turnover in universities has impacted on the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in the past five years, it emerged from the interviews with HODs and information obtained after analysing the documents that staff turnover has impacted differently to the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities.

There has been low staff turnover. (HOD-A)

There has been high staff turnover. During the time of economic meltdown, some lecturers resigned and the majority just disappeared. As a result, we are operating with skeletal staff. (HOD-B)

In response to how staff turnover has affected the delivery of CT in universities, the respondents had this to say:

There is a shortage of senior lecturers in the department (HOD-A)

Lecturers are overloaded with work. Instead of a lecturer taking up to 2 courses, one ends up taking 3 or more courses (HOD-B)

From such revelations, it was worth noting that staff turnover has a bearing on the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities. Information gathered from document analysis revealed that it was not automatic to have these lecturers replaced but it took some time, and up to this day some of these lecturers have not been replaced or some have been replaced by those students who have just completed their first degrees in the universities, like the case in the current study.

In order to bring out what was going on in curriculum delivery, respondents were asked to explain their areas of strength in the CT curriculum. Data form

questionnaires and interviews showed that most lecturers' (from universities A and B) 16 (50%) areas of strength were Wardrobe planning, Grooming, Experimental design in clothing, Cultural context of clothing and the society, fabric construction and product development. Of interest to note here is that it was reported that these can be optional or selective courses in CT which students may choose or not choose in an examination. They do not fall under the compulsory courses. This was also verified through document analysis.

Through triangulation, the study established that lecturers had difficulties in delivering some areas or courses in CT. Their responses have been shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4-4: Responses on courses lecturers are finding difficulties in the delivery of CT

Topic	Number of lecturers	Percentage (%)
Organic chemistry	16	100
Textile science and Technology	16	100
Garment construction	16	100
Experimental design in Clothing	0	0
Cultural context of clothing and society	0	0
Principle of Art and Wardrobe selection	0	0
Others		
Pattern making	16	100
Fabric printing and dyeing		

From the overwhelming evidence from both institutions of the greatest percentage 16 (100%), the following modules were identified to be posing challenges to lecturers: Organic chemistry, Textile science and Technology, Garment construction, Pattern making and fabric printing and dyeing. The study established that this would be a crippling factor in the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities since even the lecturers from university A who had alluded earlier on to be highly qualified, also reported that they were finding difficulties in teaching these courses. Responses from interviews with HODs and the questionnaires also depicted the same scenario. Substantiating this view, respondent UAL remarked:

These topics pose a threat in my teaching, as result I try by all means to avoid them or let students read for themselves about them.

Concurring with this view, respondent UBL reported:

There is no point for me to waste time on topics I am not comfortable in teaching. I will not even try to teach them for the fear of embarrassing myself in front of the students. As a result, I only concentrate on those I am comfortable in teaching.

This study established that universities had academically qualified lecturers who were lacking professional qualifications. The lecturers and the HODs had the minimum required qualifications. Although these had strengths in areas like Wardrobe planning, Grooming, Experimental design in clothing, Cultural context of clothing and the society, fabric construction and product development, they were not fully professionally qualified in the area. This is evidenced by the courses they highlighted as posing some challenges in their teaching which are very fundamental if one is to excel in CT.

4.5 Perceptions of Lecturers and students towards CT

This section of the study presents, analyses and interprets data on HODs', Lecturers and students' perceptions towards CT. From the findings it emerged that lecturers' views ranged from producing competent workers with required skills and to make consumers appreciate locally made clothes and boosting the economy through exporting fabric and clothes. The following were the views from the respondents:

Produce competent employees for the industry. Job creation through skills-acquisition thus producing an individual who is creative and enterprising and self-reliant. (UAL)

Job creation and provide our own clothing. (UBL)

Consumers to appreciate buying clothes made locally in Zimbabwe so as to boost local clothing manufacturers (UAL)

It's boosting the economy by exporting locally made fabric and clothes thus bringing foreign currency. (UBL)

However, one of the respondents was not sure what the mandate of CT to the Zimbabwean economy was. One would wonder what kind of a lecturer he or she is, one who did not know the mandate of the subject he or she taught.

I am not sure of the mandate of CT to our economy. (UBL)

As a follow up the respondents were made to respond to whether or not the university was responding to this mandate. On this aspect, lecturers had different views. Some were in agreement that the universities were responding to this mandate and some thought the university was not. Lecturers who were in agreement explained:

Yes, some university students have been absorbed in clothing manufacturing industries because of their competence and some are now entrepreneurs. (UAL)

Yes, through promotion of entrepreneurship skills and some students are now employed by industries because of the skills they have. (UBL)

Giving a totally different view some respondents argued:

No, products from universities are not competent since they lack hands-on skills because of lack of resources or machinery. (UAL)

No, universities should link with industries. What is being taught in universities does not align with the expectations of the industries. The universities are behind in terms of machinery. (UBL)

From these responses it was laid bare that some of the respondents (35%) were of the view that the universities were responding to the CT mandate since they were producing students who were marketable since some were now employed in the

Clothing industries because of the skills they acquired in universities. However, some (75%) had a disputing view since according to them; universities were not meeting their mandate for the students they were producing lacked hands-on skills because they had no exposure to the machinery and equipment. There was need to improve the link between universities and industries so that what is being taught in universities aligns with the needs of the industries so as to enable the universities to produce a holistic student with the theory and hands-on attributes of CT.

Data was also solicited to establish from lecturers through interviews whether they managed to teach every topic in the curriculum that they were expected to teach. There was overwhelming evidence that some lecturers did not teach all the aspects they were expected to teach. Validating this point respondent UAL explained:

I find myself concentrating on those topics I know best because of limited knowledge in some topics. (UAL)

Respondent UBL replicated the same sentiments remarking:

Shortage of resources makes me concentrate on some topics at the expense of others. I cannot concentrate on topics I know will pose challenges when it comes to the practical aspect. (UBL)

Corroborating this view, respondent UBL remarked:

I only teach for examination purposes. I concentrate on those topics I know examiners are fond of. (UBL)

From the data generated from interviews with HODs, it also emerged that lecturers did not cover all the topics they are supposed to cover in their teaching. This surfaced in their responses. The HODs had this to say:

At times because of limited knowledge, I find myself concentrating on those topics I am well versed with. (HOD-A)

We don't cover some topics e.g fabric printing and dyeing because of shortage of equipment to use. (HOD-B)

This study established from the analysed documents: the syllabuses and the lecturers' schemes and plans of work, that there was a great discrepancy between the topics in the CT syllabus, those they included in their schemes and plans of work and those that the lecturers actually covered or taught. Most of the fundamental topics were not covered. In concurrence, quantitative data also revealed that all lecturers 16 (100%) did not cover all topics that they were expected to teach. They alluded this scenario to competency issues, as a result they explained that they try by all means to concentrate on the topics they are well versed in.

The cause for concern on such type of teaching was the impact it had on the quality of students the University system would produce. The curriculum taught seemed immensely different from the one planned by the university. The researcher reasons that the end product from the university would be a raw one considering the fact that most lecturers concentrated only on theory leaving out the practical aspect of the subject as earlier stated and now it has been exposed that the same lecturers did not teach the entire topics they are supposed to teach.

In response to what helped the respondents teach, the interview held with lecturers unearthed that 8 (100%) of the lecturers in university A found most topics interesting and as a result, they often spent extra time trying to obtain more information about them. In university B, it was revealed that 3 (37.5%) revealed that the behaviour of students enabled them to deliver the lectures well. However, the other 5 (62.5%) lecturers stated that it was their personal approaches or the methods they used that helped them to teach. HODs from both universities, 2 (100%) disclosed that what helped them teach was that they found most topics interesting and often spent extra time trying to obtain more information about them and personal approaches or methods they used to teach. Data from students' focus group interview on what helped students learn was in concurrent with the lecturers' views on what helped them teach. Students 20 (83.3%) revealed that they made a point of looking at most of the suggested readings that went with the lectures beforehand and 4 (16.7%) attributed their ability to learn to the lecturer's approach. Findings from quantitative data exposed the same scenario as qualitative data that in universities A and B, 2 (25%) and 3 (37.5%) lecturers respectively expressed that they found most topics interesting and often spent extra time trying to obtain more information about them

and 6 (75%) and 5 (62.5%) from universities A and B respectively stated that it was the behaviour of students which helped them teach.

The fact that the majority of lecturers (50%) expressed that they found most topics interesting and as a result, they often spent extra time trying to obtain more information about them has a negative impact on the delivery of the CT curriculum. It goes without reason that teaching is not about the topics that are interesting to the lecturer but it is about all the topics the student is supposed to learn. The inverse is also true, that when some aspects of the curriculum are not interesting, the lecturers will not try to find more information about them. As a result the delivery of CT will not meet the required standard. After further probing on how the students helped the lecturers teach, the findings of the study uncovered that students were highly motivated to learn.

The high participation rate in lectures showed that (75%) of the students' who responded had read the topic beforehand as shown by the way they participated in the lecture when questions were asked by the lecturer. These findings correlated with what was revealed in the interview discussions with students that it was out of their own initiative to learn that they read on suggested readings beforehand that enabled them learn. This was also witnessed when the researcher observed some CT lectures for the way students participated and contributed in the lectures showed they had done some reading prior to the lectures. This made life easier for the lecturer for the students will be having some idea on what the topic will be all about even though they would not have understood everything they would have read about.

In response to challenges that kept students from learning the subject better, it was revealed that students were not happy with the way lecturers were marking their work, the way marks were allocated, taking time to give them back their marked work and labelling by other students. Students exclaimed:

I have discovered that when lecturers are marking our work especially essays, they don't award part marks. This makes me wonder whether

lecturer has read through my work or not or he or she has just decided to award a mark as a formality. (FGUA1)

In practical lectures, some students are awarded high marks which their garments do not deserve simply because they are the lecturers' favourites since they do not ask questions in lectures and they comment on anything pertaining to lesson delivery even when they notice something wrong. (FGUA1 & 2, FGUB1& 2)

It has become a practice that some lecturers award marks on the basis of the mark one attained in the first test or assignment. In as much as one will thrive to aim higher, the marks will not change. For example if you get 55, your range of marks will be in the 50s and if you get 70 or 80, that will be your range. This is unfair to students since no matter how hard you may work; your effort will not be realised or rewarded since the lecturer would have rated you already. (FGUB2)

Lecturers delay in giving us feedback, it may take a month or so before they give us back the work we had submitted for marking. (FGUA2 & FGUB1)

Most of the challenges students unveiled lay on the ways lecturers were conducting themselves with students in the delivery of CT, thus making them the sources of students' challenges in learning. It was also revealed through data elicited from students that poor processing of marks was considered a serious concern and was thus the most contested issue of all their worries. There was overwhelming evidence that some lecturers did not give immediate feedback to students after submitting their work for marking. This practice has been seen to be a major deterrent to students learning. From the findings of the study, when lecturers did not award part marks to students' essays, it gave students an element of mistrust and when marks are not allocated to students as they deserved, it became a challenge to the learning situation since it would be biased.

Views of lecturers were sought on whether the delivery of CT has increased or decreased their enthusiasm of teaching the subject. Lecturers interviewed remarked:

It has decreased due to shortage of resources which makes it difficult to teach some core topics in CT like fabric dyeing and printing. (UAL)

I don't feel confident to deliver CT lectures due to incompetence. (UBL)

Lecturers and students from other departments see the CT department as inferior. (UAL & UBL)

HODs who were interviewed had this to say:

It has decreased due to shortage of resources. (HOD-A & HOD-B)

Other departments see the department as inferior. (HOD-A & HOD-B)

Data from questionnaires exposed the same scenario as that of the lecturers and HODs. Findings of the study revealed that in university A, lecturers' enthusiasm had decreased due to various reasons. One (6.25%) lecturer commented that the enthusiasm has decreased due to management body which is threatening to close the department and they have taken some CT lecture rooms and gave them to other departments leaving CT students with limited rooms to operate in and 4(25%) attributed the decrease to lack of resources, poor state of lecture rooms. On the other hand, 3 (18.75%) expressed that their enthusiasm had increased since they found students and the programme exciting and because they were teaching courses in their areas of specialisation. In University B, study findings revealed that 5 (31.25%) lecturers had low enthusiasm since the students view CT as a course for low achievers; hence they did not take it seriously. However, 3 (18.75%) lecturers stated they had increased enthusiasm since they were learning new things through teaching CT.

From the data obtained through triangulation, results revealed that the majority of the respondents' enthusiasm of teaching CT had been decreased due to various reasons. There was an overwhelming response that shortages of resources and the fact that some lecturers and students from other departments viewed the subject as inferior were the major contributory factors. From study findings, the researcher deduced that most lecturers' were demotivated due to the limited resources in the CT department. It made it difficult if not impossible for them to teach some topics in the CT curriculum. Lecturers also reiterated that their morale has been dampened due to the fact that students and lecturers from other departments looked down upon them.

Giving totally different views, respondents whose enthusiasm has increased argued:

Yes, students and programme are exciting. (UAL)

Yes, I am teaching courses in my area of specialisation (UAL)

I am learning new things from students through teaching CT. (UBL)

From these revelations, it showed that there were some lecturers who still had the passion to teach CT for they were still finding the subject exciting. It is known that lecturers perform better when they teach courses or subjects they specialised in. The data also revealed that students were not empty vessels in a learning environment; they knew and understood some concepts which the lecturers did not understand. Students were active in the lecture rooms as they contributed to the learning process. Lecturers (45%) reported that the students also came up with brilliant ideas on the topics they were learning. Lecturers highlighted that this really motivated them to teach.

In the case of students' views on how their perceptions of TVE have changed as a result of their involvement in CT curriculum, students responded:

I now know that CT is not about textiles and sewing only but there is more to it e.g factory management, credit control, marketing. (FGUA1)

When I joined the university I had a negative perception about TVE but now due to exposure in industries I now know there is life in CT. (FGUB2)

I regret doing CT for other students see CT as a course for low academic achievers because of the low entry points required. (FGUA2 & FGUB1)

The fact that it was hard to get a place for attachment makes me wonder if at all I will get employed when I finish my degree. (FGUB1)

From these responses it was unveiled that students' views had changed in both positive and negative ways. From the data it emerged that before enrolling at the university, some students had limited knowledge on CT. Some students thought CT was about fabrics and sewing only, but after enrolling to study CT at university level, they were made to realise that there was more to it than just fabrics. However, on the contrary, some students regretted why they chose CT for it was seen as a programme for low academic achievers. Some students even lacked the confidence of whether they would get jobs upon completion of the degree programme considering the hassles they encountered when they were looking for attachment or placement places.

Views of lecturers were also sought on the criteria that were used to select students. Qualitative data revealed that these were mainly direct entry, maturity entry and on gender basis. Respondents explained:

Direct entry- where one needs to have 5 "O" Level passes including English and Mathematics with a C or better. A pass in "A" Level Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry or Biology will be an added advantage. (UAL, UBL, HOD-A & HOD-B)

Mature entry-This based on one's years of experience in the teaching CT and nothing else. (UAL, UBL, HOD-A & HOD-B)

Students enter on Gender basis, as per government requirement. (UAL, UBL, HOD-A & HOD-B)

Both lecturers and HODs shared the same view. It has been reasoned that this was as a result that the selection of students rested on policy issues that were contained in the university policy document. Document analysis authenticated this for the researcher established that there was a clause on the selection of students in university policy documents. On this aspect, both qualitative and qualitative data also revealed that students entered university through academic qualifications, (direct entry), maturity entry in which ones age and experience are prerequisites to enrolment and on gender basis. Entry by gender was perpetuated by the MOHTEST in the late 1990s so as to balance the number of boys and girls who entered university. Entry points for girls were lowered since the MOHTEST had realised that fewer girls were performing to meet the university entry points.

As a follow up on the way students were selected, lecturers also responded to whether or not the selection criterion being used affect the way students perceive CT. Lecturers and HODs shared the same views. They commented:

Low points needed for girls, because of gender policy make students perceive CT as a course for low academic achievers and a course which is not as powerful as other courses. (UAL)

Some students look down upon CT as a result of the entry requirements and they opt for other courses. This results in low enrolment. (UBL)

Because of the low points needed for girls, e.g 6 points, students see it as a programme for women.

Students perceive CT as a course for low academic achievers and a course which is not powerful. This results in low enrolment (HOD-A)

Some students shun it as a result of the entry requirements and they opt for other courses. Most students who enrol for the course do not have Mathematics which is a prerequisite. (HOD-B)

I was made to believe from secondary school that practical subjects are meant to cater for those who do not do well in the academic subjects, as a result it makes me have low esteem in as far as CT is concerned.(FGUA1)

We are labelled by other students as low achievers. (FGUAI & 2, FGUB1& 2)

The following information was obtained from respondents who responded to the questionnaire; From university A and B, all lecturers 16 (100%) responded Yes, since they felt the selection criteria affected the way students perceive CT curriculum. Lecturers from university A pointed out that the cut off points for CT are much lower than those in other faculties, for instance 6 points. Students value a programme based on entry points attached to it, as a result, there were very few students in CT curriculum compared to other Faculties in the university. The lecturers from university B commented that students see CT curriculum as a women's programme, CT students are looked upon by other students, even members of staff, including the management body since most students who enrol for the course do not have Mathematics which is a prerequisite.

Findings from the study revealed that the selection criterion being used affect the way students perceive CT curriculum. It emerged that students did not put much value to CT curriculum because of the low entry points required as compared to other disciplines like Law, Accounting. Some students got enrolled without all entry requirements. As a result students were not keen to study CT. They opted for other programmes, hence the low enrolment in CT. Students were looked down upon due to duration TVE programmes are given in universities, as well as low formal qualifications typically required as compared to other academic disciplines such as Law, Medicine, and Languages (Mumbengegwi, 2008). This perception has been perpetuated by the low entry requirements into TVE programmes.

On the same note, lecturers responded to how they rated CT students. Twelve (75%) rated the students as good, 4 (25%) rated them as average. HODs, 2 (100%) also rated the students as good. Findings from interview data revealed that 13 (81.25%) rated students as intelligent, while 3 (18.75%) also rated students as good. These findings showed that generally CT students were good regardless of the way they are selected into the programme. However, some lecturers rated the students as average performers.

Students also responded to how they rated CT lectures. Students commented: Fourteen (58.3%) students rated lectures as average, whilst 10 (41.7%) rated lectures as boring. No student rated lectures as very interesting or just interesting. According to the findings of the study, students rated lectures as average since they commented that: *“there is too much theory than practical.”*

Lectures were boring because:

In the lectures there were no hands-on because of inadequate machinery and equipment. Lecturers are not competent enough to teach most of the courses, e.g textile, designing, engineering courses, polymer science.

Data gathered unveiled that lecturers' lack of expertise may be the reason why they resorted to theory lectures at the expense of practical ones. This has made students to view CT lectures as boring.

4.6 Challenges lecturers are facing in the delivery of Clothing and Textiles

Views of lecturers were sought on what challenges they were encountering in the delivery of CT curriculum in universities. Of great interest is that the findings of the study revealed that capacity to teach, machinery and resources and relationship with industries were considered a serious concern by lecturers and HODs and were thus the most contested issues of all the challenges in the delivery of CT curriculum.

These were followed by the attitude of students, inadequate time for lectures and attitude of management. These results are shown in Fig 4.1.

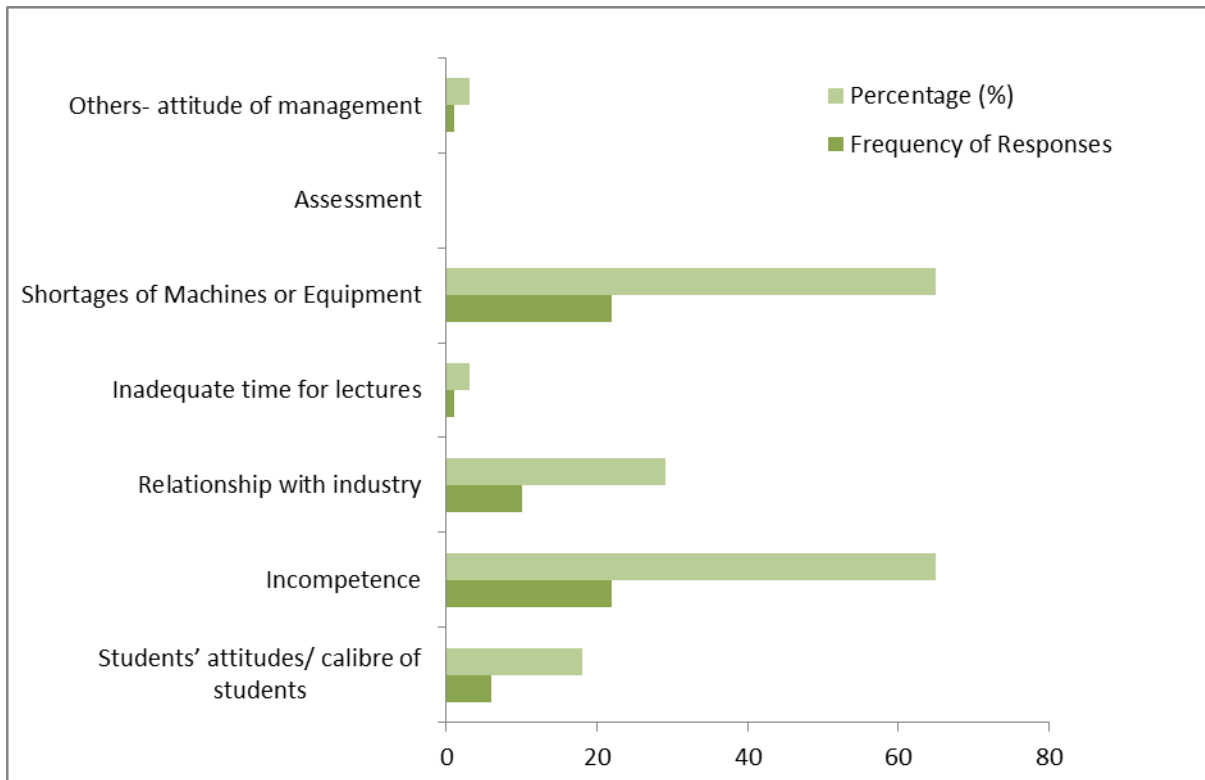


Figure 4-1: Frequency Distribution of lecturers' responses on types of challenges

The findings unveiled that from both university A and B, 22 (65%) lecturers exposed that lecturers were not well capacitated to deliver CT curriculum and 22 (65%) sited shortages of machinery/ equipment as one of their challenges. Ten (29%) lecturers felt their challenge lay mostly on the university's relationship with the industry. Six (18%) lecturers sited students' attitudes. Inadequate time for lectures and Attitude of management each had a frequency of 1(3%) lecturers. From figure 4.1, it was revealed that assessment did not cause any challenge to the lecturers for it had a frequency of 0. Data captured from questionnaires also portrayed the same picture. The majority of the lecturers from university A, 8 (100%) sited machinery as a challenge and 6 (18%) sited capacity and relationship with industries respectively. From university B, 8 (100%) revealed that the greatest challenge lecturers faced in the delivery of CT curriculum was incompetence, followed by 8 (100%) who sited

machinery and resources. Six (18%) sited relationship with industry whilst 1 (3%) sited inadequate time for lectures and attitude of management respectively. Assessment did not seem to be posing a challenge to lecturers.

As a follow up on challenges lecturers were encountering in the delivery of CT, lecturers 32 (100%) responded to what the universities have done to respond to these challenges through interviews and the questionnaire. It emerged from their responses (31.25%) that the universities were purchasing machinery at a very slow pace and in lesser numbers. Nothing has been done regarding staff development and the relationship between universities and industries. In response, lecturers had this to say:

Universities are trying to purchase machinery and other resources but at a very slow pace. Nothing has been done on staff development (UAL)

Currently not much has been done. Support in provision of some machinery and its maintenance is given but it is not adequate. The relationship between universities and industries remain shaky. (UAL)

The university is trying to purchase but still the student- machinery ratio is still far below the expected. Some machinery e.g. the bar tack, hemmer, elasticator are not available. (HOD-A)

Equipment is very expensive such that universities cannot afford. Most of this machinery are manufactured abroad, as a result, the university has to liaise with some industries with this machinery, but students just see the machinery. They don't have the chance for hands- on. (UBL)

Efforts are being made, though at a slow pace (HOD-B)

It emerged from the study that although universities were willing to purchase the machinery and equipment, lack of enough funds remains a major deterring factor. Purchasing of machinery and equipment is being hampered by the high cost of machinery on the market and the fact that some machinery has to be imported from overseas countries. The researcher reasons that adequate machinery and equipment is a prerequisite for effective delivery of the CT curriculum, hence lack of adequate machinery incapacitates them. Furthermore, poor resources and conditions hinder lecturers from performing to their best levels. The aims of the curriculum in vocational education is on enabling students to become operational by acquiring relevant skills which will make it possible for them to make a smooth transition from universities into the industries (Tribe, 2005 & Tribe, 2002).

Data were also elicited from respondents intended to find out teaching methods which lecturers use in the delivery of CT lectures. It emerged from students' focus group discussions 24 (100%) that research and presentations and group work were dominant methods used by lecturers during programme delivery in University A. This data correlates with what the two focus groups from university B stated in their responses. However, through triangulation of data, results from document analysis revealed that when scheming and planning what to teach, lecturers list different teaching methods, like whole class demonstrations, group demonstrations, spot demonstrations, question and answer, but when it comes to the actual lecture delivery, they did not use these methods. Thus findings of the study revealed that there were vast differences between the methods lecturers planned to use in lectures from the ones they actually used in lectures. Students had this to say:

They use group work, research and presentations. We are given a topic to research on in groups and one of us presents on behalf of the group. (FGA1)

Individual work- the lecturer gives us a task and we work individually (FGB1)

Research and presentations, where we are given a topic to research on individually, or in pairs or groups and one presents it to the whole class. (FGA2)

Discussions-the lecturer gives the class a topic and we discuss as a class (FGB2)

Data on students' focus group interview also sought data on the teaching methods they found more appealing. It was revealed that students had varying choices on the teaching methods they found more appealing for some preferred research and some discussions. Students explained:

I prefer research since whilst I am researching I get more information on a topic which helps me understand it better. (FGDA2)

Discussions are good since you get varied ideas on the topic as students share their views. (FGDB1)

Still on teaching methods, students responded to whether there were any other teaching methods they would prefer their lecturers to use. Students commented:

Spot demonstrations -As we are doing practical lectures, lecturers should do spot demonstrations, because we learn more when a lecturer spot demonstrates a process to us in groups rather than just explaining. (FGDA1)

Field trips- We visit textile companies and see how they do their work. We learn better by seeing the actual processes being done, e.g weaving than for the lecturer to explain it in class. One has to write a report on every company visited on how they do their work, management structure. (FGDB2)

From students' revelations, it emerged that students were yearning for teaching methods that allowed the lecturer to interact with them so that learning became alive when students understood better. On the same aspect, it was also revealed that students preferred teaching methods which allowed them to marry the theory they got in class with practice in the industries as they advocated for field trips.

4.7 The relationship between universities and the world of work

It a common practice in Zimbabwean universities that Clothing and Textiles students go for Work-Integrated Learning (WIL), commonly known as attachment during their third or fourth year of study depending on the duration of the course. It was the intension of this study to examine the kind of the relationship that prevails between universities and the world of work so as to get a clear picture on how the WIL was being done.

4.7.1 Contributions made by universities and industries in designing the Clothing and Textiles curriculum.

HODs, Lecturers, and industrial personnel responded to what contributions the industry has made in the designing of the CT curriculum. They explained:

By offering WIL places for students. (HOD-A)

We consult industry on content to include in the curriculum. (HOD-B)

By offering a WIL places for students. (UAL)

*Industries give us suggestions on how we should run our courses.
(UBL)*

Yes, at one time one university was planning to introduce a degree in textiles and it gave us questionnaires to fill. We gave them advice on how to go about the programme. The problem is the universities do not follow what we advise them. They consider what is comfortable with them. In as much as we want to assist, lecturers feel they are more learned than us , as a result they don't take seriously whatever we suggest, especially after assessing students on attachment. (IP1)

Yes, we get invitations from universities to participate in curriculum development. We give them hints on which topics to include both in theory and in practice and what practical aspects to concentrate on. We have come to realise that lecturers do not want to take our advice. You see students in consecutive years repeating the same mistakes we had advised lecturers to remedy at university level (IP2)

It was noticed that there was no evidence in universities of any document from industries showing their contributions to curriculum. It goes to show that there was a flaw in the way this curriculum was being designed. HODs were asked by the researcher as she went through department files if they had anything to show that the industries were participating in curriculum development, but they could not produce a single document. From records industrial personnel had filled, it was established that the documents showed the areas of improvement in the delivery of CT curriculum in terms of theory and practice and areas where students were not doing well which they wrote on yearly basis after students had finished their attachment. On this scenario, it was reported that the fact that there were no such documents in universities showed how adamant lecturers were to take up advice from industries.

In line with the same revelations, data from questionnaires data also revealed that the universities and industries did not work in harmony. From the 16 lecturers who responded to the questionnaire, 7 (43.75%) revealed that the industry had not been cooperative at all, 9 (56.25%) stated that it was not easy for industries to participate in curriculum development in universities. The findings revealed that when universities asked for advice on how to run CT courses, the industries were reluctant to help them. It was also unveiled that people in the industry thought the universities

wanted to produce students who would compete with them on the job market. The efforts by universities to include industries in CT curriculum in universities have been fruitless since industries were not forthcoming.

Data from interviews, focus group discussions, document analysis and observations showed that lecturers and HODs were in agreement that industries contribute to designing the curriculum through offering students places for attachment. 37.5% lecturers also highlighted that they consulted industry on what content to include in the curriculum and industries gave them suggestions on how they should run their courses. Of concern from the findings was that industrial personnel felt lecturers were not taking up their suggestions for they deemed them not worthy. Industrial personnel felt lecturers felt they were educated enough to take advice from people who work in industries. Year in year out there was evidence showing universities did not implement what they were asked to as evidenced by students' performance. Different students in different year groups kept on repeating the same mistakes, showing this was not remedied at university level. Document analysis done by the researcher revealed that there were documents in universities to show industries were participating in CT curriculum development in universities. On the other hand, findings from quantitative data revealed that lecturers felt industrial personnel saw university students as threats as a result they were not forthcoming in assisting universities in curriculum development.

On the issue of the main courses students cover in their first and second year, students' responses are tabulated in Table 4.5: Students' responses on courses covered in first year, second year and third year

Table 4-5: Students' responses on courses covered in first year, second year and third year

Respondents		Courses covered				
Year	Year 1		Year 2		Year 3	
	Semester 1	Semester 2	Semester 1	Semester 2		
FGUA1 and FGUA2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • history of fashion • management • figure drawing and anthropology • designing • figure drawing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pattern making and development • psychology • fashion forecasting • fashion illustration • textile science • pattern development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Product development • textile surface design • photography • fashion marketing and retailing • grooming and modelling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fashion & management • research methods & statistics • garment enhancement • entrepreneurship • CAD/CAM 	ATTACHMENT	
FGUB1 and FGUB2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fabric construction • yarn technology • weaving • dyeing & printing • fibres 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • organic chemistry • polymer science - engineering courses • programming • leadership & conflict • communication skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Textile dyeing & finishing • weaving • workshop technology 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fabric structure & properties • quality control • software engineering 	ATTACHMENT	

Table 4.6 reveals that in the first semester, the curriculum started with the basic or introductory courses to CT curriculum; History of fashion management, figure drawing and anthropology, figure drawing and anthropology and designing in university A and fabric construction yarn technology, weaving, dyeing and printing, and fibres in university B. From documents analysed, these were referred to as the foundation courses for they served as introductory topics to what CT was all about and it was reported that these were theory-based topics. In second semester in university A, there is advancement to complex aspects of the curriculum, for example; pattern making and development, psychology, fashion forecasting, fashion illustration, textile science and pattern development. This is the same in university B, where the following courses are done in the second semester; organic chemistry, polymer science-engineering courses, programming, leadership and conflict and communication skills.

Data from Table 4.6 revealed that second semester is there to prepare students for attachment, for instance, university A covers the following courses; Product development, textile surface design, photography, fashion marketing and retailing, grooming and modelling, fashion and management, research methods and statistics, garment enhancement, entrepreneurship, and CAD/CAM, university B; Textile dyeing and finishing, weaving, workshop technology, fabric structure and properties, quality control and software engineering. From the findings, these courses were practically-oriented to equip students with technical skills which would enable them to make meaningful contributions in clothing industries.

4.7.2 Shortages of machinery

In order to solicit information from students concerning garment construction in universities, students were asked how many garments they made in a semester. FGDA1 commented:

It depends with the module. Some modules are not practically-oriented and some are e.g project development, fabric printing and dyeing.

It was reported that garments to be made depended on the courses students were taking. Students (65%) reported that courses like fabric printing or fabric dyeing are practical in nature but it did not necessarily mean that students make garments from the fabric. The same students (65%) reported that at times students just made samples on different prints and dyed fabric to put in their files. The researcher also had a chance to see some of the samples in students' files in the CT departments.

Data were also collected to establish from lecturers, HODs and students on the type of machinery they use in their practical lectures. Lecturers (65%) indicated that they had industrial machinery in their departments whilst 35% of the lecturers indicated that they did not have industrial machinery.

We only have the Juki heavy duty Straight sewing machine and over lockers. (HOD-A)

We have none. (HOD-B)

We have Juki and Singer heavy duty Straight sewing machines and over lockers. (UAL)

We have none. We use ordinary machines (UBL)

We have Juki and Singer straight sewing and over locking machines (FGUA1 & FGUA2)

We don't have any industrial machinery. When we go the workshop, there are some looms and circular knitting machines which are not functioning. We just see them as learning aids; we don't get to use them. (FGUB1 & FGUB2)

Revelations from the observations were in harmony with findings from qualitative data. The researcher observed that in University A, there were Juki and Singer straight sewing machines and over locking machines. There were no industrial machines in university B laboratories or workrooms. However, the researcher observed that the type of machinery in industries was different from those in universities and it was reported that this created a gap in as far as skill development was concerned. In industries there were heavy duty machines like Cutters, Steamers, Markers, Binders, Hemmers,

Elasticators, and Advanced over lockers with the ability to sew three or four seams at once, buttonholers and folders. It was reported that because of the different machinery universities and industries used, students fell short of some skills when then went for WIL since they would be exposed to the machinery for the first time. From document analysis it was worth noting that there were some machines that were in the inventory book but not in use in the factory.

Data from questionnaires concurred with data from interviews, document analysis and observations. The research findings revealed that not all universities used industrial machines in their laboratories. Data showed that in University A, the Juki and Singer sewing machines and over lockers were available. However, these machines were different from the ones in industries, as observed. In industries there were heavy duty machines. In university B there were no industrial machines. All the students (100%) making up the focus group revealed that there were very old industrial machines in university B work room which lecturers used as teaching aids.

As a follow up on machinery used, lecturers, HODs and students responded whether the machinery was enough for practical lectures. Responses were as follows:

They are not enough since students have to share or take turns to use the machines. (HOD-A)

Most of the machinery is old, with no spare parts. (HOD-B)

They are not enough since students take turns to use the machines. Most of the machinery is old and cannot be serviced due to scarcity of spare parts (UAL)

Some of the accessories like the bobbins and cases, needles are difficult to get in shops. (UBL)

The machinery is not enough. We don't have laboratory technicians to assist in repairing the machinery. (FGUA1)

The machinery is not enough, for instance, we share one iron in the department per 20 students. (FGUA2)

We have nothing, just learning aids. (FGUB1 & FGUB2)

As a way of triangulation, observations were done on the quantity of machinery in universities. It was noted that there was inadequate machinery in universities. The number of students in a lecture did not tally with machines they would use per practical session. The researcher observed that in university A students were sharing machines and equipment. These observations were in line with what students, lecturers and HODs had expressed. HOD (100%) reported that this jeopardised on students' acquisition of skills since their contact time with the machines was limited and the student-machine ratio was one machine to 8 students. HODS further elaborated that at times time allocated for the practical lecture elapsed before a student had the chance to use the machines which derailed their progress. In concurrence with qualitative data, quantitative Data from questionnaires also unveiled that the majority of lecturers 16 (100%) felt that the industrial machinery was not enough.

From such revelations from questionnaires, interviews, observations and document analysis on the adequacy of industrial machinery in universities, this study established that the industrial machinery used by students and lecturers were inadequate, for meeting various critical needs such skill development in students.

On the condition of the industrial machinery, lecturers, students and HODs had this to say:

The machinery is not in good working order. (FGUA)

The machinery is not working. (FGUB)

Most of the machinery is old and cannot be serviced due to scarcity of spare parts. (UAL)

Some of the accessories like the bobbins and cases, needles are difficult to get in shops. (UBL)

Most of the machinery is old, with no spare parts. (HOD-A, HOD-B)

Observations which were made by the researcher in both universities' workrooms unveiled that there were lots of machinery in store rooms. They seemed very old with some parts missing and broken. Quantitative data also revealed that 7 (43.75%) lecturers commented that the machines were out-dated and were of no use to the current trends in CT. Five (31.25%) revealed that the machines were better off at dump site than in their work rooms. It also emerged from 4 (25%) lecturers that the broken parts of the machinery made the workroom a very unsafe place for both students and lecturers.

The above findings revealed that the industrial machinery in universities seemed very old and in bad shape. It was also reported by HODs (100%) that in as much as the universities wanted to have these machinery repaired, it was beyond their capacity since most of them were acquired from Britain during the colonial era. As result, it was difficult to get the parts. Buying of new machinery remained a dream in most universities since they were financially emaciated.

4.7.3 Issues regarding Work-Integrated Learning (WIL)

Gibson et al (2007:3) view WIL as programmes providing students with opportunities to enrich or learn both generic and discipline specific skills relevant to professional practice. It was reported that it is during WIL that students get to put the theory they would have obtained from universities into practice in the actual world of work. Data was thus obtained from lecturers, students, Industrial personnel and students on how the WIL was carried out.

Data were also solicited from respondents on how the shortage of this machinery and other facilities affect the acquisition of technical skills by students. Respondents commented:

Students lack the hands- on skills since they have limited time on the machines. They will fail to use some machinery the universities do not have whist on attachment or when they get employed. (UAL)

Students face difficulties to cope with WIL needs since they are not well equipped with the necessary skills. (UBL)

It will take them a longer time to be accustomed to the daily routines in the factories bearing in mind that industries are business entities not universities. They are after meeting their daily targets not to spend a lot of time teaching students. (UBL)

Students lack the hands- on skills since they have limited time on the machines. (HOD-A)

Students might fail to use some machinery the universities do not have. (HOD-B)

The above revelations entail that shortages of machinery and other facilities affect the acquisition of technical skills by students. Findings showed that students would not be able to operate machinery in industries because of lack of hands-on skills. As a result the students would not be competent enough in the world of work. It is worth noting from the findings that the first quarter of the time students were on attachment was spent on supervisors instructing them on how to operate machinery since students would be lacking the skills. TVE must prepare young people for life by developing their intellect, aptitudes, and talents and by creating opportunities for them to reach their full potential in skill acquisition. If the universities which are IHL fail to achieve this, then there is bound to be a mismatch between the expectations of the industry and the calibre of students universities would be produce.

Data was also sought from respondents on the WIL that the students received in terms of duration, skills students acquire, support students get from industry and universities, skills gaps lecturers identified during students' WIL , any skills gap identified by industry, quality of WIL and any suggestions on how the WIL can be improved. The respondents commented:

Attachment is 12 months. (UAL, HOD-A)

Duration of attachment is 1 year. (UBL, HOD-B)

1year under normal circumstances. (IP1 and IP2)

From the study findings, lecturers, HODs and the industrial personnel revealed that the duration of WIL was supposed to be 12 months for every student in the two universities. It was also noticed from the findings that there were some students who went for WIL for less than 12 months.

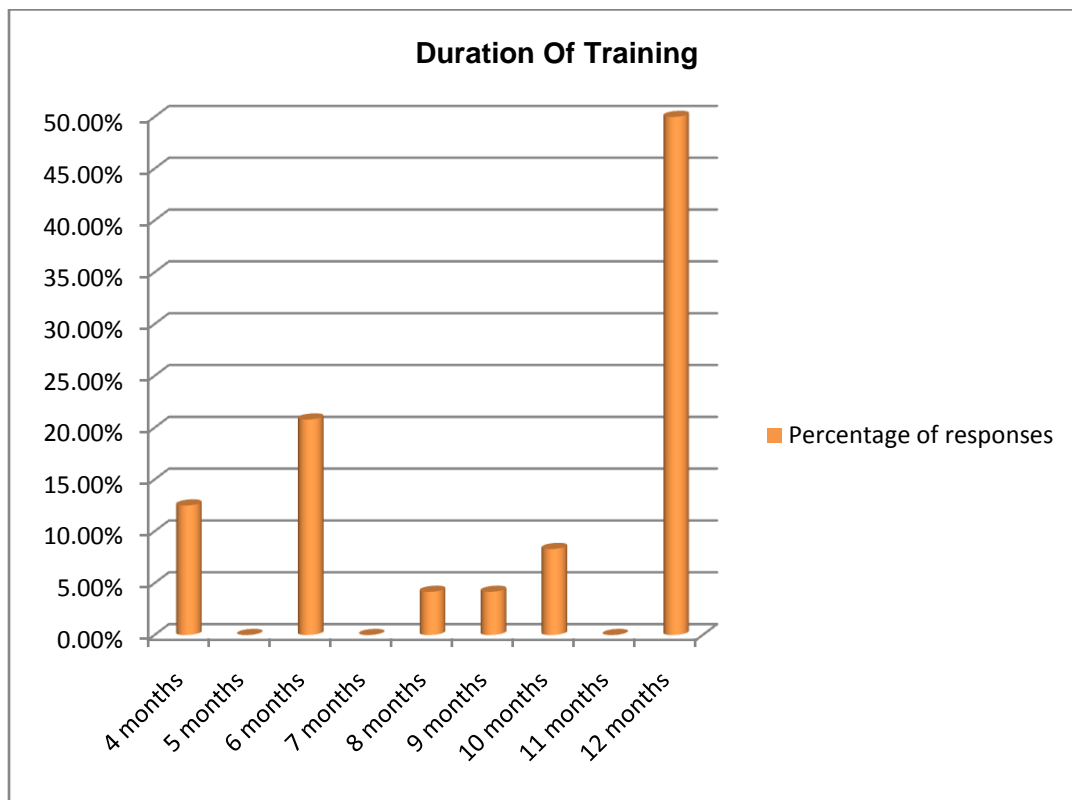


Figure 4-2: Responses of students on the duration of WIL

Students' responses were not in harmony with the lecturers', HODs' and industrial personnel's responses. It can be deduced from Fig 4.5.3 that some students, 3 (12.5 %) went for WIL for 4 months, 5 (20.8%) 6 months, 2 (8.3%) 8 months, 1 (4.17%) 9 months, 2 (8.3%) 10 months and 12 (50%) went for 12 months. It was noted from these findings that 50% of the students went on WIL for less than the stipulated time (12 months). Lecturers and HODs' responses from interviews revealed that this had a

bearing on students' acquisition of skills for twelve months for WIL were considered long enough to enable students to acquire relevant hands-on skills from the industry.

From document analysis, it was noticed that in university records it was stipulated that the duration of WIL was supposed to be 12 months, but records from industries and universities reflected that there were a number of students who went on WIL for less than 12 months. Data from questionnaires revealed that in university A, 5 (31.25%) lecturers commented that students went on WIL for 10 months and 3 (18.75%) lecturers stated that students went for 12 months. From university B, 13 (81.25%) lecturers stated students went for 8 months and 3 (18.75%) that this data did not lecturers commented that students went for 12 months. It was noted correlate with the data from the students' focus group, lecturers, HODs and the industrial personnel.

Data was also sought from lecturers, HODs, industrial personnel and students on the skills students acquire whilst on WIL.

Pattern making, designing skills, actual sewing of the garments and operating different types of machines. (HOD-A and HOD-B)

Students are exposed to operating different types of machines, pattern making, and designing, they get to have the hands-on experience. (UAL)

Designing skills, operating different types of machines (UBL)

Designing, pattern making, garment construction, operating different types of machinery & equipment. (FGUA1 and FGUA2)

Operating different types of machinery and equipment from the blow room to the card, draw frame to the roter spinning machinery. To fix textile machinery when they developed a problem, steps to take in identifying the problem and to fix them. Quality control on produced fabrics, conflict management and carrying out experiments in the laboratory. (FGUB1 and FGUB2)

Time management, I developed a flexible approach to handling a given task from one section of the factory to another, so you had to manage your time properly in order to give reports on time to your supervisor. (FGUB)

From the above revelations, it was revealed that students learnt a variety of skills whilst on WIL. The researcher reasons that skills like pattern making, designing, garment construction, operating different machinery and fixing them when need arose have been seen as major skills a student needs to have if quality is to be achieved in TVE. Quantitative data revealed that, students were exposed to different types of skills ranging from pattern making, designing, and pattern grading and operating different types of machinery. From the findings, 11 (68.75%) lecturers stated that students had hands-on experience in the industry, students learnt how to sew, operating different types of industrial machinery, procurement, computer aided designing, grading processes, cutting and 5 (31.25%) stated that students learnt managerial skills. It was noted from the respondents that the skills students acquired varied from industry to industry, depending on what the industry specialised in.

As a follow up, students were asked about the skills gap they identified whilst on WIL. The results have been tabulated below:

Table 4-6: Responses on the skills gap identified by students and the industry

Respondents	Skills gap
UFGA1 and UFGA2	-managerial skills - designing -pattern making -garment construction -operating different types of machinery and equipment
UFGB1 and UFGB2	-operating different types of machinery and equipment - time management - carrying out experiments in the laboratory - fixing textile machinery when they developed a problem -conflict management
IP1	-pattern making - use of machinery - processes like seams
IP2	-how to operate heavy duty industrial machinery -pattern making -basic sewing processes in garment construction, eg seams

It was interesting to note that the skills gap identified by students were almost similar to those identified by industry. Students showed that they could not operate most of the machinery whilst on WIL; they lacked basics in garment construction skills fixing machines when they developed problems and conflict management. Industrial personnel commented:

No exposure to different machinery and accessories in universities eg buttonhole sewers and folders. Students do not know how to operate different machinery, pattern making, garment sewing. (IP1)

We start from the basics, eg internal trainers train students how to operate heavy duty industrial machinery, pattern making, basic sewing processes in garment construction, eg seams and basic machine repair. (IP2)

Industrial personnel also reflected that students could not operate machinery in the industries. They lacked skills on pattern making, basic processes in garment construction. From the Industrial personnel's views, they were concerned with how CT was being delivered in universities since they had noticed that some of the skills students lacked when they came for WIL were basic skills they should have learnt in their first year of study in university. Records from the industries also exposed the same scenario that students lacked basic skills, be it on operating machinery, pattern making or garment construction. The researcher attributed this to the incompetence of lecturers as already mentioned earlier in the chapter.

Data was also sought from respondents on the support students get from the industry whilst on WIL. Respondents commented:

Students get nothing. (UAL)

It depends with the industry the student is attached to some get allowances, food and materials to use on assignments given to students by the university whilst on attachment. (UBL)

Students are allowed to use machinery for their own projects. Students are given material to use for their projects. They also get tea and lunch. (IP1)

Students get transport allowance weekly as long as they are on WIL. We assist students when they are doing their own projects by providing them with threads, trimmings, elastic and machines to use. Students are also given tea. (IP2)

Transport allowances, Teas and lunch, material and trimmings for their projects, depending on the industry one is attached to. (HOD- A and HOD-B)

Responses from the two FGDs from university A, 12 (100%) indicated that they did not get any support from the industry whilst they were doing WIL. From university B, 6 (50%) also indicated that they did not get support from the industry. Whilst 6 (50%) indicated that they got financial support in form of a fixed allowance. Documents analysed from the two industries unveiled that the incentives vary from industry to industry. It was evident from the records that in industry 1 students got transport allowances whereas in industry 2 students did not get any allowance. Data from questionnaires unveiled that industries supported students in different ways. Ten lecturers (62.5%) reflected that students did not get any support, 6 (37.5%) stated they got financial support. In both industries, students got support in form of materials and trimmings to use for their projects.

Findings from questionnaires, interview and document analysis revealed that not all students got support from industry while on attachment and that for those who got support, it varied from industry to industry. The findings showed differences between university A students and those from university B in terms of the support they got on WIL. Data revealed that students from university A did not get any support from industry while they were on attachment. It was only those students from university B who got the different types of support.

On the support students get from universities, respondents had different views.

Supervision and guidance and counselling. (HOD-A, HOD-B)

Supervision, facilitating transfers during attachment where necessary, guidance and counselling social and attachment- related issues. (UAL, UBL)

Lecturers come to assess us and write a progress report (FGUA)

Lecturers came to see how we had settled in our places of attachment (FGUA1 and FGUB1)

Lecturers helped in solving problems between students and industrial staff (FGUA2 and FGUB2)

Lecturers assess students see how students have settled in various sections of the industry. (IP1)

Facilitate transfer of students from one industry to another if need be. (IP2)

Industrial Personnel also responded on whether students had the mandate to choose which area to specialise in or not. They responded as follows:

Although universities send a programme for industries to follow, it is not sufficient since they don't consult us before they send students on attachment. As a result we let students go through all sections of production for them to benefit more. (IP1)

There is no specialisation. Each student is given a time schedule and follows what the industry is doing, e.g flow of the garment, Planning-marker room-cutting-preparation-assembling-pressing and dispatch. (IP2)

From these revelations, the findings seem to be revealing that the relationship between universities and industries may be unsound as evidenced by the lack of communication between the two institutions. It was reported that there were some instances when students were requested to spent extra time in a section they encountered challenges. The supervisor in charge with the section would arrange in such a way that the student would not be disadvantaged as well as not jeopardising the day-to-day running of the factory. It also emerged that students did not choose an area for specialisation but they were made to go through all the stages of production, for instance;

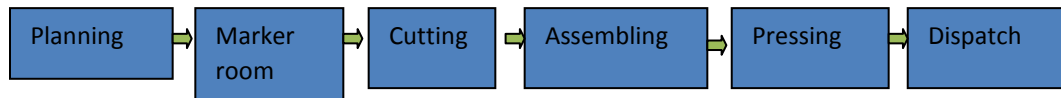


Figure 4-3: Stages of Production in the Factory

Study findings revealed that in both industries under study, the Production manager was responsible for giving students daily tasks. In the factory, there were supervisors who were in charge of monitoring students' daily activities. On the issue of whether industries had enough personnel to monitor students, IP1 and IP2 indicated they had enough personnel since they did not take more students the factories would not be able to accommodate. *IP2 commented, "We do not take more than we can accommodate at a time because of capacity problems".*

Industrial personnel also responded to quality issues in industries. Respondent IP1 explained:

Each section of production has a quality check point under the supervision of quality supervisors. As the students go through their training, they are exposed to quality at needle point at the quality points in each section.

Findings unveiled that there were strict quality control measures in factories. There were quality checks at each and every stage of the production line. This was also evidenced by the workmanship displayed in the factories. From observations done in the factories, the researcher discovered that quality was the benchmark. No mistake went unchecked in the production line no matter how small.

On how often students were assessed in the factory, industrial personnel commented that students were assessed at every stage of the production line so as to be at par with quality assurance practises in the factory. On the effectiveness of this type of assessment, IP2 explained:

We try by all means to do fair assessment at every stage of the production line because if a product or process is below the required standard, the supervisor does not hesitate to tell the student to re-do the product or process.

This assessment practice ensured that the student did the right thing at any assigned process at every stage in the factory.

Data was also sought on the quality of the WIL. Two HODs (100%) stated that the industrial WIL was very good. On the lecturers' side, 8(26.7%) lecturers from university A commented that the WIL was very good and from university B, 8(26.7%) also commented that the WIL was very good. From students' focus groups, 8(33%) students commented that the WIL was very good, 12(50%) stated it was good and 4(16.7%) said it was satisfactory. Industrial personnel stated that the WIL was very good. They commented:

It is very good, there is evidence of expertise in the way students will be doing their work in the work room, little minimal enquiry after the training they get from the supervisors. (IP1)

The attachment is very good. Students will be confident enough to operate heavy duty machinery without the assistance of the supervisors. (IP2)

Data from questionnaires revealed that from university A, 6 (37.5%) lectures saw the WIL as very good, 2 (12.5%) said it was superb. From university B, 7 (43.75%) said it was very good and 1 (6.25%) lecturer said it was poor because some big industries have closed or down sized. Lecturers reported that students were equipped with hands-on skills which they did not have when they enrolled for CT. However it is worth noting that one lecturer from university B stated that the WIL was poor.

Table 4-7: Responses of Industrial personnel on the information that is kept in students' records

Respondent	Information
IP1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -name of student -student's personal information(age, marital status, phone number, email address, Details of next of keen) -name of university - date one joins the industry -name of supervisor the student will be under in each section. - assessment reports by supervisors in every section -notes the student writes on important aspects covered under each section as well as samples on processes covered, eg collars, pockets, pleats. -log book, -where the student checks in and out every day, each time he/ she starts in a new section and when he/ she leaves the section, challenges encountered. - a project assigned by the industry where the student applies the knowledge he/ she was taught in the factory
IP2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -name of student-student's personal information(age, marital status, phone number, email address, Details of next of keen) -name of university - date one joins the industry -name of supervisor the student will be under in each section. - assessment reports by supervisors in every section -log book, -where the student checks in and out every day, each time he/ she starts in a new section and when he/ she leaves the section, challenges encountered.

Data from Table 4.8 revealed that industrial personnel had all the important details about the students they had on WIL. The records were meant for the day-to-day running of the factory, for instance which section the student would be operating in and the name of the supervisor in the section at that time. The log book assisted in monitoring the students' progress as well as to make it easier for supervisors to know exactly where the student would be at any given time. Information on details of next of keen were important in the event that the student fell ill whilst in the factory or when one got involved in an accident in the factory. The email address or cell number were used to convey important messages to the students. They were also used as means by which supervisors would make follow ups on those who absented themselves without notice. It

was observed that the industries kept almost the same information in the records. The only difference was that IP1 had information on notes the student wrote on important aspects covered under each section as well as samples on processes covered, for example, collars, pockets, pleats and a project assigned by the industry where the student applies the knowledge he or she was taught in the factory. This showed the different levels the industries are in assisting students to acquire the relevant skills.

4.7.4 Challenges students faced during Work-Integrated Learning

Findings revealed that some students faced different challenges whilst they were on WIL. These challenges ranged from social to academic and they differed from one industry to another and from one student to another.

Table 4-8: Responses of students on challenges during WIL

Respondents	Challenges
FGUA1 and FGUA2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - sexual harassment -There were some machinery in the industries which we were not allowed to use. -challenges in operating machinery -Lack of money for transport - Industries have their own ways of doing things which differ from how it is done in universities (basic sewing, pattern making). - We were told to follow given instructions and not to introduce anything new in the factory.
FGUB1 and FGUB2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -sexual harassment - Failing to secure places for attachment on time. - challenges in operating machinery -gender discrimination -No contribution to the day-to-day running of the factory - Lack of money for transport -Language barrier -Victimisation - There were some machinery in the industries which we were not allowed to use. -The industries did not have some machinery and equipment and they used short cuts when doing their work.

Data revealed that female students were harassed by industrial personnel. One female respondent explained

Female students were sexually abused during WIL. Some of us agreed because we wanted money for survival whilst on WIL since we did not get any financial support from the industry. For those who refused, once you report them, they will not supervise you in the sections and they will give you low rating at the end of your time in a section. (FGUA2)

Concurring with this view, a male respondent FGUB1 detailed:

Female students we sexually harassed. Some personnel touched their buttocks. Some of the cases were not reported for fear of being victimised by the industrial personnel.

Findings of the study revealed that only female students were sexually harassed. Although male students knew what was happening to their female counterparts, they did not report on any sexual harassment. There were some students who fell prey since they saw this as the only way which would enable them to get money for survival during attachment. It emerged that students saw this as a means of survival since they did not have money for transport. *“I did it not because I wanted to, but I had no choice because I did not have money for transport”*. From the findings, it emerged that those who reported the cases of sexual abuse to industrial management suffered victimisation. They were also disadvantaged in as far as supervision was concerned. Data gathered also revealed that they would not receive any form of supervision.

It was reported that the student would be on the losing side since if she could not acquire the necessary hands-on skills at university, their only salvation would be the industry. When the industry fails to equip the student, it becomes a challenge in as far as WIL was concerned. It is also worth noting that from the informal discussions the researcher had with CT lecturers from the two universities, the lecturers revealed that it was not easy to deal with sexual harassment of students on attachment. From all the serious cases they had in the past, the only solution was to transfer the student or students to other industries, since if the matter would be settled by management, it took long to solve the cases and students continued to report cases of victimisation.

Data revealed that there were machinery in the factory which students were not allowed to use. Some machinery were in short supply and students had challenges in operating some of the machinery. On the other end, it was unveiled that gender discrimination was at its peak in Clothing industries. One female respondent from FGUB2 exclaimed:

As females, they were some machinery we were not allowed to operate. They said they were too heavy. They were supposed to be operated by males who are muscular.

Of concern on this note was that if females were not allowed to operate some machinery, it defeated the whole purpose of being on attachment for they were

supposed to acquire the same skills as their male counterparts since they were assessed on the same skills and processes.

It was also revealed that supervisors were adamant to learn new aspects or suggestions from the students. Supervisors regarded themselves as people who knew it all since they had been in industries for quite some time and students had nothing to offer since they were still on training. Students vouched:

As students we did not have the chance to contribute anything new in the factory since the personnel told us that they have worked in the factory for more than 30 years and there was nothing new we could tell them.
FGUA1

FGUB2 authenticated this observation remarking:

People from the industry feel threatened when they see a student from university, especially top management. They know the student knows more than them, so they push you away and in some instances they will say you are slowing down production so you should wait aside and watch so the hands- on experience will not be achieved.

Data revealed that students were not supposed to contribute something new in the factory for this would disturb the status quo.

Study findings unveiled that students could not communicate with their supervisors due to language barrier. They remarked:

The supervisors were speaking Ndebele which I did not understand.
(FGUA1)

Echoing the same comments respondent FGA2 related that:

When the supervisor who could speak English was not there, we had a challenge to communicate with the Chinese supervisor who could not speak English and this slowed down our progress.

Language is a medium through which people communicate. It is an important tool if meaningful learning is to take place in any learning environment. The absence of a common language in an environment defects or incapacitates progress. The absence of a common language in the industries is a major cause for concern. Findings from this study revealed that the student learns better if he or she understands what is expected of him or her by the supervisor, when he or she does not understand it hinders effective learning and as a result at the end of the day the student misses out on a lot of aspects because of language barrier.

Industrial Personnel also responded to challenges they were encountering when dealing with students on WIL. They had this to say:

Students have pessimistic attitude towards industrial problems. They view industrial personnel as inferior; as a result, they are not quick to listen to them and follow given instructions. (IP1)

Echoing the same comments respondent IP2 related that:

Students don't follow instructions; they do things the way they think is right. Some students are quick to defend themselves when they are seen making mistakes. They justify themselves for no good reason.

Study findings revealed that some students did not follow given instructions. They had a negative attitude towards industrial personnel. From the findings, it emerged that supervisors were finding it difficult to work with such students.

Industrial Personnel also noted that students could not operate most of the machinery. They also noted that students lacked a lot on the basics in CT. The duration of WIL was also seen to be too short to enable students to acquire excellent skills which would enable them to be competent in the world of work. IP2 commented:

Students lack a lot on CT basics, e.g garment construction and operation of machinery. The time the students are given for attachment is too short, out of 4years, only 1 year or less is reserved for attachment. Our aim as an industry is to produce competent people with excellent skills to fit in industries as production managers, or university lecturers who are competent.

On the issue of absenteeism, IP1 related:

Students absent themselves from the factory for no good reasons. As a result the industry has to reschedule its work plan in order to meet deadlines, e.g a student may spend 3 days in the planning section instead of 6 or 7 days.

Findings revealed that students did not turn up for WIL on daily basis. There was an irregular pattern which was displayed by students in as far as attendance was concerned. The researcher also established from the industry records that students did not turn up on daily basis. The students' log books also showed this unexpected scenario. Bearing in mind that earlier on in the study, students alluded to lack of money as a reason they indulged with industrial personnel, the researcher opines that it could be the same reason why students were finding it difficult to come to the factory everyday.

Data was also sought from lecturers, HODs and students on how best the attachment programme would be improved.

There is need for universities to lengthen the WIL period so that students have enough time to acquire all the relevant skills. (UAL1, UBL2)

ZIMCHE to spearhead the procurement of equipment, machinery and upgrading of laboratories (HOD-B)

FGUA2 authenticated this observation remarking:

There is need to bridge the knowledge gap between the universities and industries in terms of machinery use.

There is need for universities to work hand in hand in designing the CT curriculum so that what is learnt in universities tally with what is in industries. (UAL2, UBL1)

Concurring with this view, respondent FGUB1 related:

The universities and industries should come up with the CT curriculum for universities together so as to bridge the skills gap.

From the findings, it was unearthed that the lecturers and HODs felt that the time for WIL was too short considering that some students failed to get places for WIL for the

better quarter or half of the year. On the issue of WIL, students felt that “*there is need for the universities and the industries to come up with a board which looks at the systematic deployment of students for WIL, so that students do not move alone from one industry to another in search of attachment places and to make the duration of attachment uniform to every student.*” It also emerged that there was need for ZIMCHE which is body which looks at quality issues in universities to see to it that machines, equipment and laboratories in universities match the standard in industries. There was need for universities and industries to work together in coming up with a curriculum which is in line with what is on the ground in the world of work. This would enable students to have a swift transition from universities to industries.

In reaction to the suggestions Industrial personnel had on the improvement of the quality of students universities are producing, IP1 and IP2 disclosed that:

Time for WIL should be increased so that students leave the industry well equipped with relevant skills and knowledge.

University lecturers should upgrade their knowledge and skills so as to keep abreast with the dynamic fashion, clothing trends and technology so that when students come on WIL , the industrial personnel will just refine the skills not to start from scratch, teaching the students basics they should have done at university level. This will enable them to produce students with the required competence.

Universities should try by all means to buy machinery and equipment that is in line with the changing technologies in industries so that they don't lag behind in terms of skills acquisition.

It would be wise for universities to consult the industry before they design their CT curriculum so that the industry has an input.

Of interest to note is that the industrial personnel distinguished the need for staff development on the part of lecturers so that they kept abreast with the dynamic world of clothing and textiles. They also emphasised on the need for universities to buy

machinery and equipment which is commensurate with the ones industries are using. Findings reveal that universities and industries should work in unison so as to come up with a curriculum that is in harmony with what happens in the two environments so as to enhance acquisition of skills by students. It was also revealed that the time for attachment was too short for meaningful mastery of skills by the student.

4.8 Lecturers Support Systems

One of the key areas this study wanted to address were the support systems in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities. These were very critical in ensuring that there was quality assurance in the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities.

HODs responded on the service training programmes or workshops they had in place to improve the performance of lecturers in the delivery of the CT curriculum. HOD-A commented that there were no in-service training programmes or workshops in place in the CT department. HOD-B stated that the department was working closely with Donggual University in China which was training CT lecturers in different areas. HOD-B further exposed that:

The challenge behind all these associations is that they are able to take only one lecturer per year. As a result, it shall take a long period of time for the impact of the training to be felt in the department, or university considering the fact that only 2 lecturers have benefited so far since the programme started in 2012.

Evidence from the data reveals that there were no workshops and training programmes in place in university A. The researcher also noticed that there were no records to show that lecturers in university A had attended workshops or training programmes. The researcher also established from university B records that the university had signed memorandum of understanding with the University of Donggual in China and South India Textile Research Association (SITRA). SITRA was offering short courses every

year free of charge to lecturers. It paid for all the travelling expenses as well as accommodation and food. Names of lecturers who had attended the training programmes and the courses they had covered were also documented. This showed the HODs were monitoring how the programme was running. Findings revealed that there was a programme that had been designed for the rest of the staff members showing the months one would go for training and the year. It also emerged from the data that although there were training programmes in place in university B, the pace at which they were training lecturers was a cause for concern. Findings revealed that it would take over 8 years for everyone in the department to have benefitted from this training programme.

In response to whether or not lecturers and HODs received training in teaching CT during the past two years, HOD-A and HOD-B disclosed that:

I did not attend any training programme or workshop during the past two years.

Still on this, UAL authenticated this position saying:

I haven't attended any workshop for the past 10 years I have been in this institution.

From university B, one respondent remarked:

I have attended a training programme in India. (UBL)

Data revealed that no training was being organised in university A. It was not possible for lecturers to attend workshops organised elsewhere. UAL remarked: *"The admin is not willing to pay for the training when chances arise so I do not attend since I cannot pay for my own training."* In university B, a different picture was portrayed. One respondent explained:

Training is being done in the department by the Republic of India, so I am still waiting for my turn.

On the same note, data from questionnaires also revealed that 8 (50%) lecturers from university A stated that they had not received any training in the past 2 years. From university B, 2 (12.5%) lecturers mentioned that they had received training, and 6

(37.5%) lecturers had not received training. Findings revealed that staff initiatives for staff development courses were not supported by the administration in university A. Staff members were asked to sponsor their training. Training programmes were in place in university B though at a slow pace. The same scenario was also depicted by quantitative data which revealed that no lecturer had received training in university A and only 2 had received training. Data exposed that universities had no money to organise workshops, latter alone sponsor lecturers who wanted to attend off compass workshops.

Lecturers and HODs responded on the duration of the training, content covered, knowledge by trainers, materials given to trainees, quality of trainees and the venue. The responses are tabulated in the table that follows:

From both universities, data from lecturers and HODs shows that only a very small percentage (8.8%) of the respondents had gone through training. The majority (91.2%) of the respondents had not gone through training. Lecturers from university B who had received training stated that the duration of training was 3 months. They also commented that content coverage was good and sufficient. Data revealed that the trainers had information on their fingertips. Materials given to trainees were very educative and detailed. In as far as the venue was concerned, UBL commented that the rooms were very big and well equipped and had enough working space.

On the issue of who organised the training, lecturers from university B stated that the training was organised UBL responded:

Training is being organised by the Republic of India.

The lecturers pointed out that the training was being conducted by South India Textile Research Association (SITRA) (fundis in CT). Findings revealed that Ministries of Higher education in these countries were in charge of monitoring these training programmes. In addition to monitoring, the ministries were supposed to assist by

ensuring that the lecturers put into practice in their universities what they learnt during training. This would be done in collaboration with the universities here in Zimbabwe.

Data was also solicited from lecturers on the aspects of the curriculum that were covered in the training. Lecturers stated that they covered fabric construction processes, Fibres, Textile science and technology, Organic chemistry, Textile quality control, Fabric printing, Textile dyeing and finishing, Textile engineering, yarn technology, workshop technology, fabric structure & properties and quality control. Data exposed that the training covered fundamental courses which challenged most lecturers in delivery of CT. This would strengthen the capacity of those lecturers who attended the training. In response to how the training was recognised or rewarded, lecturers from university B mentioned that they were given certificates with South India Textile Research Association (SITRA) which were internationally recognised. The researcher felt that certification was a sign to show how authentic the training was and it also increased its credibility.

Data was also sought from HODs and lecturers on how they were assessed in the department. Respondents explained:

We do peer reviews in which lecturers take turns to observe each other in both theory and practical lectures. At the end of the lectures, lecturers sit down and highlight areas of strength and areas of improvement.(HOD-B, UBL)

In agreement, UAL and HOD-A mentioned:

In the department we do peer reviews once, twice or three times a semester depending on time available.

Findings from quantitative data revealed that from university A, 8 (100%) lecturers stated that they had peer review. From university B, 6 (75%) also mentioned that they did peer review and 2 (25%) did not respond. It can safely be concluded from the findings that peer review was not the only assessment method being used in

universities. It was revealed from both qualitative and quantitative data that this was an effective method of assessment since lecturers would prepare well for the lectures and it would help them to amend areas of weakness. Findings also revealed that students also participated in the assessment since they were given review forms at the end of each semester in which they would rate the lecturers' performance. However, it goes without reasoning that it would not be possible for the students to write bad about their lecturers. Informal discussions with HODs from the two universities exposed that this practice was lacking credibility due to the way it was being done. Lecturers were the ones who issued the students with the forms and they would collect them once they were done. As a result no student would risk her degree programme by writing something bad about the lecturer. However, the researcher could not find any review forms in the departmental records.

Data was also solicited from students on how they were being assessed in the department. Students from both universities mentioned that they wrote in class tests (written or practical) and assignments. Still on the same aspect, students revealed the number of tests they wrote in a semester. FGUA1 and FGUA2 mentioned that they wrote 1 in class test per module (5-6 modules a semester), 1 or 2 assignments per module and 1 exam per year. FGUB1 and FGUB2 stated that they wrote 2 tests and 2 assignments per module (5 modules per semester). Practical work comprised 25% and the exam comprised 75% of the final mark. Findings unveiled that this assessment was in harmony with the departmental requirements on students' assessment, as highlighted in the policy documents the researcher managed to analyse. However, of concern to note was that the weighting of the practical work and the exam. It was revealed that the practical examination carried only a quarter of the total weighting. The researcher reasons that this may be an explanation as to why lecturers concentrated on theory which had more weighting (which carried more marks) than the practical in the lectures as revealed earlier in the chapter.

In response to how many of these strategies comprised practical work, FGUB1 had this to say:

It depends with the module we will be studying.

In concurrence, FGUA2 remarked:

Some modules are not practically-oriented and some are eg project development, fabric printing and dyeing.

As a follow up students responded to whether there was any involvement of the industry in terms of assessment in universities. Students from all the focus groups were quick to state that the industry was not involved in any way in assessing them. It emerged from the data that the industry only assessed them when they were on attachment.

Data was also solicited from students on whether or not the assessment strategies were adequate. Students responded:

They are not adequate. We need field trips to compliment the theory we get in universities and see what really happens in designer houses and industries. (FGUA1 and FGUA2)

It's not adequate; there is no involvement of the industry in terms of assessment when we are in universities. We need the industry to be involved. (FGUB1 and FGUB2)

Findings revealed that students felt that the assessment methods being done were not adequate. There was evidence that students needed more of practical tests and examinations to enhance their skills as evidenced by the fact that they needed field trips to compliment what they learnt in class. It also emerged that students were vying for the involvement of the industry in assessing them whilst in universities and not to wait for attachment only.

4.9 Summary of Findings

Chapter 4 highlighted and analysed the findings as they emerged from the data. Mainly the chapter presented and analysed data that captured: Biographic information of respondents; Competence of Lecturers; Perceptions of lecturers and students towards CT; The relationship between universities and the world of work; and support systems in place to enable the delivery of CT curriculum in Zimbabwean universities. The biographic data examined the profiles of the respondents in terms of gender, age, number, academic post, highest academic qualification, highest professional qualification, years of teaching experience, Area of specialisation and when and where one did the specialisation. The researcher felt strongly that all these variables would have a bearing in the manner in which different respondents responded to questions, as well as the interpretation of the data collected for the study.

- It surfaced from the data that lecturers were not competent enough to deliver CT curriculum. Lecturers presented different practices that were constructive and at times unconstructive to the nurturance or deprivation of students' acquisition of skills. Data also revealed that lecturers concentrated more on the theory aspect of the curriculum than the practical aspect. Most lecturers taught topics they were well versed in most leaving out those topics they saw as challenging. From document analysis, it emerged that all the lecturers had the minimum requirements to teach at university level, that is a first degree and they had done their specialisation in universities and colleges. HODs stated that lecturers in the CT department were qualified as per university requirements. Furthermore, there was overwhelming evidence that lecturers had challenges in core courses of the CT curriculum; Organic chemistry, Textile science and technology, Pattern making and Garment construction. It further emerged from data that capacity, machinery and relationship with the industry were the major challenges lecturers faced in the delivery of CT curriculum. The pace at which universities were purchasing the machinery was slow as compared to the need. Data revealed that students were not content with the teaching methods being employed by the

lecturers. From students' revelations, it emerged that students were yearning for teaching methods which allowed the teacher to interact with them. Data also indicated that lecturers did not teach all the topics they were supposed to teach. Lecturers revealed that they concentrated on topics they found most interesting. The findings revealed that this practice was seen to have a very negative impact on the delivery of CT in universities.

- Data also revealed that it was out of the students' own initiatives that they were able to learn. The findings also reveal that students were not happy with the way lecturers were marking their work, citing some incidences of favouritism and inconsistency in the marking. Furthermore, some lecturers revealed that their enthusiasm had been watered down due to lack of resources and machinery in CT departments. Findings also revealed that they were some lecturers whose enthusiasm has been increased due to the satisfaction they got when teaching. On the students' side, data unveiled both positive and negative aspects about their perceptions towards TVE. Data unveiled that some students' perceptions have been changed for the better since they now see that there is life in TVE and some students now lacked confidence in CT because of how it is labelled.
- Data also revealed that selection of students was based on academic qualifications as well as on gender basis. Findings revealed that students look down on TVE due to the low entry points required. It also surfaced from the findings that universities and industries did not work hand in hand in designing the CT curriculum. It also emerged from the data that the machinery being used in universities was out-dated, were not working, was out-dated and did not match industrial standards.
- Data revealed that industries used heavy duty industrial machines which universities did not have. It further emerged from data that the attachment was generally good. Findings unveiled that some students had problems in securing places for attachment; as a result, instead of going for attachment for the

stipulated 12 months, some students went for less months. Furthermore it emerged from the data that industrial personnel felt students lacked the basic skills in CT when they came for attachment. Students' challenges whilst on attachment ranged from economic to social. Finally, data revealed that most lecturers were not receiving staff development training. Only a handful had attended training. Data also revealed that peer review was the most common method being used to assess lecturers in universities. Findings unearthed that students also assessed lecturers' performance through review forms.

The next chapter, 5, discusses the findings made by this study. The following chapter discusses some of the major findings made by this study and their relationship with the literature reviewed. This is done as a way of providing some input into the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities. The Chapter will also critically examine the findings presented in this chapter in line with the objectives and research questions of the study while making reference to what other writers and studies have unveiled elsewhere.

CHAPTER FIVE

5 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

In Chapter 4, the researcher presented, interpreted and analysed data on findings of the study regarding the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities, taking into consideration, data concerning aspects of the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum as observed by various respondents that formed the sample of the study. This chapter discusses the data with the aim to identify key learning areas in the findings of the study to draw conclusions in as far as the delivery of the CT curriculum in Zimbabwean universities is concerned. The discussion of data is organised along the following aspects, namely: skills lecturers possess, perceptions of lecturers and students towards CT, the relationship between the Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the world of work and support systems in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum in Zimbabwean universities.

5.2 Skills lecturers possess to deliver CT

This study established that lecturers did not have the required skills in delivering both theory and practical CT lectures in universities. This meant that the lecturers were not well versed with lesson planning, lesson delivery as well as organising of teaching and learning activities essential for the delivery of CT in universities. It is envisaged that as implementers of the curriculum, lecturers must be conversant with matters pertaining curriculum delivery such as interpretation of the syllabus, knowledgeable of the pedagogy, scheming and planning for all these rest upon one's competency which is

one of the most paramount aspects in the TVE system. This correlates with what Bernstein (2000) alludes to as the recontextualisation in the framework of Vertical and Horizontal discourse.

Bernstein alludes that for meaningful teaching and learning to take place, the learning material should be carefully selected, planned, methodologies carefully chosen and learning environments. For this to be attainable, it calls for the lecturers' experience, academic and professional qualifications as well as area of specialisation (Bernstein, 1999). Researchers in the field of education and policy makers maintain that lecturers differ in terms of competency and this affects the delivery of curriculum in any learning institution and in turn it impacts negatively on students' academic achievement (Cochran-Smith, Feiman-Nemser, & McIntyre, 2008). In concurrence, some studies generally report that lecturer competency has a positive effect on the delivery of curriculum in IHL (Clotfelter, Ladd & Vigdor, 2007; Goldhaber & Antony, 2007). Rowan, Correnti, and Miller (2002) and Rivkin, Hanushek, and Kain (1998) draw similar conclusions regarding the importance of lecturer competence. They conclude from their analysis of 400,000 students in 3000 schools that lecturer competence is an important determinant in the delivery of set of courses in education.

Schweitzer and Kelly (2005) espoused that competent lecturers are masters of their subject matter, exhibiting great expertise in the subjects they teach. They are able to present material in an enthusiastic manner and instil a desire in their students to learn more. While there is clear evidence that lecturer quality is a key determinant of student learning, little is known about which explicit noticeable attributes of lecturers can account for this impact (Aaronson, Barrow & Sander 2007; Rockoff, 2004). There is little evidence that those characteristics most often used in recruiting decisions namely; academic and professional qualifications and experience which are crucial for lecturer quality (Aaronson, Barrow & Sander 2007; Rockoff, 2004). In their own view, the same authors stated that the only attribute that has been shown to be more frequently significantly correlated with student achievement is lecturers' academic skills. Bathmaker (2013:88) argues that the issue of knowledge is not just a technical

question, but relates to questions of equity and justice. If Technical and Vocational Education qualifications are to enable people to gain valuable knowledge and skills, and are to open up opportunities rather than constrain and limit futures, then questions of knowledge in these qualifications, and how these questions are decided are crucial.

However, contrary to this view, Asikhia (2010) denies the view that competence alone can bring favourable results to learning. The same author further argues that there are other several factors that come into play. Professionals, in addition to being technically competent, require skills of collaboration, communication and the ability to work in teams in order to achieve their intended goals (Lang et al, 1999; Scott & Yates, 2002). Basing on the findings of the current study, the researcher reasons that it is a misleading notion to conclude that if one has the required qualifications, experience and specialisation, he or she is competent enough to teach. Taking this argument further, an anomaly emerged from the findings. Contrary to the world view, it emerged that although some lecturers had the prerequisite qualifications and specialisation, they were not competent enough to deliver CT curriculum. This study reasons that what these lecturers would be lacking the methodological as well as the pedagogical skills pertaining to CT for good lecturers should be masters of the subject they teach. This same view is shared by McLaughlin (2013: 13) who states that

A robust teaching and learning system must be underpinned by a serious focus on vocational pedagogy. And yet, as we have gone round the country visiting sites of vocational teaching and learning, of all the terms we have discussed, the one that gets lecturers most agitated is vocational pedagogy.

On the other hand, in concurrence with literature reviewed, it also emerged from the findings that there are some lecturers who are incompetent due to lack of experience. According to Hunkins and Ornstein (2004), there is a need for a lecturer to have experience to effectively execute duties. The same authors further elaborate that competency enables the lecturer to marry theory with practical during the process of teaching by using the appropriate teaching materials.

The respondents (Lecturers) ascribed that they were recruited to lectureship posts soon after finishing their first degrees; as a result, they were still acclimatising with the delivery of CT curriculum. This is worrisome in as far as the delivery of CT curriculum is concerned in that these lecturers still need to concentrate on the day-to-day mastery of teaching since as beginners, they have too little pedagogical content knowledge, as well as confidence to stand in front of the students. HODs qualified this scenario to staff shortages in universities resulting from a backdrop of massive exodus of lecturers to western countries. Karsenti and Collin (2013) support the view by Stilwell (2003) that Southern Africa has been witnessing an upsurge in the departure of technical expertise or qualified personnel seeking greener pastures abroad. In Zimbabwe, loss of qualified personnel has been varying across sectors but it has been particularly felt in sectors such as education, health, industry and commerce. Tertiary institutions particularly universities in the country have been facing significant losses of qualified staff. This compromises the quality of education and complicates implementation of strategic plans requisite to the delivery of quality education in universities.

Literature reveals that mastery of the subject matter increases as one's number of years in the service increase. In the same line of thought, Hunkins and Ornstein (2004) posit that lecturers with long service are in most cases viewed to be knowledgeable with numerous teaching approaches and teaching techniques. It is expected that the more the years of experience in teaching CT, the more conversant one becomes with the subject matter as well as pedagogy and other requirements of the course (Engelbrecht, Ankiewicz & Swardt, 2007). However, the findings of this study depicted a contrary scenario. Of concern to note is that most of the lecturers, reportedly had more than 10 years of teaching experience but this did not tally with the service they were rendering in universities.

It is common knowledge that as one spends more years teaching the same subject matter, the more he or she masters the pedagogical aspects. For instance, students who participated in the study commented that they were not pleased with the teaching

methods being employed by lecturers in CT. Findings revealed that the methods lecturers used in the classroom differed from the ones they had planned for. Ufot (2006) in Udoh (2012) in his study of Nigerian-lecturers stated that lecturers preach the use of innovative methods, which they themselves do not practice. Furthermore, in IHL, the teaching methods most of the lecturers employ when delivering lectures alienate students from the whole process of teaching and learning and this further impedes on their skill acquisition. However, while most studies estimated the effect of lecturer qualifications have focused on the characteristics of the student's current lecturer; several efforts have been made to understand whether the qualifications of the faculty lecturers have a circumstantial effect on student's achievement (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2004). In support of this notion, literature states that lecturers also learn from their colleagues in the department. This entails that any adverse effect related with having a less competent lecturer will be reduced in the IHL due to the fact that there are other lecturers who are more competent and more skilled in the subject area (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2004).

Gamble (2013) states that one can gain meaningful comprehensions into what vocational pedagogy entails by a close analysis of how framing is employed in a vocational learning programme. This can be done through the use of teaching and learning guides, syllabuses, how lectures are paced, support materials for teaching and learning as well as assessment methods. Technical and Vocational programmes are designed in such a way that they are conducted in specialist rooms or laboratories for the transmission of both the everyday or common knowledge and the official knowledge between the "actors" which are lecturers and the students.

Research suggests that improving student's performance can be implemented by changing teaching methods. The lecturer must be willing to change in order to initiate an effective program (Schneider, Gruman, & Coutts, 2012). Gamble (2013) comments that for one to easily comprehend vocational pedagogy, one has to make use of appropriate teaching methods for the transmission of common knowledge and the official knowledge. In the same vein, Bullock (2004) reiterate that lecturers' attitudes are a

major enabling or disabling factor in the delivery of CT. Similarly, Kersaint, Horton, Stohl, and Garofalo (2003) commented that lecturers whose attitudes towards CT were negative, were also not comfortable with exploring new methods of making learning easy, exciting and applicable to this era of technological advancement, for example, the use of Computer-aided learning or technology in designing, be it Textiles, Art, Technical Graphics or Woodwork. Findings affirm that students wanted lecturers to use teaching methods which would allow for student- lecturer interaction and which allow them to marry the theory they get in class with practice in the industries as they advocated for field trips.

The importance of field experiences has not been disputed among academics (Guyton & Byrd, 2000). Field experiences are viewed as a means to transition from an academic to a field-based learning environment because those skills students have developed in the lecture rooms are considerably different from the skills needed to be learnt from field experiences (Adams, 2010). Not only do field experiences provide opportunities for students to interact with the people in the world of work, they will also increase cognition in professional coursework and knowledge of what is expected of them. In order for learning to occur, students need experiences that lead to transfer, which is defined as the ability to take what was learned in one context and utilise it in new contexts (National Research Council, 2000). Sall, Ndiaye, Diarra, and Seck (2009) comment that inadequately qualified professional personnel compromise quality in developing students' skills and their chances of employability. This is an area of concern in this study since CT is a skills-based programme which needs to be delivered by lecturers who are competent and well equipped with the precise technological know-how as this may have an undesirable consequence in as far as skills development of students is concerned.

It also emerged in the findings that there were some lecturers who were teaching CT, which they had not specialised in. They reported that this adversely affected the way they delivered CT. However, Grollman and Rauner (2007) stated that different truths exist in teacher education. Therefore, the recruitment of lecturers who lack training in

content, knowledge and relevant instructional delivery methods in Zimbabwean universities adversely compromise the delivery of CT. Lack of these competencies in lecturers results in the production of students who lack the necessary desirable hands-on skills as a case revealed in the study. However, it is befitting to note that in the situation where there is high prevalence of inexperienced lecturers, as revealed in this study, it becomes impossible for universities to produce students with the relevant technical skills needed in the world of work. A research by Hansen (2006) confirms that, when universities fail to produce the desirable outcome, the causes mainly lie in the quality of teaching provided.

Findings revealed that there were some hidden factors that intertwine with qualifications to make one competent enough to deliver CT. Lecturers who participated in the study revealed that although they have the qualifications, the training they received in those days does not match the present day delivery of CT. This is in line with Bernstein (2000)'s supposition that the way an academic programme is structured has a bearing on how the pedagogy is transmitted. They attributed this to technological advancement that has been made in the area of Clothing and Textiles. For instance, lecturers cited that they had challenges in core courses of the CT curriculum; Organic chemistry, Textile science and technology, Pattern making and Garment construction.

According to Bernstein (1999) these subjects have been recontextualised, meaning that they have been derived or delocated from various fields into pedagogic discourse. In this case, these subjects were delocated from components of Mathematics and Chemistry so as to come up with content that can easily be taught and understood in CT. However, according to Barnette (2006), this transformation of disciplinary knowledge into academic subjects poses a great challenge to lecturers in that if they have a weak background of these subjects, they will have challenges in delivering the subjects. Barnett further argues that vocational pedagogy involving boundary-crossing in as far as fields of study are concerned should not be under-estimated. In agreement, Gamble (2013) posits that there is need for a lecturer who is involved in crossing

boundaries between discourses to be well-versed with the discourses on either side of the boundary so as to successfully deliver the subject.

Wheelahan and Moodie (2010) argue that there is need to develop a pedagogy that will aid the lecturers in TVE in imparting skills and knowledge to students. However, Winch (2010) also argues that the pedagogy is missing in Technical and Vocational Education and this omission results in students missing out on many aspects in their learning. According to Lucas (2012) pedagogy refers to key elements of teaching and learning like lecturer and students activities in a lecture room, teaching methods and attitude to knowledge. As much considering how fundamental these are, when they are missing in a lecture, it means pedagogy is missing, as alluded to by Winch (2010), hence no learning can take place.

This study attributes the aspect of the missing pedagogy in TVE to the training lecturers received which was being weakened by the changes that have taken place in the Textile industry in terms of the type of machinery being used as well as dynamics in technology used in the construction of textiles. Hunkins and Ornstein (2004), opines that it is fundamental to pay attention to the design of training programmes so that they are aligned with the level of a lecturer's knowledge of relevant subject areas. When university or college courses fail to take the lecturer's level of knowledge into account, this will impact negatively on the delivery of the curriculum. Admittedly, Ajayi (2011: 132) averred that *"the quality of graduates coming out of the chunk of the system lack the necessary technical and professional competence; thus many do not often suit the modern work places"*.

Research demonstrates that lecturers are an important assessable factor in student learning since they are responsible for equipping them with a larger mastery of knowledge, a broader understanding of facts, a larger repository of wisdom, and a better insight on life that will make them specialists in areas they specialise in at university level (Hammond, 2000). This state of affairs in Zimbabwean universities calls for ZIMCHE to do quality control in universities as well as to organise staff development

workshops for lecturers to keep them abreast with the ever-changing technologies in order for them to be able to deliver CT in universities.

5.3 Perceptions of Lecturers and Students towards CT

5.3.1 Quality of students and their attitudes towards CT

The study opines that it is fundamental for students to be self-motivated in their learning (Ladd, 2009). For example, students' motivation to learn has a profound influence on their choice of learning strategies which in turn has an impact on their academic performance. In concurrence, literature reveals that students' academic self-concept is both an important outcome of education and a powerful predictor of student success (Ladd, 2009). Belief in one's own abilities is highly relevant to successful learning. Schneider, Gruman, and Coutts (2012) comment that students with a well-developed ability to manage their own learning are able to choose appropriate learning goals, to use their existing knowledge and skills to direct their learning, and to select learning strategies appropriate to the task at hand. However, on the contrary, not all students are intrinsically motivated to learn. There are some who need a push from the lecturer. Powers (2006) concurs that when students are not intrinsically motivated to learn, or when they have low self-confidence, the chances that they will under-perform will be high. Sometimes some students may think of themselves as people who cannot control their own destiny. They imagine that they are victims of the system and this can lead to academic failure (Bowen & Richman, Rosenfeld 2000). It has been suggested that when students demonstrate weak commitment to their academics then they are bound to underperform.

However, on the other hand some students, according to the findings had high expectations when they joined the department, only to be disappointed by the poor service being rendered by the universities in CT departments. This attitude further

impressed on the students that academic courses were more “important” or “worthy” compared with vocational courses in terms of job aspirations (Kanyongo, 2005). The researcher reasons that it is imperative for lecturers to act in a professional manner which will attract students to the department, than act in a manner which will drive students away. Poor teaching practices create misconceptions which impact negatively on students’ learning. Lecturers should enhance students’ self-confidence, desire to learn, and resilience by working with students to set appropriate goals in teaching and learning. However, Sinatra, Kardash, Taasobshirazi and Lombardi (2012) propose that persuasive pedagogy can be used to promote positive attitude towards learning. This is applicable where students behave indifferently now that universities are required to be more accountable in terms of the efficiency and effectiveness of the way in which they are managed and in the quality of the teaching they provide to the students. However, Lucas (2012:13) argues that “serious consideration of pedagogy is largely missing in Technical and Vocational Education and vocational students are the losers as a result of this omission.”

It is of great importance to note that the way educators communicate their beliefs about a programme in the universities and their attitudes towards it play a part on what the students think about the programme. Therefore, the effect of TVE curriculum should bring about desirable knowledge and positive change among the students as well as developing their technical skills and making them employable (Sall et al 2009). Similarly, strong evidence has suggested that the ways students think about a programme has a compelling effect on motivation and effort to learn (Bandura & Locke, 1977: den Brok, Levy, Rodriguez & Wubbels, 2002). Findings in this study affirm this for students revealed that before they joined the universities they had negative attitude about CT because of limited knowledge, viewing it as a course only limited to fabrics and sewing. It was after orientation when they realised that there was more to CT than just fabrics and sewing. Thus, rather than students getting discouraged about the programme, they generally got motivated and more desire to learn (Dweck, 2006).

On the other hand, findings from the students revealed that it was out of their own initiatives that they were able to learn. They revealed that they made it a point to read ahead or before the lecture. Research about the learning process has shown that students need to believe in their own capacities before making necessary investments in learning strategies and this will help them reach greater heights in their performance (Ladd; Herald-Brown & Kochel, 2009; Zimmerman, 1999). Studies investigating how students actually regulate learning and use appropriate strategies have found particularly strong associations between approaches to learning and performance.

5.3.2 Students' views on assessment methods

It was also established that students were not happy with the way lecturers were marking their work, citing some incidences of favouritism and inconsistency in the marking. Findings revealed that the way lecturers were marking students' work was unprofessional. Weaver (2006) strongly criticises wrong practices when giving marks to students. In the same line of reasoning, Harlen (2008) posits that it is crucial for feedback to be impartial as well as timely. Students complained that they felt the marks they were allocated did not tally with what they had written. Data gathered from students also revealed that in some cases lecturers were heartless in the way they marked assignments to the extent that students felt lecturers had not marked their work thoroughly since no part-marks were given to show how the total mark was arrived at. The poor processing of marks by lecturers reportedly infuriated students because of the fact that high incentives are invested in these assessments.

Orsmond (2000) argues that students pay towards their education, and as a result, they would have invested so much and the only way they get their returns is through the ultimate results they get after writing tests or examinations. In agreement, Green, et al. (2007) are of the opinion that the results or grades a student gets after being assessed should give a true picture of how the student has mastered the concepts. When results are modified due to late submission, lecturer's attitude towards the student or because of the friendship between the lecturer and the student, this results in the grades overstating or understating the students' performance. Green et al. (2007) further

comment that when this happens, it leads to serious ethical problems when these polluted results are used as a yard stick to promote or demote students. These findings correlate with Colnerud (2006:366) who states that “ while some theoretical synthesis has been achieved on some approaches to research on teacher ethics, the difficulty in being a morally good teacher needs further development.”

Literature reveals that assessment determines students' destiny hence the great expectations involved in their processing (Irons, 2008). Weaver (2006) concurs that accurately marked work is a fundamental component in the cycle of learning. The researcher reasons that this is why students relentlessly demand meaningful and constructive feedback from the lecturers since this a yard stick by which they measure their performance as well as progress. Given the fact that the issues contested in processing of assignments rest on proficiency, it becomes crucial for ZIMCHE, (a statutory body set up in 2009, to monitor the quality of education in all higher institutions of learning in Zimbabwe, both public and private) to see to it that issues of quality in universities are addressed so that lecturers are given specifications on how to mark students' work.

Still on the issue of processing students' marks, it was also revealed that lecturers delay in giving students feedback as directed by the universities policy. Findings revealed that this really disturbed students for they were kept anxiously waiting to know how they had performed. Vickery and Lake (2005) are of the view that giving feedback enables students to deliberate on their areas of strength as well as those areas they need to improve on, so it has to be on time for it so serve this intended purpose. This resulted in students losing trust in the competency of the lecturers in as far as marking their assignments was concerned. Giving feedback is a central skill of assessment, so it is wise to get it right in a student / lecturer relationship. Receiving feedback is a crucial component of any learning process. Willey and Gardner (2008) averred that for feedback to be fruitful and useful to the student, it must be both timely and focused. The purpose of feedback is to help a student improve what they are learning (Brown, Joanna & Malcolm, 2013).The same authors further state that feedback has to be useful and

acceptable to the receiver (student). To meet these criteria, feedback has to be specific, accurate, timely, clear, focused upon the attainable goals (Brown, Bull & Pendlebury, 2013). It is against this backdrop that Willey and Freeman (2006) advocated for the use of self and peer assessments, in teaching and learning not only to promote the development of professional skills but to facilitate the provision of regular feedback to students.

Irons (2008:57) argues that, *“feedback is most effective if it is timely, relevant and meaningful.”* This study unveiled that the negative practices of delaying to give students feedback was rampant and this implied that there was no efficiency in the way the situation was managed in as far as the delivery of CT is concerned. It further entails that HODs and lecturers are neither receptive nor sensitive to the plight and needs of the students. The implication of this kind of behaviour is that students end up seeing lecturers as incompetent and insensitive. Chiome, Chakanyuka and Chabaya (2011) observed this as the most common short-coming of lecturers in IHL. The study established that it is the competent lecturer who was committed enough and be able to organise his or her work so as to meet deadlines. This view is shared by Irons (2008) and Cowan (2003) who concede that for feedback to be effective, it should be timely although some fail to leave to this standard. Irons and Cowan further allude that those lecturers who fail to meet deadlines are not committed to their work and are mostly incompetent and this adversely affects the delivery of CT in universities.

In addition students pointed out that some lecturers were subjective in the way they awarded marks, both in theory and in practical assessment tasks. Findings revealed that lecturers awarded students marks based on the first mark one got at the beginning of the course. Students further unveiled that no matter how hard one might work, one's efforts were not rewarded by the lecturer for he or she adhered to the first impression mark. The first impression marking refers to a situation where a lecturer maintains first impression they had of a student. This entails that if student performed poorly in the first test, no matter how hard a student works, she or he will never get a higher mark and inversely those who performed well, they will also maintain good marks even though

their work would be below standard (Harlen, 2008; Phillips, 2008). In essence, education is supposed to produce people of reputable character and values, people who will fit in the community. This study establishes that when education fails to achieve this, the products will be short of basic values in life namely honesty, transparency, discipline as well as fairness. Awarding students low marks when they did not deserve them showed that lecturers were insensitive and unprofessional. This practice however, demotivated students who wanted to excel and rise above minimum achievements. However, this unprofessional practice of subjectivity is contrary to what is advocated for by scholars like Phillips (2008) who affirm that lecturers should be objective in the manner in which they award marks to students.

Still on issues of subjectivity and objectivity in assessment, students also revealed that there were some incidences of favouritism and inconsistency in the marking of practical work. They revealed that those who befriended the lecturers got high marks regardless of the fact that their artefacts were below the expected standard. Students complained that they felt the marks they were allocated did not tally with the artefacts they had produced. According to Mok (2009) the main aim of assessing students is to see whether or not set goals have been achieved. Cuning and Wyatt (2009) maintain that assessment criterion chosen should be reliable, so that even if different lecturers mark the same work, they should be able to come up with the same results or marks for similar work at the end of the day.

The same authors further allude that the degree of bias involved in assessing artefacts and productions needs to be recognised and articulated, so that everyone concerned understands the rules of the game. Assessors need to be sure that where students are involved in assessed work of widely divergent types, they can be assured of the equivalence rather than the identity of the assessment experience (Cumming & Wyatt, 2009). It is believed that this can only be guaranteed when the criteria are clearly understood by all who undertake the assessment. Creative subjects like CT, music and art often provide particular challenges when it comes to assessment. Where possible, it

may be helpful if lecturers involve students in establishing or negotiating the criteria for assessment, so that they fully understand what is expected of them.

Literature reveals that feedback should be about the assignment or test not the student or the relationship between the student and the feedback supplier, in this case, the lecturer (Swaffield, 2008). Cuning and Wyatt (2009) concur with the view by Swaffield (2008). They assert that this is the principal area in which lecturers can influence the extent to which their assessment practices are progressive, rather than totally judgemental. If assessment is to be the fundamental component of learning, though time consuming, it must be at the heart of the teaching and learning process (Cuning & Wyatt, 2009). As a result, lecturers should devote most of their energy and time helping students to understand not only where they have gone wrong, but also areas they need to improve on. Swaffield (2008) posits that students need feedback whenever they excel in their work so that they understand what is good about their work and how they can build on it.

Contrary to the values identified above, this study noted that some lecturers have failed to live up to this standard. Some lecturers used this platform to favour those students who were closer to them by awarding them marks which they did not deserve. This unprofessional way of processing students' marks entails that some lectures are unethical and they is need for them to be equipped with mark processing skills for them to be able to perform their duties ethically. When lecturers fail to impart reputable character to students, this will be moral mockery to the society at large. Ajayi (2011:90) avowed:

Whether we like it or not, education has, in contemporary times, lost one of its important tenets; that is character building. For example, gone were the days when lecturers were paragon of virtues and objects of respect ... It is pertinent to soberly reflect on one critical issue in our education system. That is, the menace of examination malpractice. They are now a serious cankerworm at all levels of education to such an extent that lecturers are easy accomplices, aiding and abetting the misdemeanour.

Affirming the above, Udoh (2012) bemoans that the situation has been aggravated by the fact that the products from such a bad practice are the ones who are being absorbed in the system as teachers and lecturers. Udoh, further laments that a lecturer who cheats students in assessment is the most daring culprit in a society.

5.3.3 Criteria used to select students into CT

The other issue pertaining to the low status assigned to CT in universities was in line with the selection criterion that was used when selecting students. This was really a cause for concern in as far as the findings of this research were concerned. Findings of this study revealed that students who were to enrol for CT were chosen on the basis of gender and also their entry points were lower than those that were required in other departments or faculties. This scenario exacerbated the negative way students and lecturers viewed CT. Literature has it that Zimbabwe has always endeavoured to realise gender equality at all levels in all institutions of learning since the attainment of independence in 1980 (Chabaya, Rembe & Wadesango, 2009). This was evidenced by the fact that the government alluded to several national and international gender declarations and conventions, notably the gender affirmative action policy of 1992, the 1999 Nziramasanga Commission, and the National Gender Policy of March 2004 (Chabaya, Rembe & Wadesango, 2009).

Of interest to note is that selection of students by gender preferences is not only peculiar to Zimbabwean universities, but also prevails in universities in Europe and the United States of America. Literature reveals that in the University of Oregon; the policy stipulated that students were to be given consideration into educational programmes with regard to gender (Mellanby, Martin & O'Doherty, 2000). The same authors allude that gender differences in course options emanates from a number of reasons. They may reflect differences in the types of subjects male and female students study or they may be the result of gender labelling and preconception by a male dominated

profession and which are noticeable, inter alia, in the way students are enrolled. Mansfield and Lee (2006) further elaborate that one reason why the distribution of students by subject area is different by gender is that the relative scarcity of female faculty in traditionally male disciplines has contributed to the reluctance of females to study in those disciplines.

In support of preferential treatment of students entering universities, Mansfield and Lee (2006) affirm that preferential treatment programs are defended on the grounds of distributive justice, which requires that society's benefits be distributed impartially among its members. It is argued that in the past, females have been discriminated against, thus as a result denying them their fair share of opportunities in the education sector, especially in IHL. Engrained and indirect prejudiced policies and practices continue to dominate educational institutions. Those who support preferential policies also appeal to the principle of compensatory justice, which states that people who have been treated unjustly ought to be compensated. Past practices aggravated by disgust marginalised females to inferior positions in the society, while concentrating power and wealth in the hands of males (Mellanby, Martin & O'Doherty, 2000). Increasing the number of females in IHL dismisses the stereotypes that they are incompetent or lack potential and stereotypes that perpetuate chauvinism.

However, according to Adams (2010) opponents of preferential treatment programs argue that when distributing social benefits such as educational opportunities, beneficiaries should be treated as equals unless there are morally relevant reasons for treating them different. They further argue that the basis upon which one should be admitted into university should be the individual's qualifications and skills, not gender. To award or deny benefits on the basis of gender is as unwarranted and biased as practises that were being done in the past. Those who oppose preferential treatment programs also claim that if the purpose of the programmes is to compensate for past discrimination or present disadvantages, then only persons who have been discriminated against should be given preference.

Current preferential treatment programmes, however, favour members of selected groups regardless of whether an individual member has ever suffered discrimination. University programmes awarding preference according to gender are also opposed on the grounds that they cause much more harm than good. Those who may be more qualified are overlooked while others only minimally qualified are chosen. The inevitable result is reduced productivity and efficiency in the work place and the lowering of academic standards in universities. Preferential treatment programs harm female students by stigmatising them and devaluing their achievements. They encourage the belief that all female students gain entry to universities primarily because they are members of underrepresented group and not because they are qualified. Minority individuals may question whether the rules were bent in their case, leading to feelings of inferiority, self-doubt, and incompetence. This has been the case in the universities that were included in this study. CT students were looked down upon and labelled as low achievers due to the low entry points.

It is worth noting that universities differ in the criteria they use when enrolling students. A student who is rejected for admission by one university may be accepted at another university. This is because colleges use certain factors both academic and personal in making their admission decisions. Each university will put these factors into consideration in order to accept candidates based upon institutional expectations. While many of today's female students in universities may not have been the victims of discrimination in the past, they have been victimised by its effects. As descendants of those who were denied access into universities because of failing to meet entry requirements, female students have grown up deprived of the resources, opportunities, and education necessary to develop the skills and confidence needed to compete on level ground with their male counterparts.

5.3.4 Lecturers' motivation

It also surfaced from the findings that some lecturers' morale in teaching CT had been dampened. This was reportedly due to lack of resources and machinery in CT departments in universities. Literature unveils that lecturer morale impacts directly on

delivery of lectures, lecturer effectiveness and leadership, as well as student performance (Mani & Uma, 2010). Their findings from a study they carried out in South Africa correlate with findings of the current study. It was revealed that for over a decade or more, there has been a steady decline in lecturer morale in many institutions of learning in South Africa, which has led to many lecturers adopting an apathetic attitude to their profession. Even the most skilled teachers find it increasingly difficult to maintain standards and give off their best. Lecturers who participated in this study reiterated that in as much as they wanted to work, lack of machinery in the departments was a demotivating factor. Gamble (2013) comments that meaningful understanding of vocational pedagogy entails having enough support materials for teaching and learning. This is supported by Bernstein (1999) who alludes that the way the learning environment is organised in terms of space and equipment contributes to effective transmission of knowledge and skills.

The above finding is consistent with numerous studies that were conducted in developed countries such as in America. The National Centre for Education Statistics discovered that favourable workplace conditions were positively related to lecturers' job satisfaction regardless of whether a lecturer was employed by a public or private institution. Asikhia (2010) alludes that lecturers need to be motivated so as to be productive in the teaching arena. Since lecturers are arguably the most important group of professionals in IHL, it is disturbing to learn that several of today's lecturers are discontented with their jobs. It goes without reasoning that without motivation, lecturer competency alone cannot produce the desirable out-come in service delivery.

Lecturers need to be motivated so as to be productive. This then implies that the quality of service rendered by an unmotivated lecturer could affect the academic achievement of students. However, of interest to note is that there were some lecturers whose enthusiasm in teaching CT had reportedly increased. They attributed this to the fact that they were finding CT exciting and they were also learning new aspects on CT from the students. This is consistent with findings made by Stenlund (2005) in his cross-cultural study of enthusiasm and discouragement in U.S.A in which lecturers clearly identified

students as the primary and central factor that has an impact on both their professional enthusiasm and discouragement and conversely list low motivation in students as a discourager. Mani and Uma (2010: 2) posit that:

In universities, the morale of lecturers is an important factor to ensure that lecturers give off their best at all times so that students receive the best possible education. Young minds are easily influenced and affected by what they see and learn. Creating a positive school climate is an added factor that can help universities focus on providing a well-rounded educational programme in which lecturers and students are willing participants.

The study opines that although lecturers can take steps individually to preserve their professional contentment and morale, they must also be encouraged, supported and valued by the broader university community such as ZIMCHE, the Ministry Of Higher and Tertiary Education (MOHTEST) and Head of Departments (HODs), to influence good practices in the delivery of a programme. Key to improving lecturer morale is creating a positive working environment which is more susceptible to change and which provides the preconditions necessary for teaching and learning to take place. When lecturers are provided with the equipment or resources they need to remain inspired and enthusiastic in the lecture rooms, students as well as lecturers will benefit in the teaching and learning process.

Another outstanding finding from this study was that the majority of the lecturers did not cover all the topics they were supposed to cover as per curriculum requirement, but they concentrated on those they found to be interesting. King and Martin (2002) explain the TVE “fallacy” as a challenge between planning and reality. One can deduce that when lecturers fail to deliver curriculum in the manner it is supposed to be done, this impacts negatively on students’ performance and future aspirations and also it defeats the whole purpose of planning in education. When educators fail to follow the curriculum which is the roadmap in teaching and learning, there is bound to be some inconsistency in as far as the delivery of the curriculum is concerned. Porter (2006) also argues that the curricula are well designed with aims that are praiseworthy but all too often the

attention and energies of policymakers are focused on the 'what' of desired educational change, neglecting the 'how' and this hampers the delivery of the programme.

5.3.5 Perceptions of the wider society

Findings of the study also revealed that CT was badly labelled in universities. TVE suffers from a competition in status with general academic education, emerging as "second choice" education (Kanyongo, 2005). Needham, et al (2009) affirmed this when he alluded that there was need of breaking falsely-held concepts of finding superiority in academic subjects at the expense of practically-oriented subjects. The same author further alludes that in Botswana, the problem with TVE, has been its poor status as compared to academic education. There is general consensus that those who have taken courses of study generally called "academic" reap substantial financial returns from their education than vocational education background (Kanyongo, 2005). This is against the backdrop that during the colonial era, academic subjects were more associated with "white collar" jobs which were less strenuous and highly paid whereas technical ones were aligned to "blue collar" jobs which were more strenuous, less attractive in nature with unattractive salaries. In concurrence, Oketch (2007) indicated that CT lecturers appear as an abnormal group, with an unclear identity and whose status was indecisive yet they occupy a most important place in modern society for they are the link between the world of work and the educational system.

The lecturers are often not respected or given recognition, since the academic lecturers (and even the educational authorities) believe the former do not possess adequate "formal" qualifications or a "proper" academic background (Kanyongo, 2005). In agreement, Grollmann and Rauner (2007) consider the question of status to be the "core paradox". While vocational lecturers are indispensable to supporting skills development, the status that they have is not high enough for this role. King (2002) affirms that youth in Africa had already quite rationally decided in the sixties, despite all attempts to change their attitude that an academic education would be better for achieving their goals than vocational education. In agreement, Johanson and Adams (2004) argue that in Africa TVE has been considered as a career pathway for the less

academically gifted students. In agreement with the above argument, Gumbo (2006) claimed that youth in Africa have already quite rationally decided in the years of colonial rule that manual work is a form of punishment.

The then President of the Republic of South Africa, Mr Mbeki reiterated that the legacy of the past is so profound that it continues to haunt progress in technical institutions (Akoojee, Gewer, & McGrath, 2005). On the contrary, Oketch (2007) is more critical of this belief. Oketch argues that this belief does not have to apply today, as TVE in general is now seen as training that facilitates vocational-specific skills over a lifetime. The same author further argues that it is sad to realise that this belief continues to influence policymakers today, making them unconvinced about the need for TVE in universities. Rojewski and Park (2005) share the same view when they allude that the traditional distinction was developed by educators, but the labour market has its own way of appraising qualifications. However, the situation has not been the same in Australia. Australia has managed to exterminate the long-standing, stereotyped views about the supremacy of academic subjects compared to technical subjects (Needham, 2009). Literature unveils that this was done through giving educational institutions space to introduce technical education as part of a responsive, flexible approach to education.

However, this study affirms that in most African countries, this belief was inculcated in Africans by their colonial masters during the colonial era. Then, white collar jobs were highly rewarding, respectable and were only reserved for a minority of white people. The menial or practical work was reserved for the natives. It is from this era that most Africans developed the belief that academic subjects were better than practical-oriented ones. In Zimbabwe, the introduction of the F1 and F2 schools exacerbated this scenario for F1 schools were meant for the “academically” gifted, in this case, the white people whilst F2 schools were practically-oriented for “the less academically gifted” and these were the Black people. In so doing, the colonial masters were perpetuating an element of servitude in Zimbabweans since they would always serve them as their masters. As a result, people had less regards for any education that was manually oriented. This opinion is supported by Zvobgo (1997) and Oketch (2007) who asserted that this was

propagated by the approach taken by the international community, which prioritised general education at the expense of practically- oriented education.

5.4 The relationship between universities and the world of work

It emerged from this study that there was no clear link between universities and industries. Lecturers alluded this to lack of cooperation between universities and industrial personnel. The picture in Zimbabwe also mirrors the situation in most African countries and the developed world in that most employers were complaining that the TVE programme was not meeting the needs of the industry (World Data, 2011). African countries like Botswana are advocating for the TVE curriculum to be linked to the industries so as to meet the demands of the employers. A study by UNESCO/ILO in Botswana on TVE emphasised the need for educated multi-skilled technicians. In Europe, the design of curricula and the planning of places available for learning are to some extent based upon large-scale economic analyses of “skills needs” (CEDEFOP, 2008). Tribe (2005) and Tribe (2002) view the Technical and Vocational Education curriculum as aiming to produce students who have skills that are applicable to the workplace. This is only possible when the relationship between the universities and industries is sound.

Literature reveals that without a sound relationship between universities and industries, the deleterious effects of producing students without the much needed skills in the manufacturing industries will continue to be felt in African countries, and this also includes Zimbabwe (World Data, 2011). Findings of this study have revealed that the lack of links between universities and industries have done more harm than good. This is as far as quality is to be achieved in the delivery of the CT curriculum. While general vocational education is important, a system that is disconnected from the world of work leads to undervalued skills or, even worse, unemployment. Literature has dichotomised vertical and horizontal discourses (Bernstein, 1999; Gamble, 2013; Young, 2006). This dichotomy creates a void which is not easy to fill in the educational arena. The way

these discourses are described: vertical discourse being the official knowledge and horizontal discourse being the common knowledge creates a bridge between these two discourses (Bernstein, 1999; Young, 2006). This bridge further imposes challenges for students when they go on WIL for the transition will not be smooth, as alluded by Fabian (2002) who defines transition as movement from one stage to another and entails a change of identity. This study concedes that since vertical and horizontal discourses are seen as two worlds apart, this further poses challenges for students when they go on WIL.

Bernstein (1999) views WIL as an integral part of Technical Vocational Education, for this is the only chance the student has to get to put into practice the theory he or she would have learnt in universities.

Nwanekezi and Ifionu (2010:76) concur:

Teaching is one occupation that has the greatest number of quarks despite its position as the “key” for development of human intellect and skills. From pre-nursery level, it is common to find people who do not have educational qualifications still parade themselves as professional lecturers. It is no doubt that even the teacher education institutions which are expected to turn out teachers who are intellectually, socially and professionally competence end-up producing half-baked students.

However, studies carried out in Germany unveiled different practises. The subject matter and training methods were largely jointly determined by the industry and training institutions so as to reflect current vocational practice and ensure a successful mix of theory and practice (Browne, 2012). For instance, in Germany, each year 60 per cent of German school-leavers were integrated into the labour force with a degree of success almost incomparable in the rest of Europe. In the same line of thought, Shaeiwitz (1999) commented that since the mid-1990s, there has been a global trend towards outcomes-based accreditation of undergraduate engineering programmes (Shaeiwitz, 1999). This means that degree programmes are accredited on the skills and knowledge a graduate

has when leaving the university rather than on the contact time dedicated to each particular subject. This leads one to conclude that current and emerging developments in the business arena warrant that the students improve on hands-on skills relating to the Clothing manufacturing industries.

Findings of the study also revealed that the machinery being used in universities were out-dated, not working and did not match industrial standards. Egbo (2005a) avowed that building lecturer capacity means that the universities and governing bodies need to provide the necessary resources; materials and equipment that are required to lecture effectively. The same author reiterated that it is impossible to deliver 21st Century education with 19th century tools. This scenario exists in universities. It is difficult to use old machinery whose capacity does not meet the activities that need to be carried out by students in the laboratories or work rooms. These environment variables are assumed not only to influence an individual's career choices and performance in their career development process but also to explain academic performance (Niles & Harris-Bowlsbey, 2002; Smith, 2002). According to Orrell (2001:3), WIL enables students:

To identify relevance of particular theoretical concepts, skills and ways of preceding that have been learnt in their course of study, put theory into practice, develop awareness of workplace culture and appreciate the rapidly changing nature of the world of work and to evaluate and develop work-related personal attributes (diplomacy cooperation, workplace etiquette and leadership.

This entails that there is need for universities and industries to work hand in hand so that the students on WIL will get the best out of the hands-on practices in industries so as to enrich their skills. Bernstein (2000:13) states that *“the purpose of an academic curriculum is to induct students into a field of knowledge while the purpose of a vocational curriculum is to induct students into a field of practice.”* (cf Chapter 2) Workplace experiences can provide genuine career development learning opportunities for all students. Multiple experiences and contexts enrich this learning. However, the researcher opines that CT is essential in this modern age of science and technology

thus it is of paramount importance that students are exposed to learning which equips them with the skills applicable in the world of work. Unfortunately, the teaching and learning of CT has been uptight with challenges which prevent many students from acquiring the relevant skills and shortage of equipment and machinery has been one of them.

Students who participated in the study alluded their lack of hands-on skills to this scenario. They explained that if the universities had links with the industries, the industries would also participate in their day-to-day activities whilst in universities so as to foster mastery of skills and not to wait for the attachment period. From such revelations, the researcher maintains that most of the challenges universities are facing have a bearing on the absence of the university-industry link. Products of IHL should make a smooth transition from universities into the world of work. However, it is sad to note that without the requisite skills and knowledge needed by the industries, they will not subsist. Curriculum designers in universities should keep in mind that gone are the days when IHL would say “come and take what we offer”, but to say “we offer what you want to take”.

Students and lecturers who participated in the study unveiled that the machinery and resources in universities were old to the extent that they were beyond repair. The procurement, maintenance, distribution, of equipment and machinery should not be overlooked as it undermines the delivery of CT at university level. With the needed resources and support, students in universities are more likely to receive a first rate education. Consequently, it will not only be students that will benefit in terms of their own personal growth and development because they will also be able to contribute to the country’s economic and social prosperity. Research emphasises that learning environments that promote effective teaching and learning are those that are adequately equipped with educational materials and infrastructure (Gardner, 1999).

In agreement, Wilson and dan Fowler (2005) comment that research has paid immense attention to the learning environment due to its contribution to the enhancement of desirable results from a learning situation for equipment and machinery available in any learning environment act as catalyst in meeting the needs of students. This view is also supported by Norlia (2006) who posits that the learning environment is crucial in teaching and learning. Furthermore, a learning environment with the necessary teaching and learning equipment enables teaching and learning to be done with no hassles. Studies conducted by Norlia (2006), revealed that environmental factors such as the academic facilities are a significant contributor to students' skill attainment. Such learning environment is likely to enhance students' interest in learning as they also focus on the lecture at hand. In a study of 776 students carried out by Kamaruddin Tahir (2010) it was revealed that the learning environment played a significant role in enabling students' to acquire the needed basic skills.

On this aspect, no matter how motivated and intelligent the students might be, and no matter how dedicated lecturers might be to their work, without the necessary equipment and resources it is most likely that the majority of lecturers will not succeed in their teaching and pedagogical practices hence students will finish university without having acquired the necessary hands-on skills. However, considering that CT graduates of today are facing global competition on a far greater scale than ever before in history, in terms of skill acquisition it is clear that successful economies in the near future will be limited to those nations in which the workforce is able to respond by effectively communicating, applying knowledge, relevant skills and engaging in creative problem-solving on a global scale. The students of today, as future leaders and citizens of tomorrow, will need to learn a set of the 21st century skills that will enable countries to revive the clothing industries which are on the verge of collapse.

Furthermore, it emerged from the data that industrial personnel felt students lacked the basic skills in CT when they came for attachment. This made it difficult for students to settle in the various departments they had been placed. Studies show that graduates find the transition from university to placement or attachment difficult and are slow to get

started because of lack of basic hands-on skills (Ball, 2002). According to Hagar and Holland (2006) and Barrie (2004) there has been a shift to focus on assessing students in terms of graduate attributes which they should develop and demonstrate during the course of their degree. Graduate attributes are distinct skills which are geared towards the development of attitudes and dispositions in students. In the same line of thought, Barrie (2004) claims that some of these attributes are discipline specific, for instance good workmanship and hands-on skills and others are universal to all professions. Hagar and Holland (2006) further allude that graduate attributes can be considered as students' maturity or ability to apply previous knowledge to new contexts to achieve new learning and knowledge. The same authors further allude that, to effectively develop graduate attributes in students throughout their degree programme, subjects need to be designed in such a way that they provide opportunities for these attributes to be continually developed. This is in harmony with Bernstein (2000) idea that the way a learning programme is designed affects the way it is delivered.

There is a reported competency gap between the level of the skills required by employers and the level developed by students during their undergraduate courses. Students on attachment feel they are inadequately prepared for the realities of the industries and as a result they lacked confidence (Ball, 2002; Kimbell, Saxton & Miller, 2000). Research into graduate design and craft businesses at the University of Brighton produced similar findings (Ball, 2002). South Africa has not been left behind in as far as development of skills that are aligned to the needs of the industry amongst students is concerned. Literature reveals that skills development is fundamental to the socio-economic development strategy of post-apartheid South Africa (Powell, 2012). The Skills Development Act of 1998 established a drastic approach to education and training which called for an improvement in the quantity, quality and relevance of education and training in order that it might increase economic competitiveness and improve the quality of life of all South Africans (Powell, 2012). This Act was established against the backdrop of apartheid which was characterised by a low skills equilibrium and large scale unemployment among South Africans.

Self-confidence and confidence in the area a student had been placed were considered to be critical for success, yet were often found to be lacking. There is need for lecturers to instil confidence in students by exposing them to both common and official knowledge so that students get to appreciate the boundaries (Young, 2006). When this is done correctly, students would be able to use the different knowledge bodies correctly including when on WIL. Miller (2002) stated that it is essential for universities to equip students with hands-on skills, problem-solving approaches before they go on WIL as it produces flexible, adaptable individuals who are able to cope to the demands of the work place. In line with this, Barnette (2006); Gamble (2013) and Young (2006) advocate for Technical and Vocational Education courses that put equal importance to both the theory and the practice

It is worrying to note that students will be demotivated only a few months into the attachment period because they lack the basic skills, as a result they find the duties they are given very demanding (Kimbell, Saxton, & Miller, 2000). This has a direct impact on self-esteem and ultimately students' confidence. Burroughs (2000) recommended that confidence is instilled through the learning process through mentorship and collaboration between industrial personnel and students. However, this process gives the work value and helps students to progress in their development. Ideally, students should be able to articulate the value of their educational experiences and be aware of the transferability of the valuable processes they have learnt (Burroughs, 2000). In today's society, there is need for graduates who possess competencies consistent with hands-on skills. This means that, amongst other competencies, graduates should possess skills which will enable them to deal with the intricacy of the tasks in which they will engage in the world of work.

It also emerged from the findings that some students had problems in securing places for WIL. Chuang, Goh, Stout and Dellmann- Jenkins (2007) affirm that placement of students in various organisations as trainees is an academic requirement to foster the work experience so the students will attain the necessary skills to supplement the training they get in universities. The WIL code of practice asserts that one of the main

purposes of work experience is to enable industry to demonstrate the career potential that is available which involves providing appropriate platform to acquire hands-on skills to the students. This view is also embraced by the Bernsteinian framework which entails that there need to be integration between common knowledge and official knowledge when it comes to the actual practice in the workplace.

It is sad to note that given the aim of WIL by, Chuang, Goh, Stout and Dellmann-Jenkins (2007) most universities are failing to achieve this goal. Findings of this study revealed that instead of going for WIL for the stipulated 12 months, some students went for fewer months. The researcher reasons that this had crippling effects on skill acquisition on the part of the students. The fact that students could not be equipped adequately by universities, the industries would be seen as their own salvation. When the industries fail to live up to this expectation, then it defeats the essence of WIL as proposed by Gamble (2013) and Young (2006) who allude that there is need for one to make use of both disciplinary knowledge and common knowledge for skill acquisition in the workplace.

If students are exposed to industries for fewer months than the stipulated 12 months, what it means is that they will not acquire all the relevant skills; as a result they will be under equipped to face the demands of the world of work. This boils back to the issue of the lack of sound relations between universities and industries as discussed earlier on in the study. It therefore goes without reasoning that if the link between these institutions was well defined, students were not supposed to find difficulties in getting places for WIL or placement. There was going to be a smooth transition from the universities to industries for there would be a policy underlying students' placement on WIL. The fact that universities and industries are operating on unequal wave lengths, makes the student who is at the receiving end suffer the consequences. This view correlates with findings from the study that was carried out by Pursell and Quinn (2005). In a different study carried out by Chuang, Goh, Stout and Dellmann-Jenkins (2007) on 704 students who had completed Hospitality degree courses, their results confirmed

that graduates complained of having little opportunity to develop hands-on skills because of the limited time they had whilst on WIL.

Findings of the study revealed that students faced various challenges whilst on attachment. The most contested issue was the lack of financial support from universities and industries as well as the student and supervisor relationship. Unsuitable working hours and lack of financial assistance have been cited as problems facing some students whilst on WIL (O'Leary & Deegan). These challenges could be the burden which can pull students out of the university without completing their WIL ((Zusman, 2005; Harttley & McInnis, 2005). Crocker and Luhtanen (2003) affirm that financial problems are a major challenge for university students on WIL. The same authors further elaborate that financial challenges pertain to travelling expenses, rent expenses as well as food. In this study travelling expenses is the most common challenge for the students.

As a result of financial constraints students fail to meet the demands of WIL. This can be the reason why students failed to turn up for WIL on daily basis. There was evidence from the findings that students absented themselves unnecessarily from the factory. Although the supervisors strongly felt that this was an act of misconduct, the researcher feels that it was as a result that the transport costs were so exorbitant that the students could not afford them. Students reported that a student had to part with US\$4 for transport considering that the commuters hiked their fares to US\$1 for a single trip when it was peak hour. The fact that the clothing factories are located in the industrial zone further aggravated the problem of transport expenses.

The other challenge students faced had to do with the way they related with their supervisors whilst on WIL. Findings unearthed that female students were prone to sexual harassment as well as segregation. According to Shane (2009) sexual harassment is any undesirable behaviour of a sexual nature that interferes with an individual's life. Sexual behaviour can be visual, verbal or physical contact. The definition by Shane (2009) summarises all what was echoed by students in as far as

sexual harassment was concerned. Students lamented that their supervisors used vulgar words and made sexual advances which made students uncomfortable to work in the clothing factory. Female students were also denied the right to operate some of the machinery. Literature reveals that in most instances, sexual harassment is perpetuated by someone who yields more power (supervisor) than the other, (the student) (DeGue, Dilillo & Scalora, 2010; ERA; Sexual Harassment at Work, 2011). The people who supervise them are normally, the perpetrators. It has been observed that during the attachment period, it is only the female students who fall victims since they are perceived as frantic about passing the WIL component by these supervisors and also want some extra money. As a result, they are considered easy sexual victims.

Of concern to note is that from the findings, some students were reluctant to report these abusive acts for fear of victimisation and some found it as a way of getting extra cash for living expenses. In line with this argument, Reese and Lindenburg (2005) avowed that female students avoid reporting sexual harassment. Females are allegedly afraid of reporting any harassment dreading vengeance and non-action by those delegated to protect them. The same authorities allude this to the fact that female students are easily flattered by little gifts they get from their supervisors. Makura and Zireva (2011) in their study of sexual harassment of student teachers on teaching practice revealed that the victims feel frightened to the extent that they cannot report the acts of sexual harassment perpetrated against them by their supervisors. As a result, the extensiveness of the sexual harassment acts amongst students on attachment is not exposed. It is however sad to note that female students will find themselves in a quandary. It is either they would report the supervisors to management personnel in the industry and thus putting their attachment at risk or to bear the harassment.

Overall, students had moderate to high expectations from their organisations' work environment. Students expected the supervisors to be friendly and supportive, to be concerned about their well-being and committed to their job, emphasising good planning, efficiency and getting the job done. They also expected to have clarity on daily routines. This supported the fact that the Horizontal discourse in Bernstein framework is

segmented and as a result it calls for thorough supervision and mentoring to able students to move from one segment to another without challenges. Cameron-Jones and Ohara (1999) comment that this depends on the industry one chooses, for some will not take you through the segments but just set up all the hoops and ask a student to jump through them or they will give the student a ball and ask him or her to run with it. On this note, the researcher opines that what the student wants in this case are not the machinery, but he or she needs to be taught how to operate them so as to be able to do the task at hand. Students need guidance on how to do some processes in different sections of the clothing factory from the marker room to the dispatch.

It goes without reasoning that as a result of this immoral behaviour portrayed by the supervisors in the industries, the students may be discouraged from entering their chosen professions after graduation fearing that this behaviour would still resurface when they are full time employees in the industries.

5.5 Support Systems put in Place to Enable the Delivery of Clothing and Textiles Curriculum in Universities

It also emerged from the study that most lecturers were not receiving staff development training. Only a handful had attended training. Teacher professional development is essential to the improvement of performance among lecturers in IHL (Borko, 2004). Guskey (2000) who for long has been an advocate for well-designed staff development that has as its goal in the improvement of student learning comments that lifelong learning is a requirement for all lecturers. If lectures are to successfully take all students to high standards of achievement in learning, basically everyone who affects students' learning must be learning all the time (Guskey, 2000). Academics are not different from any other occupational group in terms of the expectation that they will accumulate new skills and knowledge throughout their entire careers. Falk (1999: 7) asserts that:

Lifelong learning is now working as a vehicle for selling commodities and as a profitable commodity in itself. It is largely a project of economic, social and

epistemological recuperation dedicated to delimiting rather than expanding the subjectivities of learners exposed to it.

In the same line of thought, William (2002) asserts that all professional workers need to be developed. There should be no end to professional development since the true professional knows that learning is for life. The same author further alludes that in universities, professional development workshops provide a platform for turning lecturers into better academics. In concurrence, Guskey (2002) and Killion (2002) affirmed that professional and staff development programs are intended to equip lecturers with new or refined skills and techniques for achieving better results for their students, and for helping lecturers themselves to be more confident in lecture delivery. World- wide, professional development has been seen as essential in improving lecturer competence. In the same view several authors avowed that the purpose of professional development in the search for academic excellence, helps lecturers become better academics (Belzer, 2003; Elmore, 2002; Farnsworth, Shaha, Bahr, Lewis & Benson, 2002; Guskey, 2002; Killion, 2002; Lewis & Shaha, 2003). The same authorities further allude that professional and staff development programs are intended to equip lecturers with new or refined skills and techniques for achieving better results for their students, and for assisting lecturers themselves to become more confident when delivering lectures.

However, Guskey (2000) bemoans that at the very time that policy makers and educational leaders have come to realise the importance of continuous professional learning, their relentless efforts have been marred by a long history of low quality staff development experiences which have left most lecturers with little faith that it will actually help them improve student learning. Falk (1999) concurs that lifelong learning has departed from its original intent to make learning more attractive by separating it from schooling, and now make education more unpleasant and more unfavourable to those who choose not to engage in it. Literature reveals that to improve staff development, educational leaders should desist from redoubling their efforts using old paradigm methods (Guskey, 1999). The same authority refers professional

development as not *“simply doing more of the same old staff is not necessarily better. It can actually lead to diminished results, higher levels of frustration and increased cynicism”*. Literature reveals that teacher professional development is deemed to be more effective when it is locally sustained, and involves an active, cooperative participation of lecturers (Bennett & Gitomer, 2009). This also cuts on costs since some lecturers who participated in this study bemoaned that universities were unable to fund them so that they could attend staff development courses which were organised elsewhere.

Research on professional development has constantly pointed out that school-embedded lecturer learning communities are powerful mechanisms for lecturer change in their lecture room practices (Bennett & Gitomer, 2009; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006; William & Thompson, 2008; Wylie, Lyon, & Goe, 2009). Improving lecturers' capacity is believed to have positive influences on student learning. According to Bennett and Gitomer (2009) there is need to go beyond traditional approaches to lecturer in-service training and build more on lecturer learning communities, which enable lecturers to help one another discover new strategies on how to improve on delivery of subject matter. On the other hand, Dede, Korte, Nelson, Valdez, and Ward (2005) stated that no improvement can be made in education without building lecturers' capacity to innovate. In the same vein, Koh and Velayutham (2009); William and Thompson's (2008) emphasise that developing the competency of the existing lecturing staff is far more effective than hiring new lecturers to replace the old ones in the effort to improve educational outcomes. For professional development courses to be effective they should be tailored towards a specific topic or area not just generalisations and it should be targeted towards a specific group of people to ensure they benefit more.

Findings of the study also revealed that peer review was the most common method being used to assess lecturers in universities. Falchikov (1995), Sommerwell (1993) Boud, Cohen and Sampson (2001) define peer assessment as the process through which groups of individuals rate their peers. This may entail previous discussion or agreement over agreed criteria. It may involve the use of rating instruments which have

been designed by the department or the university before the assessment exercise or designed by the user group to meet its particular needs (Boud, Cohen and Sampson, 2001). The same authors further allude that peer assessment is a practice that can foster high levels of competence amongst lecturers as they have the chance to observe their colleagues teach and to give feedback to colleagues and to be given positive criticism by their colleagues as well which will enable them to improve on their areas of weaknesses (Johnston & Miles, 2004). In concurrence, Wiliam and Thompson (2008) affirm that peer assessment provide a mutual environment for lecturers to discuss their weaknesses in content knowledge with their co-workers. Findings of this study revealed that lecturers were assessed on lecture delivery. The researcher reasons that peer assessment is not only a grading procedure; it is part of a learning process through which skills are developed. It is often used as a means of delegating assessment of an individual's contribution to teaching and learning. It was revealed in this study that students also evaluated lecturers' competency. Boud and Falchikov (2007) affirm that peer assessment provides students with opportunities to practise evaluating their lecturers' performance. This also enables students to provide feedback to lecturers on their performance (Boud & Falchikov, 2007).

In Singapore, lecturers have continuously been given support, training, and resources in developing their skills and implementing new curriculum design, assessment methods, and teaching methods that are designed to meet the desired outcomes of education for the 21st century learning (MOE, 1999). However the success of such tools in improving students' learning and attribute development depends critically on how academics implement them within their subjects (Freeman & McKenzie, 2002). In addition, it is worth noting that professional development is more effective than short-term or one-shot professional development workshops in improving lecturer competency. Lecturer professional development is deemed to be more effective when it is locally sustained, and involves an active, cooperative participation of lecturers. Research on lecturer professional development has consistently pointed out that university-embedded lecturer professional development workshops are powerful mechanisms for building lecturer ability in the delivery of the subject matter and for the

lecturer to change in their lecture room practices (Bennett & Gitomer, 2009; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006; William & Thompson, 2008; Wylie, Lyon, & Goe, 2009).

William and Thompson (2008) assert that university-embedded professional development training workshops are sustained over time and this will allow changes in lecturers' practices to occur developmentally. This kind of conservation allows lecturers to help each other to develop their expertise in teaching and content knowledge by allowing for repeated cycles of learning, practice, reflection, and adjustment within their daily context. In the same vein, William and Thompson (2008) posit that it is important to provide lecturers with professional development based on a lecturer as a local or expert model. However, the researcher opines that in peer review, there is need for lecturers to be fair and not subjective in as far as the judgements they make regarding their colleagues. Prejudice will defeat the whole purpose of assessment.

Findings of the study revealed that students were not happy with the manner in which they were being assessed in the universities. Assessment and its interface with curriculum, teaching and learning has always been a significant component of lecture room practice (Cumming & Wyatt-Smith, 2009). Research indicates that lecturers spend between one third and one hour of their time assessing students, thus showing its importance in teaching and learning. Assessment not only continues to be a key activity of lecturers, but also has become a key focus of educational research throughout the world (Black, Harison, Lee, Marshall & William, 2003; Black and William, 2004; Harlen, 2005; Kellis & Silvernail, 2002). However, the million dollar question one might ask is whether or not assessment is being done the proper way. Findings of this study revealed that lecturers were falling short in as far as assessing students work was concerned. Students complained about the weighting of theory examinations and practical examinations which was not balanced (Theory-75%; Practical-25%). This was in contraction with what Bernstein framework proposed; an integrated approach to official knowledge, knowledge learnt in institutions and common knowledge, the one that has its roots in the workplace.

There is need for lecturers to balance on the work they give to students (Cumming & Wyatt-Smith, 2009). This implies a reduced concentration on old-fashioned written assessments, particularly time constrained unseen examinations, and to put more emphasis on assessment instruments that measure not just recall of facts, but also the students' abilities to use the material they have learned to live situations, thus marrying theory to practical (Brown, Bull & Pendlebury, 2013; Cumming & Wyatt-Smith, 2009). This view is also shared by Gamble (2013) who advocates for the integration of the vertical and horizontal discourses in any learning environment. Combining theoretical knowledge with practice will lead to deeper learning and understanding in order to gain expertise (Fink, 2003). Still on the same issue, students expressed their wish of wanting the industry to assess them when they are in universities, not to wait for the WIL period. If lecturers want students to demonstrate employability skills when they graduate, there is need to engage the employer in the assessment of the assignments they give to the students so that they are designed in such a way that they are also practically-orientated, for instance fashion designing, fashion forecasting, Clothing merchandising or Quality control (Brown, Bull & Pendlebury, 2013; Cumming & Wyatt-Smith, 2009). Brown, Bull and Pendlebury (2013) assert that there is need for an assessment to be "fit for purpose" which implies that partly it should enable assessment of the extent to which students have learned (that is theory) and the extent to which they can demonstrate that learning (practical) (Brown, Bull & Pendlebury, 2013; Cumming & Wyatt-Smith, 2009).

It is encouraged that rather than assessing the student's ability to write about good practice, an effective assessment strategy should seek to measure how the student can put into practice what he or she has learnt in the lecture (Brown, Bull & Pendlebury, 2013). It is sad to note that this type of rating is bound to jeopardise those students who are practically-oriented, for in as much as they excel in the practical part of the assessment, the lower weighting it carries will always drag them to the bottom of the ladder. It is common knowledge that with practical-oriented subjects, students need to be given an equal opportunity to get exposed to both the practical aspect and the theory aspect of the subject. When this is not done, what it means is that the universities would produce "half-baked" students who will be lacking the hands-on skills and misfits in the

world of work like the researcher has alluded to earlier on in this study. This view is supported by Brown and Glasner (1999), Gibbs and Rowntree (1999) and Thorpe (2000) who emphasise that any form of assessment that is meant to be inclusive, that is taking aboard both theory and practical should be able to embrace the diversity of strategies to be used in assessment so that the same students are not always disadvantaged. All students should be awarded equal opportunities to demonstrate their abilities and maximise on their potential.

However, research has also expressed concern on the knowledge that lecturers hold about assessment matters which has been limited, with scant attention paid to this area in teacher training programmes (Cumming & Wyatt-Smith, 2009). Therefore, there is need for professionals from IHL to take the initiative in guaranteeing that the process does not blunder out of lecturers' hands. The universities must not allow administrative policies, whether put in place by the government or the universities to twist or shape the manner in which students in universities are assessed. It is wise to find ways of changing the system if it does not allow the lecturers to device cherished assessment strategies. CT lecturers should ensure that decisions about assessment strategies are based on the best available evidence-based research rather than on what is easy to do.

5.6 Summary

The current study used the Bernstein framework of Vertical and Horizontal discourse. This theory was discussed in relation to the findings of the study. This discussion culminated in the proposal of a model of best practice for the delivery of CT curriculum in universities to be presented in the chapter that follows. The next chapter presents the summary of the study, major conclusions that were drawn from the study as well as the recommendations on how the CT curriculum can be delivered in universities.

CHAPTER SIX

6 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 discussed the findings of this study. This chapter is divided into five sections, the first section summarises the major findings of the study taking into consideration the research objectives, questions and assumptions of the study. The second section draws conclusions based on the findings of the study. The third section offers recommendations based on the major findings. The fourth section puts into focus the contribution of this study to new knowledge in the area of the delivery of the delivery for the CT curriculum for universities in Zimbabwe. It further offers an alternative model for the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities in Zimbabwe. The fifth section suggests areas for future research.

6.2 Summary of Findings

This section summarises the major findings in line with the research questions and objectives of the study. The section gives a summary of the findings on the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities. It was established that the delivery of CT has been marred by a lot of problems, thus making it impossible for quality education to be achieved in universities. Lecturers are not competent enough to deliver CT in universities. The students graduating from universities lack the fundamental hands- on

skills necessary for them to fit into the world of work. There has been an outcry by lecturers for universities to organise staff development workshops as well as for universities to procure the necessary equipment and machinery so as to improve the delivery of CT. Industrial personnel is appealing to universities to take into cognisance the suggestions they are given by the industries so as to improve the delivery of CT. The industrial personnel lamented that the attachment period was too short for students to master all the critical skills. Students are disgruntled by the teaching methods that lecturers are using as well as the way they are being assessed. Students expressed their wish of wanting the industry to be involved in assessing them whilst they were in universities. CT is badly labelled partly due to the selection criteria, low entry points as well as the fact that the society puts more value on academic subjects rather than practically-oriented ones.

6.2.1 Competency of lecturers

This study unveiled that competency is an essential lecturer attribute in the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities. All the lecturers who formed the sample for the current study had the minimum required qualification that is the first degree to enable them to teach in universities. However, although the lecturers had the required minimum qualifications, they were not competent enough to deliver CT. The fact that they highlighted having difficulties in delivering core courses namely; Organic chemistry, Textile science and Technology, Garment construction, Pattern making and fabric printing and dyeing bear testimony to how grave the situation in the universities is. Lecturers attributed this underperformance to the training they received in Teachers' Training Colleges which is no longer viable and or at par with the technological vicissitudes that have taken place in the area of CT. What it means is that, the academic knowledge that lecturers have when they finish training is sometimes scanty for them to circumnavigate their way in the delivery of CT.

Some universities were understaffed due to the economic meltdown that dented the Zimbabwean economy in 2008 into 2009. Because of the economy that had slithered

into the doldrums, there was a mass exodus of qualified lecturers from universities to the United States of America and the United Kingdom in search of better working and living conditions. As a result, universities were left with a deficit in human resources such that the responsible authorities were left without any other option other than to recruit those students who had successfully completed their first degrees to fill in these vacant posts since the lecturers were heavily burdened with too much work. This move implies jeopardising the delivery of the CT curriculum since the new recruits lacked the fundamental pedagogy as well as methodologies for the delivery of quality in TVE. Lecturers' morale had been dampened by the dearth of equipment and machinery which is a reality in universities.

Findings of the study unearthed that lecturers' perceptions affected the way they delivered CT. Instead, they concentrated on those topics they found interest in most. It emerged that students were intrinsically motivated for it was out of their own initiative that they were able to learn. Students made it a point to read well off in advance so that when it was time for lectures, it would not be the first time they would be meeting the topic. It was revealed that lecturers did not teach all the topics that they were required to teach. The study also found out that morale is an important lecturer attribute which affects the way they perceive teaching both positively or negatively. Findings revealed that lecturers' morale had been dampened. This was attributed to the dearth in equipment and machinery in universities. This finding is consistent with numerous studies that were conducted in developing countries like South Africa, (Asikhia, 2010) and in developed countries such as in America (The National Centre for Education Statistics). It is not practical to teach a practically-oriented subject without the necessary teaching and learning aids, thus lecturers felt they were incapacitated to teach since they did not have the adequate resources.

The study also established that students were discontented with the way lecturers marked their work. It was established that lecturers used first impression marking to award students marks. In as-much-as one would work hard, his or her effort would not be realised. The way lecturers marked students work did not show any professionalism on their part. Students felt being cheated for they strongly felt that the marks they were

given did not belong to them. There were elements of favouritism which the study instituted. Those who were very close to the lecturers got very high marks regardless of how horrid their artefacts were.

Giving feedback is central to assessment. This study instituted that lecturers were delaying in giving students feedback. This was problematic in that students became agitated since it was from the feedback they get from the lecturers that they were in a position to know whether or not they were making progress in as-far-as their work was concerned. It was also established that students had both positive and negative attitude towards CT. There were some students whose perceptions about CT had changed for the better since they now know the truth that CT is not just about fabrics and sewing, but there is more to it. On the other end, there are some students whose expectations were not met hence they had negative perceptions about CT. CT is also badly labelled in universities. This is as a result of the selection criteria that were used which were based on gender and the low entry points required for CT as compared to other faculties. There is also a general belief that academic subjects are valued more than practically-oriented subjects. It was established that this emanated from the colonial era when white collar jobs were valued more than blue collar jobs.

6.2.2 The relationship between Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the world of work

There seems to be no clear link between universities and industries. Universities complain that industries are reluctant to assist them in the delivery of CT. On the other hand, industries lament that universities are reluctant to take up the suggestions they are given for the improvement of the delivery of CT in universities. Industrial personnel bemoan that those university students who come for attachment lack hands-on skills. Most of the students fail to secure places for attachment on time resulting in them going for attachment for less than the stipulated twelve months. Furthermore, findings of the study revealed that the industrial personnel felt that the time for attachment was too

short for it would not give them ample time to take students through all the stages in the factory that is from Planning- Marker room- Cutting –Preparation –Assembling – Pressing – Dispatch, considering the fact that most of the students would not be on attachment for all the specified months. However, this heightened the problem of skill acquisition for industrial supervisors felt students fall short of basic skills which they feel students should have learnt during their first or second year of study in the universities. Considering the short time students come for WIL, it would not be possible for the industrial supervisors to achieve this objective. As a result, much of the time of attachment is lost whilst the supervisors would be assisting students with basic skills in pattern making, the cutting room and garment construction in the sewing room rather concentrating on the gist of the attachment. It also surfaced from the findings that there was no sound relationship between the supervisors and the students for female students complained of being sexually harassed, whilst some were not happy about the how they were denied the right to use some of the machinery in the factories. Most students also encountered financial problems during their attachment period for neither the universities nor the industries funded them in any way.

6.2.3 Monitoring systems in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities

Whilst monitoring and support are very critical in the delivery of any educational programme in universities, the current study shows lack of consistency in monitoring and support practices in the delivery of the CT curriculum in universities. It emerged from the findings that there were no staff development training for most of the lecturers. For those universities that were having staff development workshops, the pace at which they were been done meant that it would take more than eight years for everyone to have benefited from the training. Lecturers who have benefited from the training were just a hand full. Findings of the study revealed that universities' administration were averse to sponsor lecturers so that they would attend staff development workshops that had been organised elsewhere.

Furthermore it emerged that lecturers were asked to sponsor themselves if they really wanted to attend which really put them off. The main type of assessment that was being practiced in universities was peer assessment or peer review and students also had a chance to evaluate their lecturers at the end of each semester by filling in a rubric which had been designed by the department as a guideline. Lecturers were also falling short of assessment skills. It also surfaced from the findings of the study that students were disgruntled over the way they were being assessed by the lecturers. The weighting of theory and practical work as well as tests was lopsided. Findings revealed that theory work comprised 75%, whereas practical work comprised 25% of the overall mark. Students also expressed their sentiments that they wanted the industry to be part of the assessment that was done in the universities and not only to wait for the WIL period. It also emerged that students needed to be given an equal opportunity to get exposed to both the practical aspect and the theory aspect of the subject so as to produce students with the necessary hands-on skills indispensable for them to fit into the world of work.

6.3 Conclusions

The study attempted to answer the main research question which examines how the CT curriculum is delivered in Zimbabwean universities. It was established that the delivery of CT in universities has been marred by an array of problems. Lecturers were finding difficulties in teaching the core courses in CT due to incompetency. This has been aggravated by the fact that the training the lecturers received in Teacher Training institutions no longer match with the pedagogy they have to deliver to CT students in this decade. This acts in detriment to the students who are at the receiving end for they are not equipped with the necessary hands-on skills when they leave the universities. Findings affirm that the dearth of equipment and machinery, dampened morale and negative perceptions further intensifies this challenge. However, this study concedes that although lecturers have the suitable minimum requirements to teach in universities,

that is Masters and PhD academic qualifications; it is the professional aspect on the delivery of CT which is a source of the concern.

The delivery of CT was further strained by the lack of cooperation between universities and industries. Most of the challenges lecturers encountered stem from the fact that universities do not consult industries when they are designing their CT curriculum. The fact that students had problems in getting places for WIL as well as the challenges they encountered were as a result of the absence of the collaboration between universities and industries. The way students are selected into CT and the low points attached to their entry requirements have been established as major contributors to how CT is labelled in universities. This study has put more value and emphasis to these momentous issues that may pose serious challenges to the delivery of CT curriculum within the institutional context and need to be borne in mind and consistently addressed.

6.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher advances the following recommendations to CT curriculum designers, policy-makers as well as stakeholders in university education.

- In order to accurately inform early recognition, intervention and training programmes for lecturers who are not competent enough to deliver CT, their areas of weakness should be identified first so as to enable university administrators to plan accordingly, having these areas in mind.
- The quality of the existing lecturing force must be improved mainly through extensive staff development training programmes, including those lecturers who trained long back to acquaint them with technical skills that are in line with the new technologies and global trends. University lecturers should upgrade their knowledge and skills so as to keep abreast with the dynamic fashion, clothing

trends and technology so that when students come on attachment, the industrial personnel will just refine the skills not to start from scratch, teaching the students basics they should have done at university level. This would enable them to produce students with the required competence.

- There is need to increase support (both material and financial) towards staff development programmes that focus on lecturer competence since they are an important approach that can upsurge lecturer competence. However, such programmes should be differentiated according to the level of education of the lecturers in order to cater for variances in pedagogy and methodological requirements.
- There should be collaboration among University management, lecturers and the industry during curriculum design and monitoring to improve their attachment and sense of ownership of the CT programme. Thus, there is need for universities and industries to work together in coming up with a curriculum which is in line with what is on the ground in the world of work. This will enable students to have a swift transition from universities to industries. It would be wise for universities to consult the industry before they design their CT curriculum so that the industry has an input. The study recommends that if universities consult industries in curriculum designing, this move would curb the challenge of students not possessing the adequate hands-on skills which has remained a far cry and the fact that students face difficulties in securing places for attachment.
- Time for attachment should be lengthened so that students leave the industry well equipped with relevant skills and knowledge.
- There is need for ZIMCHE, the body which looks at quality issues in universities in Zimbabwe to see to it that machines, equipment and laboratories in universities match the standard in industries. ZIMCHE should come with mechanisms as a way of assisting universities purchase the required machinery

and equipment which is in line with the changing technologies in industries so that they do not lag behind in terms of skills development.

- Teacher training should include the use of modern machinery and equipment so as to equip lecturers with the skills needed in the delivery of CT curriculum.
- Lecturers should form a team whose skills would be used across the faculty. The team should do research to help address factors affecting success in the delivery of CT curriculum , and also work hand in hand with their departmental HODs to improve their teaching and learning in their courses.
- Students and lecturers should give CT curriculum the same respect like any other subject in the universities. This can be facilitated by making the admission of students for the CT curriculum, programme to be based on merit and on oral or written examinations not on gender basis or low entry points requirements.
- Lecturers need to switch from the old traditional teaching methods which are lecturer centred to more modern student learning methods which allow for active learning and increased student participation, such as field trips, online learning as well as research.
- There is need for the CT programme to put more emphasis on student skill development during their first year of study, helping them make the changeover from high school to university and to introduce students to the fundamental concepts of the discipline so as to equip them for the world of work.
- This study strongly recommends that challenging specifications of the skills students need to master to enter particular careers are to be incorporated into academic and technical instruction, and high academic standards be applied to all students.

- There is need for the universities in liaison with industries to come up with policies that focus on student attachment as to lessen the likelihood that students are left susceptible and at risk of being unattached to any industry when they are left to look for attachment places by themselves. This is vital given that most students spend the better part of the attachment period wondering about from one industry to another looking for places for attachment while those who would got places at the beginning of the year would be benefiting.
- The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education should look to it that the salaries and allowances given to lecturers should be favourable so as to retain lecturers in universities.

6.5 The study's contribution to new knowledge

The study established that there were no clear links between the universities and the world of work. Most of the challenges that emanated in universities were as a result of the lack of this link, for instance lecturer incompetency, student having challenges in getting places for WIL, students' lack of hands-on skills which has resulted in an outcry from different stakeholders including the world of work. It has been unveiled that the universities are producing students who lack the skills required by the world of work. As a result, there was need for the researcher to come up with a model which would act as a roadmap in the delivery of the CT curriculum in Zimbabwean universities so as to curb these challenges as shown in Figure 7.1 below:

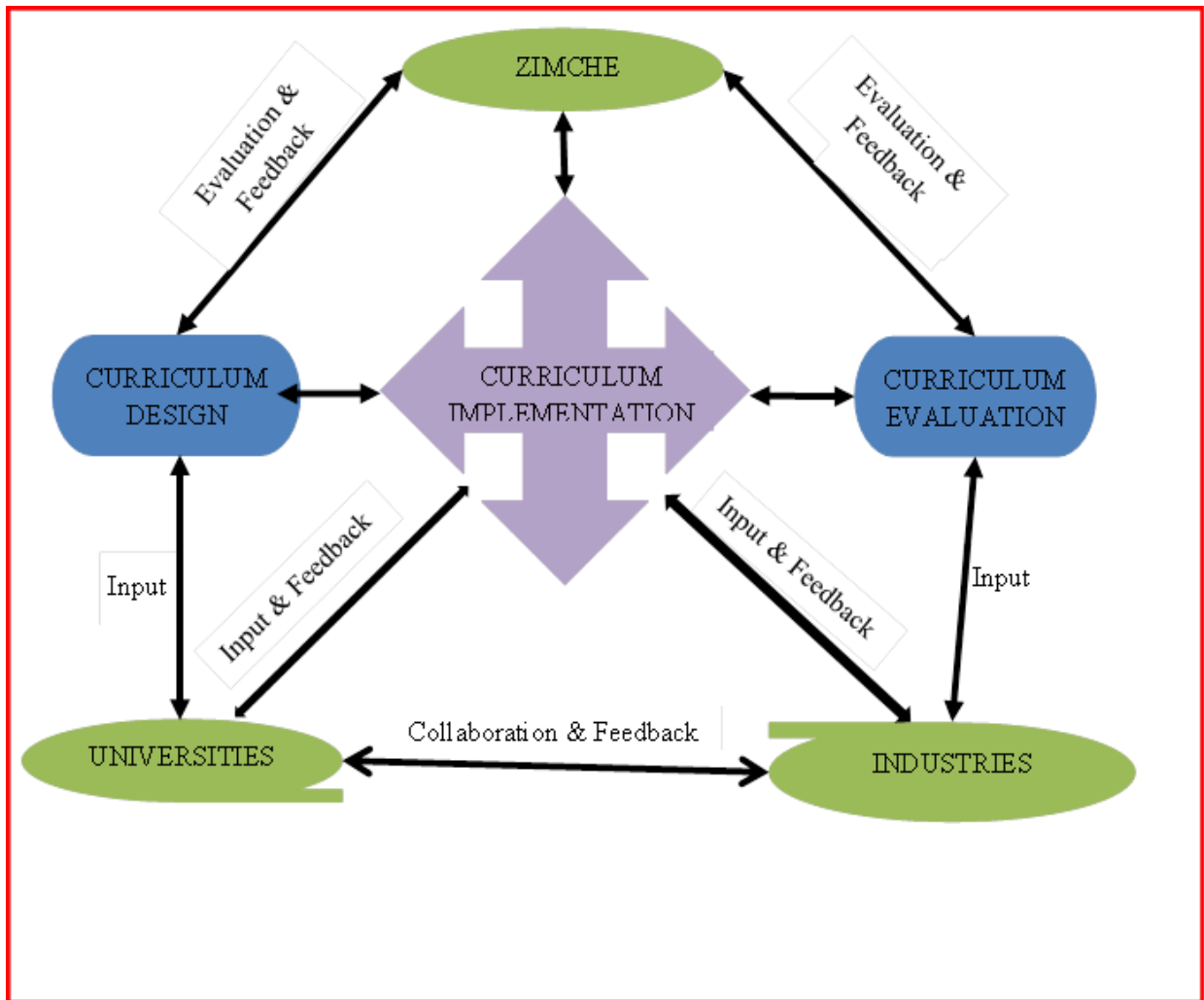


Table 6-1: Verity's Clothing and Textiles Curriculum delivery model

In the curriculum designing phase there is need for collaboration between universities and industries. A two-way communication network should exist to enable lecturers and industrial personnel to plan together the learning experiences students need to be exposed to in order for them to be fully equipped with desirable skills needed by the world of work. Both universities and industries must have an input in the type of content and skills students need to learn and acquire respectively. At the designing phase, that is when both stakeholders involved will identify those topics in which lecturers are falling short, thus mark them for staff development. It should be borne in mind that in as much as possible the student should be the focal point of all the learning activities; in other words, learning should be student-centered.

After designing the curriculum, universities' and industrial personnel need to consult ZIMCHE for evaluation purposes after which feedback should be given. Revisiting the curriculum should be done several times after consultation with ZIMCHE as a measure of checking the applicability of the curriculum under design. Curriculum evaluation should be an ongoing process so as to make sure that the correct curriculum has been designed. It is worth noting that evaluation should be done at every stage of curriculum development so as to identify any gaps that may arise and to make sure that set objectives are being met.

In curriculum implementation phase there is need for lecturers to continue working in liaison with the industrial personnel so that both parties see to it that what they designed together is being implemented accordingly on the ground, bearing in mind that it is easy to plan than to put the planned ideas into action. The industrial personnel should constantly assess how the curriculum is being implemented. There should be collaborative reviews (encompassing universities, industries and ZIMCHE), a 360° feedback so as to ascertain quality issues as well as making amendments if need be.

6.6 Recommendations for Further Research

The findings of this study established that there are some areas which require further research. Therefore, this study has proposed the following as areas for future study in the area of CT: The relevance of the training lecturers get in Teachers Training colleges and its applicability at university level and to the needs of the world of work. Such a study would give a convincing holistic picture of why lecturers are failing to deliver what is expected of them in universities in as far as the delivery of CT curriculum, is concerned. Such a holistic picture can easily influence policy in the area of Teacher Training in the delivery of the CT curriculum. Policy makers should realise that unless lecturers who are the major implementers of the curriculum, are not thoroughly trained on the delivery of CT curriculum, universities are bound to fail to achieve their envisioned goals. Since the current study was carried out at national level, the

researcher recommends that there be a comparative study with another university within the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region using the same methodology like the one used in this study. The researcher contents that such a study would help complete the picture for the delivery of the CT curriculum in Zimbabwe's universities.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. CONSENT FORM

Principal Investigator Name: Verity Muzenda
Signature 
Contact Details
91 Aloe Way Lomagundi Road
Avondale West
Harare
Zimbabwe
Phone no 00263776381719

CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in research regarding I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop this interview at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.

I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in this interview.

I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the questionnaire, and that my answers will remain confidential.

I understand that if at all possible, feedback will be given to my community on the results of the completed research.

.....
Signature of participant

Date:.....

I hereby agree to the tape recording of my participation in the study

.....
Signature of participant

Date:.....

Document approved by UREC: 11 August 2011, V01

APPENDIX 2. Permission letter from University of Fort Hare

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

School of Continuing and General
Education
50 Church Street,
East London
Phone: East London: 043704 7222/221
Email: nduku@ufh.ac.za




17 October 2013

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that Verity Muzenda is a PhD candidate at the Faculty of Education, University of Fort Hare, South Africa. Her student number is 201202082. In order to fulfil the requirements of her study, she needs to undertake field research. The title of her research is "The delivery of Clothing and Textiles in two Zimbabwean Universities: Addressing quality in the Technical Education curriculum". She has identified your institution as one of the research sites, and is due to collect data during October-December 2013 period. Kindly grant her permission to collect data in your institution.

Feel free to contact me for any more information at the following contact numbers:
027-43-704 7222/7221.
Email: nduku@ufh.ac.za

Sincerely


Dr. N. Duku
Research Promoter

APPENDIX 3. FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE WITH STUDENTS

The delivery of the Clothing and Textiles Curriculum in Zimbabwean universities: Implications for quality in Technical Vocational Education.

SECTION A

Biographical Data

1. Please tell me more about yourself

- a) Age
- b) Gender
- c) Academic year of study

2a) Why did you enrol for the course? Please explain

- b) What expectations did you have when you enrolled for Clothing and Textiles?
- c) How is the institution meeting these expectations?

SECTION B

Competency of lecturers

3a) What teaching method(s) do your lecturers use? Please explain each method.

- a) Which methods do you find more appealing to your learning? Please explain
- b) Is there any other teaching method(s) you would like lecturers to use? Explain why.

SECTION C

Perceptions students towards Clothing and Textiles

4 A. Talk about what helped you learn.

a) In class areas

b) Personal approaches /methods used to learn

c) I made a point of looking at most of the suggested readings that went with the lectures beforehand.

d) Lecturer's approach

B. Please explain any challenges that kept you from learning the subject matter better in Clothing and Textiles?

5. Talk about how your perception of TVE has changed as a result of your involvement in Clothing and Textiles at university level. Please explain.

6) On a scale of 1-5 (1 being very interesting, 2 interesting, 3 average, 4, boring and to 5 being the most boring), how do you rate Clothing and Textiles lectures? Explain your answer.

SECTION D

The relationship between Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the world of work

7. Please take me through to your curriculum journey.

Please explain the main activities you were involved in your

a) First year of study

b) Second year of study

8) Please take me through the process of garment construction in Clothing and Textiles

a) How many garments do you make in a semester?

b) Which industrial machinery do you use during your practical lectures?

c) Are these enough? Explain

d) Is the machinery in good working order?

e) Explain how the shortage of this machinery and other facilities affect the acquisition of technical skills by students.

9. Please explain the industrial attachment that you receive.

a) Duration

b) Skills you acquired

c) Any skills gap you identified during attachment

d) The support you got from the industry

e) Support you got from the university

f) Quality of the attachment

g) Challenges

10. How best can the attachment/ placement programme be improved?

SECTION E

Monitoring and support strategies put in place by the universities

Assessment Strategies.

11. Please take me through the assessment strategies.

- a) Explain how you are being assessed to enable you study well.
- b) How many tests or assignments do you write in a semester?
- c) How many of these strategies comprise practical work?
- d) Please explain whether these strategies are adequate.
- e) Is there any involvement of the industry in terms of assessment in universities?
Please explain.

Thank You!!

16-20 years

Over 20 years

b) For how long have you been teaching Clothing and Textiles?

Less than 1 year

1-5 years

6-10 years

11-15 years

16-20 years

Over 20 years

SECTION B

Competency of Lecturers

7a) Did you specialise in Clothing and Textiles?

b) If your answer to Question 5 above is “No”, please explain in which area you specialised.

c) When did you do your specialisation?

d) Where did you do your specialisation?

- Teachers' college

- Technical college

- University

-Other (specify)

8. Do you feel adequately trained to deliver the Clothing and Textiles curriculum?

Please explain your answer given above.

9. Please spell out any areas or topics you are finding difficulties in the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum?

a) Cultural Context of Clothing and the Society

b) Principle of Art And Wardrobe Selection

c) Experimental Design in Clothing

d) Organic Chemistry

e) Textile Science and Technology

f) Garment Construction 11

g) Others (specify)

10. What is your area of strength in Clothing and Textiles?

11. What challenges (if any) are you encountering in the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum?

a) Students' attitudes / calibre of students

b) Incompetence

c) Inadequate time for lectures

d) Relationship with the industry

e) Shortages of machinery/ Equipment

f) Assessment

g) Others (specify)

12. What has the university done to respond to these challenges?

SECTION C

Perceptions of lecturers towards Clothing and Textiles

13. How do you know if you have adequately taught some aspects of the content for this course? Please explain.

b) Do you teach every aspect of the curriculum you are expected to teach? Please explain.

14. Talk about the things that helped you teach.

a) I found most topics interesting and often spent extra time trying to obtain more information about them.

b) I made a point of looking at most of the suggested readings that went with the lectures beforehand.

c) Behaviour of students

d) Personal approaches – methods used to teach

15. Has the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles programme increased or decreased your enthusiasm of teaching the subject? Please explain.

16a) Take me through the criteria used to select students

i) Gender

ii) Maturity entry

iii) Academic qualification

iv) Others (specify)

b) From your opinion, does the selection criterion mentioned above affect the way students perceive Clothing and Textiles? Explain.

c) On a scale of 1-5 (1 being intelligent, 2 Good, 3 Average, 4 Poor and 5 extremely poor), how do you rate Clothing and Textiles students?

1- being intelligent

2 -Good

3 -Average

4 -Poor

5 -extremely poor

SECTION D

The relationship between the Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the world of work

17. Please take me through your curriculum journey

a) How many garments do students make in a semester?

b) Is there an area you feel needs improvement in Clothing and Textiles to improve students' learning? Please explain.

18. What contributions have been made by industry in the designing of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum? Please elaborate?

19 a) Which industrial machinery do students use during their practical lectures?

b) Are these enough? Explain

c) What is the condition of these equipment or machinery?

d) How can the shortage of these equipment and other facilities affect the acquisition

of technical skills by students?

20. Please explain the industrial attachment that students receive.

- a) Duration
- b) Skills students acquired
- c) Any skills gap identified by the industry
- d) The support students got from the industry
- e) Support students got from the university
- f) Any skills gap lecturers identified during students' attachment

g) Quality of the attachment

21. How best can the attachment programme be improved? Please explain.

SECTION E

What support (including training) monitoring systems are in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum.

22a) During the last two years did you receive any in service training workshops in teaching Clothing and Textiles?

b) If your answer to Question 17 above is "No" please give an explanation.

23. Comment on the following

- a) Duration
- b) Content
- c) Knowledge by the trainers
- d) Materials given to trainees
- e) The quality of trainees
- f) Venue
- g) Benefits

24a) Who organised the training?

b) Who conducted the training?

25. Please discuss the aspects of the curriculum that were covered in the training.

- a) Cultural Context of Clothing and the Society
- b) Principle of Art And Wardrobe Selection
- c) Experimental Design in Clothing
- d) Organic Chemistry
- e) Textile Science and Technology
- f) Clothing Construction 11

26. How is your participation in the training programme recognised or rewarded by the university?

- a) Incentives
- b) Certificate of recognition
- c) Not at all

27a) How are you assessed in your department?

- c) Do you find such assessments as worthwhile? Please explain.

APPENDIX 5. LECTURERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a PhD student in the Faculty of Education carrying out a study on the topic: The delivery of the Clothing and Textiles Curriculum in Zimbabwean universities: Implications for quality in Technical Vocational Education. Participation is voluntary.

You are kindly requested to select a suitable response from the choices provided by the researcher. All responses will be used for academic purposes only. Place a tick in the appropriate box. Where detail is needed, please fill in the required information in spaces provided.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. Gender Male
- Female
2. Age 18-24 25- 31 32- 38 39-45 46++
4. What is your academic post?

5. Qualifications and training

5a) Highest academic qualification:

ZJC

O "Level"

A "Level"

Other (specify).....

b) Highest Professional Qualifications

CE

DipEd

BA degree

Bed degree

Masters

PhD

Other (Specify)

6a) For how long have you been a lecturer?

Less than 1 year

1-5 years

6-10 years

11-15 years

16-20 years

Over 20 years

b) For how long have you been teaching Clothing and Textiles?

Less than 1 year

1-5 years

6-10 years

11-15 years

16-20 years

Over 20 years

7. Did you specialise in Clothing and Textiles?

Yes

No

8. a) If your answer to Question 7 above is “No”, please explain in which area you specialised.

.....

b) When did you do your specialisation?

.....

9. Where did you do your specialisation? (Tick in the appropriate box)

Teachers' College	
Technical College	
University	
Other (specify)	

SECTION B: Competency of lecturers

10. Do you feel adequately trained to deliver the Clothing and Textiles curriculum?
Please explain your answer given above.

.....
.....
.....
.....

11a) What is your area of strength in CT?

b) Please spell out any areas or topics you are finding difficulties in the delivery of CT.

12a) What challenges (if any) are you encountering in the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum? (Tick in the appropriate box)

Students attitudes	
Capacity	
Inadequate time for lectures	
Machinery/ resources	
Relationship with the industry	
Assessment	
Any Other (specify)	

b) What has the university done to respond to these challenges?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

c) Are there refresher courses to prepare lecturers to deal with these challenges?

Yes No Uncertain

d) If the answer is yes, at 13, please explain the quality of such refresher courses.

.....
.....
.....
.....

e) What challenges (if any) are you encountering in the delivery of the CT curriculum?

f). What type of training do you think a lecturer should receive in order to successfully deliver Clothing and Textiles? Support your answer.

.....
.....
.....

SECTION C: Perceptions of lecturers towards Clothing and Textiles

13 a) What do you think is the national mandate of CT to Zimbabwean economy?

.....
.....
.....

b) Do you think this university responds to this mandate?

YES NO

Explain your answer.

.....
.....
.....
.....

14. Do you teach every topic in the curriculum you are expected to teach? Please explain.

.....
.....
.....

15. Talk about what helped you teach.

a) I found most topics interesting and often spent extra time trying to obtain more information about them.

b) I made a point of looking at most of the suggested readings that went with the lectures beforehand.

c) Behaviour of students

d) Personal approaches – methods used to teach

16. Has the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles programme increased or decreased your enthusiasm of teaching the subject? Please explain.

.....

.....

.....

17a) Take me through the criteria used to select students

i) Gender

ii) Maturity entry

iii) Academic qualification

iv) Others (specify)

b) From your opinion, does the selection criterion mentioned above affect the way students perceive Clothing and Textiles? Explain.

.....

.....

.....

c). On a scale of 1-5 (1 being intelligent, 2 Good, 3 Average, 4 Poor and 5 being extremely poor), how do you rate Clothing and Textiles students? (Tick in the appropriate box)

Students Performance	Intelligent	Good	Average	Poor	Extremely poor

SECTION D: The relationship between universities and the world of work

18. What contributions have been made by the industry in the designing of the CT curriculum? Please explain.

19a). Which industrial machinery do students use during their practical lectures?

b). Are these enough? Explain

- c). Is the machinery in good working order?
 - d) Explain how the shortage of these equipment and other facilities affect the acquisition of the technical skills by students.
20. Please explain the industrial attachment that students receive.
- a) Duration
 - b) Skills students acquired
 - c) The support students got from the industry
 - d) Support students got from the university
 - e) Any skills gap lecturers identified during students' attachment
 - f) Any skills gap identified by the industry
 - g) Quality of the attachment
21. Is there an area you feel needs improvement in Clothing and Textiles to improve the students' learning? Please explain.

SECTION E: Monitoring and support (including training) systems in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum in universities

22. During the last two years did you receive any training in teaching Clothing and Textiles?

Yes No

23. If your answer to Question 25 above is "No" please give an explanation.

24. Comment on the following

- a) Duration
- b) Content
- c) Knowledge by the trainers
- d) Materials given to trainees
- e) The quality of trainees
- f) Venue

25 a) Who organised the training?

.....

b) Who conducted the training?

.....
.....

c) Please discuss the aspects of the curriculum that were covered in the training.

- Cultural Context of Clothing and the Society
- Principle of Art And Wardrobe Selection
- Experimental Design in Clothing
- Organic Chemistry
- Textile Science and Technology
- Clothing Construction 11

e) How is your participation in the training programme recognised or rewarded by the university? (Tick in the appropriate box)

Incentives	
Certificate of recognition	
Not at all	
Others (specify)	

26a) How many times have you been assessed by the Head of Department?

.....
.....

b) Do you find such assessments as worthwhile? Please explain

.....
.....

THANK YOU!!

APPENDIX 6. INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HODs

SECTION A

1. Gender
 - a) Male
 - b) Female
2. Age
3. What is your academic post?
4. Qualifications and training
 - a) Highest academic qualification:
 - i) ZJC
 - ii) O "Level"
 - iii) A "Level"
 - iv) Other (specify)
5. Highest Professional Qualifications
 - i) Certificate in Education
 - ii) Diploma in Education
 - iii) BA degree
 - iv) BeD degree
 - v) Masters
 - vi) PhD
 - vii) Other (Specify)
- 6a) For how long have you been a lecturer?
 - a) Less than 1 year
 - b) 1-5 years
 - c) 6-10 years
 - d) 11-15 years
 - e) 16-20 years
 - f) Over 20 years
- b) For how long have you been teaching Clothing and Textiles?
 - a) Less than 1 year
 - b) 1-5 years
 - c) 6-10 years

- d) 11-15 years
- e) 16-20 years
- f) Over 20 years

SECTION B

Competency of lecturers

7. Where did you do your specialisation? (Teachers' college, Technical college, university, other)
8. Do you feel adequately trained to deliver the Clothing and Textiles curriculum? Please explain your answer given above.
9. Which qualifications must one have to be adequately qualified to teach Clothing and Textiles?
10. Are all your lecturers under your department qualified as per university requirements (In terms of academic and professional qualifications, specialisation and experience)? Please explain.
- 11a) How has been staff turnover of Clothing and Textiles lecturers in the past five years?
- b) In what way has staff turnover affected the delivery of Clothing and Textiles in your university?
12. What is your area of strength in Clothing and Textiles? Please explain
13. Please spell out any areas or topics you are finding difficulties in the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum?
 - a) Cultural Context of Clothing and the Society
 - b) Principle of Art And Wardrobe Selection
 - c) Experimental Design in Clothing
 - d) Organic Chemistry
 - e) Textile Science and Technology
 - f) Clothing Construction 11
 - g) Others (specify)
- 14a) What challenges (if any) are you encountering in the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum?

- Students' attitudes / calibre of students
 - Incompetence
 - Inadequate time for lectures
 - Relationship with the industry
 - Shortages of Machinery/ Resources
 - Assessment
 - Others (specify)
- b) What has the university done to respond to these challenges?

SECTION C

The perceptions of lecturers towards Clothing and Textiles

15. Do you teach every aspect of the curriculum you are expected to teach? Please explain.

16. Talk about the things that helped you teach.

a) I found most topics interesting and often spent extra time trying to obtain more information about them.

b) I made a point of looking at most of the suggested readings that went with the lectures beforehand.

c) Behaviour of students

d) Personal approaches – methods you use to teach

17. Has the delivery of the Clothing and Textiles programme increased or decreased your enthusiasm of teaching the subject? Please explain.

18. a) Take me through the criteria used to select students

i) Gender

ii) Maturity entry

iii) Academic qualification

iv) Others (specify)

b) From your opinion, does the selection criterion mentioned above affect the way students perceive Clothing and Textiles? Explain.

c) On a scale of 1-5 (1 being intelligent, 2 Good, 3 Average, 4 Poor and 5 extremely poor), how do you rate Clothing and Textiles students?

- 1- being intelligent
- 2 -Good
- 3 -Average
- 4 -Poor
- 5 -extremely poor

SECTION D

The relationship between the CT curriculum and the world of work

19. What contributions have been made by industry in the designing of the Clothing and Textiles curriculum? Please elaborate?
20. Please explain the industrial attachment that students receive.
- a) Duration
 - b) Skills students acquired
 - c) The support students get from the industry
 - d) Support students get from the university
 - e) Any skills gap identified by the industry
 - f) Quality of the attachment
21. How best can the attachment programme be best improved?
- 22 a) Which industrial machinery do students use during their practical lectures?
- b) Are these enough? Explain
 - c) What is the condition of these equipment or machinery?
 - d) Explain how the shortage of these equipment and other facilities affect the acquisition of technical skills by students?

SECTION E

Support (including training) and monitoring systems are in place to enable the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum.

23. As a faculty, what in service training programmes or workshops do you have in place to improve the performance of lecturers in the delivery of Clothing and Textiles curriculum?

24. During the last two years did you receive any training in teaching Clothing and Textiles?

25. Comment on the following

- a) Duration
- b) Content
- c) Knowledge by the trainers
- d) Materials given to trainees
- e) The quality of trainees
- f) Venue

26a) Who organised the training?

b) Who conducted the training?

27. Please discuss the aspects of the curriculum that were covered in the training.

- a) Cultural Context of Clothing and the Society
- b) Principle of Art And Wardrobe Selection
- c) Experimental Design in Clothing
- d) Organic Chemistry
- e) Textile Science and Technology
- f) Clothing Construction 11

28. How is your participation in the training programme recognised or rewarded by the university?

- a) Incentives
- b) Certificate of recognition
- c) Other (specify)
- d) Not at all

29a) How are you assessed in your department? Please explain.

- b) Do you find such assessments as worthwhile? Please explain

THANK YOU!!

APPENDIX 7. INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR INDUSTRIAL PERSONNEL

You are informed that the interview guide focuses on the relationship between the Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the industry.

The relationship between the Clothing and Textiles curriculum and the world of work

1. Is the industry involved in any way in designing the Clothing and Textiles curriculum for universities? Please explain.

2. Please explain the industrial attachment that students receive.
 - a) Duration
 - b) Skills students acquired
 - c) Any skills gap identified by the industry
 - d) The support students get from the industry
 - e) Support students get from the university
 - f) Quality of the attachment

3. Do students have the mandate to choose in which area to specialise? Elaborate
 - a) Men's wear
 - b) Ladies wear
 - c) Children's wear
 - d) Soft furnishings, Curtains, Kitchen wear
 - e) Lingerie

4. Please take me through your daily activities in the manufacturing workshop.
 - a) Who gives students daily tasks?
 - b) Who is in charge of monitoring the students' daily activities?
 - c) Does your industry have enough personnel to monitor the students? Please explain.
 - d) Quality assurance practices

5a) How often are students assessed whilst on attachment/ placement in the Clothing factory? Please explain.

b) How effective are these assessment methods? Please explain.

c) What type of information do you keep in students' log books?

6. What challenges (if any) are you encountering when you are dealing with students on attachment?

7. What are your suggestions on the improvement of the quality of students universities are producing?

Thank You!!

APPENDIX 8. OBSERVATION GUIDE FOR UNIVERSITIES A AND B

The delivery of the Clothing and Textiles Curriculum in Zimbabwean universities: Implications for quality in Technical Vocational Education.

The researcher will observe the following:

- CT laboratories or work-rooms- Space available
- The availability of furniture, machinery and equipment, used by students.
- The quality and state of machinery or equipment used by students.
- The garments produced by students (In terms of their workmanship, quality and quantity per given semester)
- Student equipment/ machinery ratio (Are the tools and materials adequate for the students?)
- Teaching methods or strategies used by lecturers
- How students manipulate machinery and equipment.

APPENDIX 9. OBSERVATION GUIDE FOR INDUSTRIES.

The delivery of the Clothing and Textiles Curriculum in Zimbabwean universities: Implications for quality in Technical Vocational Education.

The researcher will observe the following:

- The Work room
- Equipment and machinery used
- State of machinery
- Quantity of machinery
- Student equipment/ machinery ratio (Are the tools and materials adequate for the students?)
- The garments produced by the students (In terms of workmanship, quality and quantity)
- How students manipulate the machinery or equipment
- Competency or expertise of supervisors
- How students respond or react to supervisor' instructions.
- Are they following instruction to do assigned tasks.

APPENDIX 10. DOCUMENT ANALYSIS GUIDE FOR UNIVERSITIES A AND B

Clothing and Textiles programme documents will be analysed with reference to the following:

- Curriculum being use in Clothing and Textiles
- University policy documents
- CT syllabus
- Schemes of work / work plans
- Qualification of lecturers
- Assessment records
- Students' progress reports from the industries
- Records of students' duration on attachment
- Courses covered in the training
- Materials used during training
- Methods used in trainings
- Duration of the training
- Evaluation of the training
- Challenges met during the training
- Gaps between theory and practice
- Any other issues resulting from analysis of above aspects.
- Etc

APPENDIX 11. DOCUMENT ANALYSIS GUIDE FOR INDUSTRIES.

- Documents from industries will be analysed with reference to the following:
- Inventory
 - type of machinery in the factory
 - Quantity of machinery
- Lists of students taken for attachment each year
- Number of supervisors in each department
- Students' log books-attendance
 - duration of training
 - sections a student worked and time spent
- Correspondences with universities (Letters, minutes of meetings etc)

APPENDIX 12. PERMISSION LETTER FROM CHINHOYI UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY.



CHINHOYI UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

☎: P. Bag 7724, Chinhoyi ☎: 263-67-22203-5 ❷: 263-67- 27214 E-mail : vicechancellor@cut.ac.zw

Vice-Chancellor's Office: Prof. D. J. Simbi - PhD, BSc, MIM, CEng, FZ'weE, FICorr, FZAS, Hons FZ'weE

7 November 2013

Verity Muzenda
University of Fort Hare
SOUTH AFRICA

Dear Verity Muzenda

RE: REQUEST TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH PROJECT AT CHINHOYI UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

We acknowledge receipt of your application letter dated 17 October 2013 seeking permission to undertake a research study under a title that reads: *The delivery of Clothing and Textiles in two Zimbabwean Universities, Addressing quality in Technical and Vocational Education curriculum: a case of Chinhoyi University of Technology.*

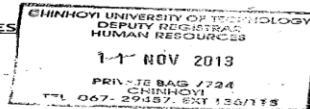
You are kindly advised that permission to undertake your study is hereby granted. However, you are reminded to observe the University Official Secrecy Oath.

The University would also expect results of your research upon completion.

Thank you.


T. A. Kaseke (Mr)
DEPUTY REGISTRAR, HUMAN RESOURCES

cc: Dr. N. Duku, Research Promoter



APPENDIX 13. Permission letter from National University of Science and Technology.



National University of Science and Technology

P. O. Box AC 939, Bulawayo, Zimbabwe
Cnr. Gwanda Road/Cecil Avenue

Telephone: 263-9-262842/268413/39/58
Fax: 263-9-269067

From Registrar F. Mhlanga Dip Edu, BEd, MSc(UZ); MBA (NUST)

FM/sb

13 November, 2013

Mrs Verity Muzenda
University of Fort Hare
Faculty of Education
School of Continuing and General Education
50 Church Street
East London
SOUTH AFRICA

Dear Mrs Muzenda

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH


Reference is made to your letter dated 12 November, 2013 on the above request.

We would like to inform you that we have granted you permission to do your research study entitled "THE DELIVERY OF CLOTHING AND TEXTILES IN TWO ZIMBABWEAN UNIVERSITIES, ZIMBABWE: ADDRESSING QUALITY IN THE TECHNICAL EDUCATION CURRICULUM".

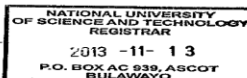
We note that you will be collecting data and would like to emphasize that all the information gathered should be for research purposes only and that confidentiality has to be exercised.

The University wishes you the best in your studies.

Yours sincerely


F Mhlanga
Registrar

cc Dr N Duku, Research Promoter
Chairperson, Department of Textile Technology



APPENDIX 14. PERMISSION LETTER FROM BEINSTERN CLOTHING INDUSTRY.



A Division of Munchville Investments (Pvt.) Ltd.

Stand No. 1558 Orme Road
New Ardennia, Harare
P.O. Box 914, Harare, Zimbabwe
Telephone: (263-4) 66721-4
(263-4) 66700-5
(263-4) 661011-2
Fax: (263-4) 667726
E-mail: cncube@bernstein.co.zw

University of Fort Hare
50 Church Street
East London
South Africa

29 November 2013

To whom it may concern

Permission to carry out research at Bernstein Clothing Factory-Verity Muzenda

The factory has given Verity Muzenda permission to carry out her research at the factory as part of her research requirement.

The factory anticipates that all the information the factory will divulge will be used for research purposes only.

Yours Faithfully

Assistant Production Manager

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be "C. D. Ncube", written over a horizontal line.

Directors: M.P. Mahangu (Chairman) C.D. Ncube (Managing), T.I. Ncube, C.R. Maradza, C.M. Mushonga

APPENDIX 15. PERMISSION LETTER FROM BRAVETTE CLOTHING INDUSTRY.

**BRAVETTE
MANUFACTURING
COMPANY**

Manufacturers and Exporters of Quality Fashionwear

Stand 808 Seke Road
Prospect Park
P.O. Box 2898, Harare
Zimbabwe
Telephone Factory 263-4-576477/8/9
Accounts 263-4-576441/9
VAT 10000709
Fax Bravette 263-4-576471
Telegrams & Cables: "TRUZIM"
Fax Truworths: 263-4-576476, 576438
Email: bravo@mweb.co.zw

18 December 2013

To Whom It May Concern
University of Fort Hare
50 Church Street
East London
South Africa

Dear Sir/Madam

PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH AT BRAVETTE MANUFACTURING COMPANY (PVT) LTD
- VERITY MUZENDA

Bravette Manufacturing Company (Pvt) Ltd has given Verity Muzenda permission to carry out her research at the factory as part of her research requirement.

The factory anticipates that all the information the factory will divulge, will be treated in confidence and used for research purposes only.

Yours faithfully

For: **BRAVETTE MANUFACTURING (PVT) LTD**


E. MACHEKA
OPERATIONS MANAGER



DIRECTORS: B. Ndebele (Managing), M.T. Chidovi, L. Mabhiza