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The purpose of the journal *Futures - Ezekiel Guti University Journal of Leadership, Governance and Development* is to provide a forum for eldership, development and governance solutions based on a systems approach and thinking.

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Editorial: THE INTERSECTION OF LEADERSHIP, GOVERNANCE AND DEVELOPMENT FUTURES

INNOCENT CHIRISA[1]

Abstract

Leadership and governance play a critical role in the development of a country's vision. Poor leadership and governance cause the development of the economy and national growth index to be low and vice versa. The study seeks to discuss "futures" — meaning a time perceived to come in the near future hope of life and as man lives taking into consideration critical aspects of leadership, governance and development. The methodology used desktop review of different articles on leadership, governance and development through reviewing magazines, government reports and online articles. The study notes that futures differ in different contexts used, environments and cultural contexts used. The study argues that without leadership, good governance and development, a country is bound to a great recession and low economic performance. Results on the ground note that Africa is different and context is defined in determining its future due to various factors that include science, innovation and technology to mention a few. The study recommends that African youths should be upfront and that decision-making should be made in conjunction with the public at large.

Keywords: Africa, decision-making, convergent and divergent thinking, transformation, policy

THE ARGUMENT

Futures may be described as a time to come perceived via talking or writing (Belcher, 2006). Business Futures is an Accenture-based method to pick out signals of commercial enterprise exchange that can be of maximum importance for groups to apprehend on the way to form their successful futures (Bryson, 2018). Future research may be used in the policy context in several methods, starting from the exploration of various issues to methods of explicit selection-making (Henley, 2001). Scenarios are frequently taken into consideration to be anything else than reality-primarily based. It is, therefore, vital to strain and illustrate that scenarios may be reality-based as reasoning inside a macro monetary discourse. The realm of behaviour and conservatism may be difficult to conquer since there may be the detail of hazards involved in conducting a completely new technique in that the

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outcomes are difficult to expect. According to Henley, (*ibid.*) if these cultural boundaries can be conquered and the work with situation development can begin, the following three issues are extraordinarily critical for the achievement of the method:

Ownership from two groups of people is extremely important for the scenario process to become successful (Peck, 1998). Top management of an organisation and/or unit must be behind a scenario process since it will often differ from the 'regular' way of doing things, thus creating anxiety. Clear statements from top management concerning the process may help to alleviate this anxiety. Participants in the scenario group (top management may also be represented here) must engage wholeheartedly throughout the entire process. Otherwise, their input and work will lack the quality needed to develop strong and thought-provoking scenarios.

When the scenario group is identified and other experts are included in the process, the scenario team should always think broadly and inclusively as possible (Frisch, 2001). It is often healthy for the process that the scenario group is diverse, so a certain creative tension can be created and upheld throughout the process (Peck, 1998). There may be many stakeholders and experts with different backgrounds that can enrich the process. If all important actors cannot be directly involved in the process, extra expert comities or advisory groups may be created to ensure that they are allowed to come up with input.

Scenario development may be a process that involves a great deal of anxiety and frustration (Henley, 2001). The initial focus and uncertainties and different development opportunities mean that participants may find it difficult to see that the process will lead to sound and consistent results. Therefore, the scenario team must do its best to describe the logic behind the process design and every phase in it to minimise the anxiety of participants and stakeholders.

INTERPRETATIONS IN LIGHT OF THE CHANGING WORLD

The vital preference for futures going through America these days has risen because their dominant dynamic strategy has been progressively stagnant since the turn of the 20th century (Snooks, 2020). This has been exacerbated by the boom-restraining rules of orthodox economists, weather mitigationists and health professionals. Unless the antique dynamic strategy can be replaced by an important new one and unless boom-restraining regulations are abandoned, America will slip lower back into the ranks of the arena's second-tier countries (*ibid.*).

For a long time, European allies have served as the USA "partners of the first motel", both through NATO or coalitions of the willing (Szewczyk, 2019). Economically, Europe is the USA's primary buying and selling and investment partner, dwarfing all others, such as China. Europe has been a critical associate of America in framing and maintaining the post-war order, primarily based on rules and multilateral establishments (Cuccia, 2013; Hill *et al.*, 2017; Szewczyk, 2019).

Thus, information on how Europe can be headed is of key importance for US policymakers. Europe is of wonderful strategic significance to the USA, exactly because predominant factors of American foreign coverage schedule in the Middle East, in the direction of Russia and Iran, in Africa and many different places, cannot be done without deliberating Europe's approach and property (Hill *et al.*, 2017), nor can the traditional US help at no cost and truthful alternative be finished without European collaboration. Understanding the alternatives dealing with Europe will be critical to most of the selections dealing with US policymakers.

Longstanding traits like the increasing significance of reviews, extra adoption of cloud and dramatic changes in buying patterns had been interrupted, multiplied, or reversed during the global COVID-19 pandemic. Now is the time to capitalise on modifications and seize the future. Companies stand to gain from being forward-wondering. Accenture studies have proven that corporations that spend money on sustainability and virtual transformation are two-and-a-half times more likely to be among today's strongest-performing agencies (*Ibid.*).

Africa is a large and complex continent made up of 54 sovereign states, including some island countries, extending over a land area one hundred times the size of Italy (Khapoya, 2015). Major cities such as Rabat in Morocco, Antananarivo in Madagascar, Cape Town in South Africa and Cairo in Egypt, are separated by 7 000 to 8 000 kilometres and have wildly different political, social and economic histories (Carbone, 2018). Yet there is no lack of aspects that different countries or groups of countries in the area share. Some have to do with their pasts, some with their current trajectories and others with a foreseeable common future. The latter include the many opportunities and challenges that multiple processes of fast change are generating across the continent.

Exploring Africa's future means telling a story of recent and ongoing fast-paced transformations (Khapoya, 2015). In recent years, economic, socio-political and technological changes have been thriving throughout the continent. This picture of Africa steadily distanced the continent from images of poverty, conflict and passivity and paved the way for the "Africa rising" narrative. While the challenges impeding development and progress

are still many, the opportunities the continent offers are greater than ever, for locals and foreigners alike. African institutions and citizens are assertively taking control over such opportunities by increasingly tackling issues in Africa, from security to development, from innovation to governance (Herr, 2008). Far gone are the days in which the role played by African actors on the international stage was non-influential. In a global context where the hegemony of traditional powers is challenged by emerging ones, Africa's participation in global affairs is finding new spaces for enhancing its bargaining power (East and Prescott, 1975). This applies to trade and aid in sectors as different as agriculture and green technologies, education and infrastructure and so forth.

Change has been ongoing in Zimbabwe for the better part of the country's recent past (Unganai, 1996). This took a wide range of different forms, from demographic expansion and fast urbanisation to economic development, from social progress to environmental challenges, from technological innovation to country integration and from political change to migratory pressures. Only time will tell where exactly the major and complex transformation processes currently underway will lead to and how they will shape the Zimbabwe of tomorrow (Muzondidya *et al.*, 2007). But five key features will most likely characterise the country in the coming future, namely an archipelago of heterogeneous growth trajectories; the leapfrogging of some development stages; regional integration relying primarily on sub-regional processes; the clustering of violent conflicts mainly around some of the country's inner areas; and rising migration pressures not just towards the outside, but predominantly within Zimbabwe itself.

The story of Africa's future continues to be an unfolding one. As Gatune (2010) points out, the story is more like a rollercoaster following short-term economic results. When growth is good, the story's future is rosy but when the growth topples, which tends to happen often especially when commodity cycles dip, the prospects tend to be seen as poor. Not enough attention is given to capturing the deeper drivers of Africa and capturing where Africa is heading without being distracted by the many stories of despair that Africa seems to spawn. These stories of desperation tend to loom large and largely shape the story of Africa's future, perhaps a testimony of the power of the old colonial narrative of the dark continent. The recent good performance of African economies has seen a flurry of good stories. Even the *Economist* magazine that in 2001 had declared Africa "a hopeless continent" changed its forecast in 2011 and declared Africa "a rising continent" , a complete reversal (Adewumi, 2011).

It is fact that Africa remains a place beset by many challenges of underdevelopment (Khapoya, 2015). The majority of the world's poor live in

Africa. Malnutrition and resulting stunting of growth are killing the intellectual potential of many children, crippling their prospects even before they start the race into knowledge-based economies of the future where brain power will be the key asset. Challenges are being compounded by new trends, in particular climate change. The trends provide some hope but are also a cause for concern. Though Africa continues to rise economy wise, the number of poor people continues to grow. In 2035, there could be as many as 170 million more extremely poor Africans than in 2016 (Herr, 2008). Tepid economic growth is not keeping up with fast demographic growth. So, the challenge of employing a fast-growing youth population is perhaps the most daunting challenge facing Africa. The youth bulge is a double-edged sword, with the right investments especially in skills and unlocking economic opportunities through investment in infrastructure, the transformation of economies through increased value addition and greater integration of economies to improve markets, among other policies. Failure to adequately address this can have disastrous consequences. North Africa is still grappling with the turmoil of an unfinished revolution, the Arab Spring, a revolt of the millennials due to a lack of economic opportunities among other reasons as discussed Nisreen and Gatune (2018).

One may accuse this issue of falling into identical folly as many consider Africa as one monolith, failing to appreciate the large variety throughout the continent (Gatune, 2018). This is partially proper. There is not enough area to capture the whole diversity and Africa became largely the unit of analysis in this issue. Though Africa is heterogeneous one also can argue that many things tie Africa as one and certainly you can still argue that the fortunes of African international locations are intertwined. So, until the demanding situations of Congo are resolved, the great lakes region will stay in turmoil. The fortunes of East Africa are very much tied to Kenya's overall performance. Indeed, the not-unusual ties play a much bigger role in shaping the future of Africa than the heterogeneity we see. All the identical research at a rustic or nearby level can provide insights into the destiny and offer insights into upcoming challenges that are but to appear at a more aggregated level, the so known as weak indicators (Giddens, 2003). Though Africa's cognizance is the teens' bulge, we could omit a new assignment that is looming, and is that of getting old. People are living longer and by 2035 and beyond, there might be a huge cohort of humans over the age of 65 and South Africa will be one of the first countries to need to cope with the undertaking (Gatune, 2018).

However, 4IR will require greater than just ability, it will also infrastructure (internet and electricity), accurate governance to draw investment and vibrant innovation systems as pointed out in the latest record by ACET for the Africa Development Bank (ACET, 2018). All it does is represent an opportunity for Africa to fashion a completely one-of-a-kind destiny.

However, all is not rosy about 4IR any longer, as the article Van Vuuren (2011) points out. The new technologies will come with demanding situations and additionally compound vintage challenges. The potential of cyberspace terrorism is actual if societies continue to be fragmented as the new media affords new approaches of organisation and coordination. States can erode many citizens' rights. Information technology, with the aid of developing new sources of power, is reshaping the trajectory of political development far from the political and democratic fashions of the West. The capability of these new systems calls for additional strengthening collaboration and commonplace know-how.

LIMITS AND POSSIBILITIES IN THE CURRENT AND FUTURE

The article points to 6 key drivers of the destiny of the ARI machine that had been then used to construct scenarios for the destiny of agricultural research and innovation in Africa. The maximum applicable scenario points out that the key may be getting the needed political will to devote budgets and additionally constructing a crucial mass of futurists in the ARI device.

Governance has been a perennial undertaking in Africa, (*ibid.* probably the most fundamental and intractable project (Gatune, 2018).

And even in the end, we are witnessing a return to ethnic primarily based systems, confirmation that the universalist state misses something, the connectedness that includes conventional structures. The universalist state will not be the way forward for Africa. The argument is that if this spirit of belongingness, identity and self-affirmation is placed inside the financial sphere (not in the sphere of politics!) via cooperative networks and entrepreneurial "tribes", an equilibrium may be found in the background of the past and the demanding situations of the future (De Benoist and Champetier, 1999).

Leadership performs a key position in developing conditions shaping the future. African management has failed to create the right situations and is accused of selling "used futures" — those that may have succeeded somewhere else, for an instance, Europe, but does not fit into the neighbourhood context of Sub-Saharan Africa (Gatune, 2018). For example, the pan-African imaginative and prescient is a pacesetter-precipitated shared vision on paper, but it is not always the shared vision of the people. There is want for a story primarily based on the *Ubuntu* philosophy of inclusiveness that supports the bottom-up approach, a network-pushed exchange that truly places humans first. Essentially, the worldview actions from humans being connected primarily based on political and economic ideologies that may bring about a used destiny to communities and solidarity become the glue of society, based totally on cultural values and the reputation of each other (De Benoist and Champetier, 1999). Embracing

Ubuntu is consequently visible as an important thing to a higher future that gives opportunities for all.

WHY RESEARCH AND MORE RESEARCH NEEDED

This present studyteaches us that future-oriented work is targeted at mastering and using new insights to attain several exceptional ends. To explain the functions of the various special methodologies associated with destiny-orientated paintings, it might appear suitable to apply a terminology evolved in the field of cognitive theories of learning. In his look on checks and measures of intelligence, Hudson (1967) identifies seemingly extraordinary forms of wondering (skills): Convergent and Divergent questioning.

Convergent thinking is largely traditional trouble-solving. It usually involves bringing fabric from a variety of sources to undergo a problem, in one way to produce the "accurate" solution (*ibid.*). This sort of wondering is suitable for technological know-how, maths and era because it includes description, commentary, deduction, and/or prioritisation in terms of a given trouble. Divergent wondering is a skill broadly associated with the creative elaboration of ideas prompted by a stimulus (*ibid.*). In a conventional line of thought, such questioning is perfect for inventive pursuits and studies in the humanities.

Convergent and Divergent questioning terminology may be used to explain the maximum of the strategies and equipment applied inside destiny-oriented paintings. There are various strategies designed to foster divergent and 'out of the field' questioning and there are more than a few techniques used to foster convergent and synthesis-orientated wondering, although one may think that situation and destiny analysis with its extra or less specific awareness of the question of 'what if' might be heavily biased towards divergent methods. This is not the case. A good future study layout needs to stabilise the divergent and convergent approaches with the purpose of facilitating a technique in which using both ways of thinking produce a result that is exploratory and innovative and rooted in information, numbers and explicitly stated rational assumptions.

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CORPORATE GOVERNANCE AND THE PERFORMANCE OF STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES, ZIMBABWE

Tendekai Dandaratsi[1], Admire Mthombeni[2], Patrick Karibe[3], Shingirai Siziba[4], Sharon Chisango[5] and Christabel Nyathi[6]

Abstract

The article is based on a study that focused on corporate governance and its influence on the performance of state-owned enterprises (SOEs) in Zimbabwe. Such SOEs have been at the centre of controversy in recent Auditor General Reports. The study sought to determine the influence of board size on organisational performance, to measure the effect of board composition on organisational performance, to examine the effects of board four-year term capping on board effectiveness and to determine the impacts of board member performance contracts on board effectiveness. The researchers adopted a mixed methodology in which self-administered questionnaires and interviews were used to gather data from the respondents. The study used stratified random sampling in which board members, board chairpersons, chief executive officers (CEOs) and management of selected SOEs in Harare, Zimbabwe, were used. Data was presented in the form of tables, charts produced using SPSS software. Results of the study obtained show that the adoption of the right board size and composition and the use of performance contracts result in better performance of SOEs in Zimbabwe. The study concluded that there is a positive relationship between board size and organisational performance, a positive relationship between board composition and organisational performance. Also, results showed a positive relationship between the use of board performance contracts and organisational performance. The study, therefore, recommends that SOEs should practise good corporate governance by adhering to corporate governance legislation such as the Public Entities and Corporate Governance Act Chapter 10.31 which spells out how boards of SOEs must be composed.

Keywords: board size, board composition, organisational performance.

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INTRODUCTION

According to the State Enterprises and Parastatals Reform Agency (SEPRA), State-owned Enterprise includes such organisations and entities that are governed by individual Acts of Parliament and those established under the Companies Act. SOEs in Zimbabwe may be classified into different groups that include commercial, non-commercial (social institutions) and higher education institutions. In some SOEs, the government has full shareholding and in others, it holds the majority shareholding. Zimbabwe has 107 state-owned entities that are important to the economic development of the nation as they contribute a fraction to the gross domestic product (GDP). These state-owned entities are put in different categories that include public entities under the categories of authorities and agencies, those under the category of boards, commissions, councils, companies and corporations, financial institutions category, public entities under the category of hospitals and the category of universities and tertiary institutions (Office of the Auditor General's Report, 2019).

The failure of the oversight roles of boards has been noticed in SOEs. There have been many SOEs failures globally and Zimbabwe has not been spared (Chigudu 2021). Corporate failures, scandals and fraudulent activities have caused, among other vices, unemployment, reduction of the gross domestic product (GDP) and erosion of investor confidence leading to economic stagnation (Chiduku, 2021). In Zimbabwe, SOEs have recorded net losses as reported by the Auditor General Report (2018) and faced many corporate governance issues such as corruption, nepotism and fund embezzlement. This has, therefore, resulted in poor performance of SOEs which continues to be a burden to the government (Rusvingo 2014). While the board is supposed to have oversight of the work of the CEO and the executives, there seems to be no end in sight for scandals by SOEs, failures and financial malpractices. Scandals have occurred, pointing to SOEs not complying with corporate governance legislative measures put in place by the government. As such, boards of SOEs which are supposed to be carrying an oversight role, are said to have gone to sleep (Sifile *et al.,* 2017). Therefore, there exists a gap in terms of studies that explains the role of the board on organisational performance.

In addition, SOEs may as well cover organisations to which origins may be traced back to the state and they share similar characteristics with private companies in that the financiers and owners are different from managers who ensure the day-to-day management of the corporate. In the case of SOEs, the government provides initial funds and appoint the board of directors to run the enterprises. The government has for SOEs implemented various frameworks to deal with issues of corporate governance in SOEs. According to Sikwila *et al.* (2015), Zimbabwean SOEs performed poorly from 1990 to 2015. Examples of SOEs that have performed poorly and

nearly collapsed include, but not limited to, the Zimbabwe Steel Company (ZISCO Steel), the Agriculture Development Authority (ARDA), the National Railways of Zimbabwe (NRZ), the Cold Storage Commission (CSC), the Zimbabwe Broadcasting Corporation (ZBC), the National Social Security Authority (NSSA). Issues that resulted in poor performance and incapacitation are a deficiency in corporate governance, whereby huge remunerations were being pocketed by executives, corruption and not following laid down procurement procedures. The government of Zimbabwe hence brought in some legislative frameworks that include the Zimbabwe Code on Corporate Governance (ZIMCODE) in 2014 and further the Public Entities Corporate Governance Act in a bid to curb problems of poor governance in SOEs.

State-wned Enterprises (in developing countries are in trouble as some are into endless scandals yet boards, which are responsible for an oversight role of SOEs exist (Sifile *et al.*, 2017). In some instances, top management of such entities have awarded themselves high salaries, among other forms of malfeasance. This has resulted in the decapitation of these enterprises hence urgent measures need to be implemented to curb such unethical behaviour. Additionally, Zimbabwe SOEs have been threatened largely by growing cases of corruption, funds embezzlement, nepotism and many other scandals which have left them underperforming despite having boards overseeing corporate governance of such SOEs. Board composition and size thus are necessary for the smooth running of SOEs to ensure that they realise their mandate of providing goods and services (Chiduku, 2021).

The Government of Zimbabwe 2018 enacted the Public Entities Corporate Governance Act (PECGA) Chapter 10:31. The Act seeks to provide for the governance of SOEs in compliance with chapter 9 of the Zimbabwean Constitution which provides for the uniform mechanism for regulating conditions of service for members of public entities and their senior employees.

SOEs, if well managed, have the capacity to contribute at least 40% to the country's GDP (Mashavave. 2017). However, in Zimbabwe, these entities have been operating without a well-defined Act of Corporate Governance. This has resulted in poor corporate governance practices by SOEs whose board size and composition at times do not constitute the required number and committees. As such to regularise board size and composition, the Public Entities Corporate Governance Act was enacted in 2018. Before this, the ZIMCODE had been in effect since 2014. Its existence did not help unmask and put to rest endless scandals and troubles by SOEs whose presence may be stopped by the existence of concrete and well-composed boards. The recent wave of highly publicised corporate scandals that have roiled state-owned enterprises in Zimbabwe has been attributed to deficiencies in

corporate governance (Chimbari, 2017). It is thus at the core of this research that corporate governance, through various Acts of Parliament, influences the performance of SOEs. The Act that is meant to bring compliance to the principles of corporate governance has so far not yielded fruit, as some corporate boards are poorly composed.
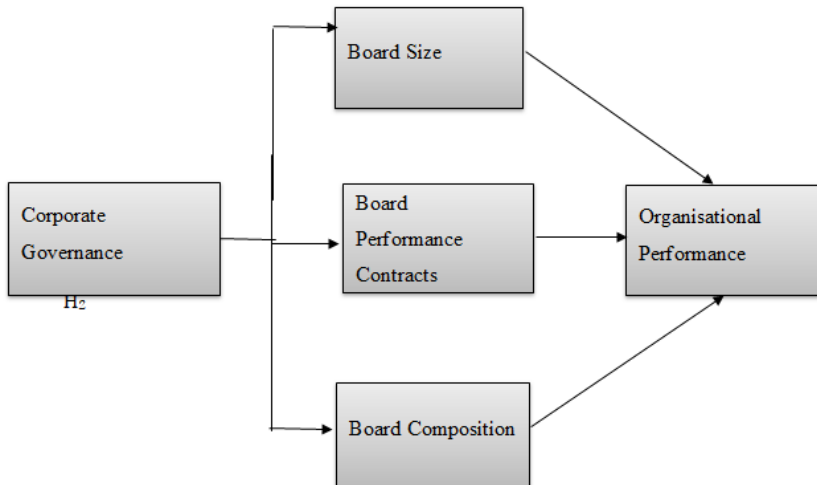
Figure 1: Conceptual Framework *(Researchers, 2022)*

Figure 1 conceptualises that corporate governance is important in enhancing organisational performance (Chigudu, 2021). In this view, board size and board composition are critical ingredients to better functioning of boards and thus to the overall performance of the organisation (Hyden,1992). The use of performance contracts also enhances board performance and thus the overall functioning of the organisation.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

AGENCY THEORY

The agency theory has its background in economic theory and was propounded by Alchian Armen, and Demsetz (1972) and further developed by Jensen and Meckling (1976). According to Eisenhardt (1998), the agency theory broadens risk-sharing to encompass agency problems which exist when cooperating parties have different goals. This theory agency presents a global agency relationship in which one party, which is the principal, delegates tasks to another party, the agent. Agency theory, hence, is an exploration of the relationship between principal and agent through the metaphor of a contract (Davis *et al.*, 1997).

In the same view, Benn and Dunphy (2007) alludes that the principal agent emanates from a contractual angle and such a contractual agreement establishes a hierarchical relationship between the contractual parties. The principal has the right to make directives to the agent, who promises to work to promote the interest of the principal. The principal-agent perception indicates the possibility of a failure in contractual obligation, as such strategies need to be put in place to monitor an agent. Such a need to employ a control-mechanism results in a conflict of interest in cases where an agent may not be compliant with contractual obligations. Based on the conflict of interest, Ruparelia and Njuguma (2016) notes governance problems emerging in the public sector, that is, the adverse selection and moral hazard. Adverse selection emerges when the agent has information which at times may not be accessible by the principal. This means that the agent may misrepresent information to his gain in contract negotiations. Moral hazard arises when the principal may not be able to observe the action by the agent but makes evaluations based on the performance of such agent actions.

The agency theory, if applied in the case of SOEs, may be used to analyse the existence of relationships between various stakeholders that covers the board and the executive management. The whole governance cycle is explained by the metaphor of a contract between and among coexisting parties. Using the agency theory, separation of ownership and control may be managed via contract as the cooperating parties may carry different ambitions. As an illustration, board interests may not be in sync with those of the shareholders. Colley *et al.* (2003) has pointed out that it is inconceivable for a conflict of interest to occur when the organisation is owner-managed.

Therefore, applied to the case of SOEs, agency theory implies that the appointment of directors comes with costs due to the information asymmetry. This results in some unscrupulous directors-cum-agents abusing their offices.

Stewardship theory

Stewardship theory is founded on a positive view of human behaviour by asserting that people are not inclined to opportunism and managers want to sincerely pursue shareholders' interests (Muth and Donaldson,1998). In this view, boards of directors are groups of competent people that help managers to enhance their decision-making process, contributing to the boardroom debate through their experiences, competencies and different viewpoints. In other words, board members provide advice and support to top managers and thus represent a valuable resource for corporate boards. The theory supports the selection of directors who will dutifully serve (Magdi *et al.*,

(1999). As such, in the present study, the theory applies as there is a need for proper stewardship to efficiently run SOEs.

CORPORATE GOVERNANCE

There is no one generally agreed definition of corporate governance as such corporate governance has been defined and described in many ways. Cadbury (2000) alludes that corporate governance is the system by which businesses are directed and controlled. In the historical work of Berle and Means (1932) and Fama and Jansen (1983), corporate governance means the set of internal and external controls that reduces the conflict of interest between managers and shareholders deriving from the separation of ownership and control. Such scholarly definitions imply that the goals of employees are not always reconcilable with those of corporations. In that regard, the aims and objectives of the SOEs may sometimes differ from those of the general populace. This means that the agenda of shareholders who are the principal, executives who are the agents and board members are usually not in sync and congruent, hence the coming in of corporate governance. Corporate governance has also been contextualised as a set of mechanisms that affect how a corporation is operated and that it deals with the welfare and goals of all the stakeholders, including shareholders, management, board of directors, lenders, regulators and the society (Liew, 2007; Ongore and Obonyo.2011).   Corporate governance is thus not about controlling managers and protecting the investments of shareholders only, as is usually put across by researchers who use the agency theory. It is about satisfying all stakeholder expectations.

ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

Organisational performance refers to how well an organisation attains successful outcomes to pre-set organisational objectives (KPMG Report (2014). It measures an ability of an organisation to fetch and utilise resources which are limited and scarce in a manner that is cost-effective to achieve its operational and strategic objectives. It is defined as an analysis of an organisation's performance as compared to goals and objectives.

Corporate governance principles that influence organisational performance

Corporate governance bears certain principles that must be adhered to, even by SOEs. The principles include, but are not limited to, Accountability, Monitoring and Evaluation, Transparency and Responsibility

TRANSPARENCY

This is a huge task that SOEs must bear since these represent the government's delivering arm. This implies that government officials must act in the best interest by abiding by the relevant legislative framework such as PECG Act. (Gompers, Ishii and Metick (2003) elucidate that if SOEs abide by transparency, it fosters a customer-oriented by putting citizens where they

contribute to the improvement of service delivery. This enables citizens to assess SOEs.

MONITORING AND EVALUATION

There is need for the government, during and after a policy to monitor and evaluate the overall performance of its policy, to have an appreciation of the efficiency and effectiveness of such policies. The process of monitoring and evaluation helps bring an understanding of what has been attained as well as the shortcomings of the policy.

ACCOUNTABILITY

McGee (2002) alludes that accountability is a measure to align the principal's expectations and the agent's delivery. McGee holds the view that accountability consists of developing suitable systems that allow for decision-making in a way that promotes honesty and productivity.

RESPONSIBILITY

Benn and Dunphy (2017) holds the view that a person in public office is expected to exhibit a sense of responsibility in the execution of official duties and display irreproachable ethical behaviour. It is the kind of standing that needs to be adopted by those at the helm of SOEs to minimise the occurrence of conduct such as criminal abuse of office.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In a study by Sikwila et al., (2015) on the effectiveness of boards of directors of SOEs in developing countries, the researcher states that Regulations or Codes of Good Governance stipulate several conditions related to the number of directors, such as their type (e.g. executive, non-executive and independent directors) and skills of the appointees. He further states that regulations may also contain additional formal requirements, such as the frequency of meetings of the board as a whole and/or the number and nature of board committees. These regulations focus on the structural aspects of the board and not on the human factor whose focus is on how best the board should be populated by capable actors through effective selection mechanisms (Spisto, 2005).

A study by Magdi *et al.,* (1999) examined the influence of corporate governance mechanisms in Ghana on firm performances measured by accounting-based ratios. The study was done on listed Ghanaian companies from 2006 to 2018. Researchers used panel regression analysis data from 38 listed companies from Ghana to which secondary data was used to test how corporate governance contributed to firm performance. Their findings were that the presence of both insiders and outsiders on the corporate board improved financial performance. The study concluded that board size,

frequency of board meetings and shareholder concentration structure generally had a positive impact on financial performance. The present study seeks to close the methodological gap by employing a mixed approach. Additionally, the study will use SOEs to determine the influence of corporate governance on organisational performance. The study will not only measure organisational performance in terms of accounting ratios as in the case of a study by Dagli, Eyuboglu, Ayaydin (2012) but also use service delivery as a measure of organisational performance.

Gakari (2013) researched corporate governance's role in overcoming agency issues and developing a culture of transparency and openness. The study aimed at examining how corporate governance mechanisms affect the performance of Islamic banks. The study was quantitative and used data from Islamic banks in 29 Islamic countries for the period 2008 to 2017. The findings of the study were that the audit committee and board have a positive impact on the performance of Islamic banks. The researcher also found out that board size and risk management committees have negative and significant effects on the performance of Islamic banks. This, however, is in contradiction with findings done by Sifile *et al.* (2014), who observe that there is a positive relationship between board size and organisational performance. Therefore, there is need to conduct a study of corporate governance on organisational performance in Zimbabwe to determine if such results are replicated in Africa. The study will close regional and methodological gaps by adopting a mixed approach in the confines of SOEs in Zimbabwe.

In addition, a study by Butter (2012) investigated the impact of corporate board diversity on corporate performance and executive pay in Middle and North African countries. The study found that board diversity has a positive effect on corporate financial performance. The present study will not measure organisational performance in terms of financial performance as the case of many of these corporate governance studies but will also look at service delivery as a measure of organisational performance. In Zimbabwe, SOEs are formed to serve national mandates hence the need to see if corporate governance enhances organisational performance.

Chigudu (2020) studied the extent to which SOEs in Zimbabwe adhere to good corporate governance by using a qualitative approach through a descriptive document philosophical analysis. His study also examined the challenges in Zimbabwe's strategic management for sustainable development. The study employed the agency theory, stewardship theory, stakeholder theory and transaction cost economics theory. The findings of the study reveal that current corporate governance practice has not

effectively improved the efficiency and effectiveness of the SOEs (Zvavahera and Ndoda, 2014). This is a result of corruption, inconsistencies, lack of commitment and absence of the rule of law and excessive political interference. Thus, in the present research, the researchers do not rely only on corporate qualitative information and desk inquiry but use a collaborative approach to look into the influence of corporate governance on organisational performance.

METHODOLOGY

The present research adopted a quantitative research approach that carried a positivist philosophy. In this manner, researchers distributed structured questionnaires to management, board members and CEOs of selected SOEs in Harare. The questionnaires sought to provide answers to questions such as does the board size influence organisational performance? What effect does board composition have on organisational performance? and, What impact does a board member performance contract have on board effectiveness?

RESULTS

Board size and organisational performance
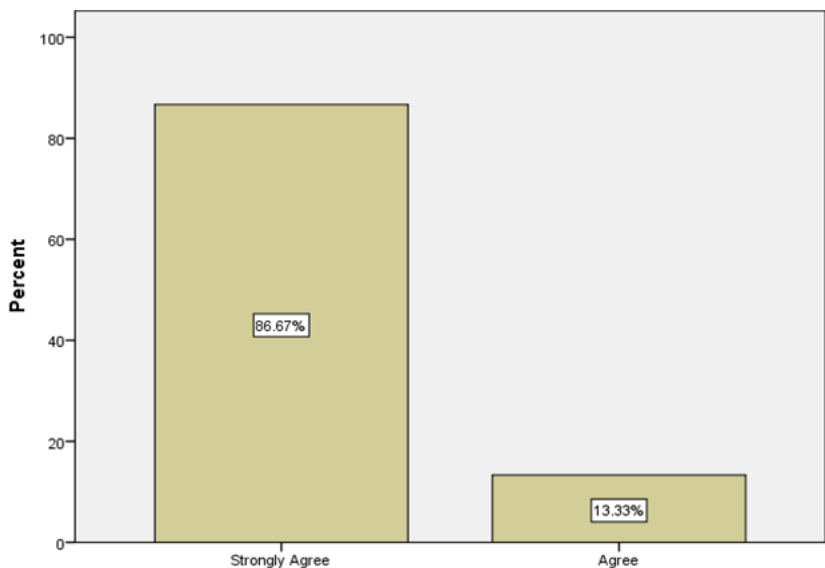
Figure 2: Board size and organisational performance

The results presented in Figure 2 indicate that 86.67% of respondents strongly agreed that board size influences organisational performance, whilst 13.33% agreed. These results corroborate the findings of Onyali &

Okerekeoti (2018) who, through their study in Lagos, Nigeria, posit that large board size is positively associated with enhanced performance of an organisation. Orozco *et al.* (2018) also echoed the same sentiments that board size has a bearing on the performance of organisations by specifically looking at the return on assets.

BOARD COMPOSITION AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

Table 1: Board Composition and Organisational Performance *(Researchers, 2022)*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	68	86.7	86.7	86.7
	Agree	10	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	78	100.0	100.0	

Results in Table 1 show that 86.7 % of the respondents strongly agreed with the view that board composition influences organisational performance. A total of 13.3% agreed that board composition influences organisational performance. Such findings are congruent with the work done by Mashavave (2017) who found that board composition influences organisational performance.

BOARD TERM CAPPING AND BOARD EFFECTIVENESS

Table 2: Board term capping and board effectiveness *(Researcher, 2021)*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	62	80.0	80.0	80.0
	Agree	16	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	78	100.0	100.0	

Table 2 shows that respondents agreed with the fact that board term capping results in board effectiveness. In this view, 80% strongly agreed and 20% agreed that the capping of board members' terms improves their performance. These results conform to the findings done by Solomon and Solomon (2004) who found that capped term limit is ideal as it enhances organisational performance.
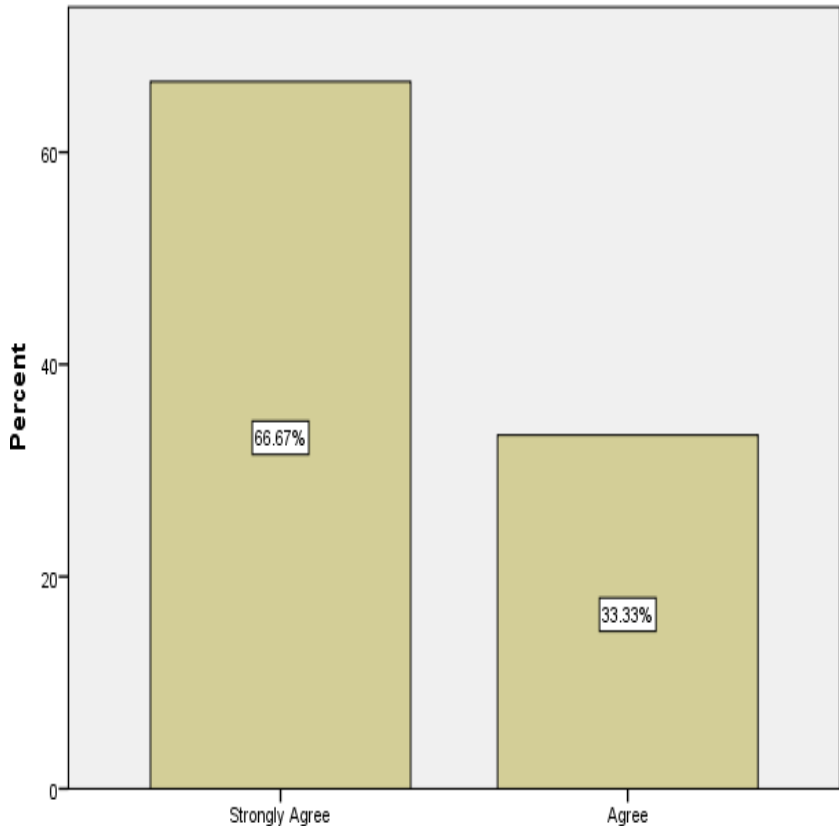
Figure 3: Board Performance contracts Enhance Board Effectiveness

Figure 3 shows that 66.67% of the respondents strongly agreed and 33.33% agreed with the sentiment that board performance contracts enhance organisational performance. Such results are supported by the findings of Abel and Martelli (2013) who got that performance contracts lead to better employee performance.

TESTING OF HYPOTHESIS- CHI-SQUARE TESTS

Table 3: Board size and organisational performance Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	17.986[a]	4	.001
Likelihood Ratio	6.422	4	.170
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.542	1	.060
N of Valid Cases	78		

a. 8 cells (80.0%) have an expected count of less than 5. The minimum expected count is .05

Results presented in Table 3 show a Pearson Chi-Square value of 0.001 which is statistically significant as it is less than 0.05. There is, therefore, rejection of the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance which leads to the conclusion that there is a positive relationship between board size and organisational performance.

Table 4: Board composition and organisational performance
Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.397[a]	6	.037
Likelihood Ratio	16.453	6	.012
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.180	1	.023
N of Valid Cases	78		

a. 9 cells (75.0%) have an expected count of less than 5. The minimum expected count is .22.

Results presented in Table 4 show a Pearson Chi-Square value of 0.037 which is statistically significant as it is less than 0.05. There is therefore rejection of the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance which leads to the conclusion that there is a positive relationship between board composition and organisational performance.

Table 5: Performance contracts and organisational performance Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.397[a]	6	.037
Likelihood Ratio	16.453	6	.012
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.180	1	.023
N of Valid Cases	78		

a.   9 cells (75.0%) have an expected count of less than 5. The minimum expected count is .22.

In Table 5 Pearson's Chi-Square of 0.037 is less than 0.05 which is therefore statistically significant. This means that there is a rejection of the null hypothesis at a 5% level of significance which leads to the conclusion that there is a positive relationship between performance contracts and organisational performance.

DISCUSSION
The main aim of the study was to determine the role of corporate governance on the performance of state-owned enterprises. The presented results above indicate that corporate governance through study constructs such as board size, board composition, board term capping and performance contracts enhances organisational performance. The findings are congruent with the findings by Dagli, Eyuboglu, Ayaydin (2012) who examined the relationships between board size and corporate performance in 348 of Australia's largest publicly listed companies and describe the attributes of these firms and their boards. Their findings were that that, after controlling firm size, board size is positively correlated with firm value and organisational performance. In support of the current study results, Mahadeo, Soobaroyen and Aebi, Sabato and Schimid (2011) made an examination of board diversity amongst listed companies operating in emerging economies (Mauritius) and the extent to which these influences organisational performance. They found that board composition such as gender, age, educational background, fosters diversity, thus influencing positively organisational performance.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
Influence of board size on organisational performance
Board size influences organisational performance. In this view, researchers conclude that large board size is positively associated with a better performance of SOEs, hence enabling them to fulfil national mandates.

THE EFFECT OF BOARD COMPOSITION ON ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE
The study concluded that board composition has a positive bearing on the performance of SOEs in Zimbabwe. Board composition such as gender and skills diversity, have a positive relationship with organisational performance. The results also indicate that board composition such as gender positively impacts organisational performance.

The results of the study also indicate the fact that board term capping results in board effectiveness. These results point out that a capped term limit is ideal as it enhances organisational performance. Results presented show that 66.67% of the respondents strongly agreed and 33.33% agreed with the sentiment that board performance contracts enhance organisational performance. In summary, board performance contracts improve board effectiveness. Such results may thus lead to the conclusion that performance contracts lead to better employee performance. The results presented that the adoption of best corporate governance practices results in better performance of SOEs in Zimbabwe. Through this, it may be concluded that there is a positive relationship between board size and organisational performance, there is a positive relationship between board composition and organisational performance and a positive relationship between the use of board performance contracts and organisational performance.

At the heart of the whole SOEs-corporate governance discussion is the desire to put SOEs on the path of sustainable growth and make them attractive and meet their national mandates through the adoption of good corporate governance practices.

BOARD SIZE AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE
The result of the study also shows that there is a positive relationship between board size and organisational performance. It is in this view that the researchers recommends that SOEs increase board size so that there is the formation of board subcommittees which improves the board oversight roles.

EFFECT OF BOARD COMPOSITION ON ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE
Boards of SOEs be well composed by including the right mixture of skills diversity, gender and age to improve organisational performance.

EFFECT OF BOARD FOUR YEARS CAPPING ON BOARD EFFECTIVENESS
Results have shown that the four-year board capping as prescribed by the Public Entities Corporate Governance Act leads to high board effectiveness. In this view, the researchers put forward recommendations that the government, through relevant ministries, makes monitoring and evaluation of board performance to further improve their effectiveness.
IMPACT OF BOARD MEMBER PERFORMANCE CONTRACTS

The researcher noted that performance contracts improve board effectiveness. As such it is recommended that all board members of SOEs sign performance contracts whose performance should be monitored and evaluated regularly.

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ETHICAL LEADERSHIP DILEMMAS FOR SCHOOL TEACHERS AMID SOCIO-POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC TURBULENCES IN FOUR ZIMBABWEAN SCHOOLS

BERNARD CHINGWANANGWANA[1]

Abstract

This qualitative study explores unethical practices by teachers amid turbulent socio-political and economic environments in Zimbabwean schools. The study was conducted in four Zimbabwean schools in Marondera Education District. The study data were generated through focus group interviews, documents review and semi-structured interviews. The findings suggest that ethical practices in schools are very difficult, if not impossible, during turbulent socio-political and economic environments, like in Zimbabwe currently. The study establishes that a turbulent socio-political and economic environment compromises ethical practices as it facilitates incessant teacher unpunctuality and absenteeism due to private businesses, late payment of salaries and bonuses, the mounting cash crisis in banks, political violence against teachers, a collapse of the educational funding systems and learner deteriorating behaviour at schools, amongst others. Whenever there are two competing issues, one is bound to be outweighed, in the case of this study, ethical leadership is pitied against survival of the school personnel survival before ethical behaviour, creating dilemmas for the school heads and teachers. It has emerged, in this study, that the way forward is to deal with the turbulences that are pushing the educational practitioners to the cliff edge, hence restoring calm on the education flight.

Keywords: education district, school leadership, primary and secondary schools.

INTRODUCTION

Literature on ethical leadership in Zimbabwean schools points to the fact that the current socio-political and economic turbulences in the country are posing wide-ranging challenges to ethical and other forms of school leadership (Mawadza, 2009; Mufundikwa, 2010; Chireshe and Shumba, 2011; Shizha and Kariwo, 2011; Erlwanga; 2013). The study focused on Marondera, a dormitory town of Harare, the capital city of Zimbabwe;

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because many studies conducted on ethical school leadership and practices were in Harare and other big cities, thus making the study relevant.

The phenomenon of unethical practices in schools amidst turbulence has not been widely researched in Zimbabwe as the socio-political and economic turbulences have been building up since 2 000 to the present day. Zimbabwe faced severe economic challenges, leading to the abandonment of the local currency in 2009 due to hyperinflation (Mufundikwa, 2010). The fast-track land reform programme that was implemented in February 2000, where the majority of the 4 000 white farmers were displaced from their land for redistribution to blacks caused a devastating economic meltdown (*ibid.*). Since then, there has been a continuous downturn in the Zimbabwean economy and analysts like Moyo, President of the Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Unions, pegged the unemployment rate at a whopping 95% (Africa Check, 2015). To date, the turbulence has not been tamed, rather, it has escalated since November 2017, when former President, Robert Mugabe was toppled and Emmerson Mnangagwa became President. The subsequent July 2018 elections rejected by the main opposition party, the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC), which maintained that Mnangagwa's Zimbabwe African Union Patriotic Front (ZANU-PFF) had stolen it, aggravated the already dire situation. A Constitutional Court challenge was raised and the standoff worsened the turbulence even more when the court ruling came out in favour of ZANU-PFF. This created new waves of unethical practices amongst teachers in the schools, in the sense that the much-anticipated transformation did not take place, rather new woes surfaced. The removal of the United States dollar as the official currency by the second republic and its replacement with the Zimbabwean currency, triggered the same journey that had been travelled from 2008 to 2017, decerebrating the situation. This exacerbated the unethical leadership practices among school heads and the teachers.

According to Burde (2014), a country in turbulence, like Zimbabwe currently, often suffers from a near-total decline of the state, displaying symptoms such as a shortage of resources, teachers included, as a human resource, forced migrations, breakdown in communications, health care and other state-run services. When an economy collapses, it is the public-funded activities and sectors that are affected first.

Relatedly, teachers were reported to be absent from duty or were constantly late because they were running private businesses to subsidise the eroded and late paid salaries and bonuses and leaving learners unattended ((Mawere, 2013; Masango, 2014). When there is socio-political and economic turbulence, people tend to do anything to survive and, as a result, ethical considerations become secondary (Magede, 2017). Teachers are critical agents in the academic and moral development of students.

Khandelwal and Biswal (2012) posit that teacher conduct includes professional commitment and ethical behaviour, hence the interrogation of unethical practices among teachers, heads of department and school heads in the four schools, concerning the turbulence prevailing in Zimbabwe.

THEORETICAL FRAMING

Theories that were employed in the study were the Turbulence Theory (Shapiro & Gross, 2013) *Ubuntu* Leadership Theory (Khoza, 2012) and the Virtue Ethical Leadership Theory (Gini & Green, 2013).

Gross (2006) defines turbulence as a force from the environment that is usually unpredictable. Similarly, Burde (2014) defines turbulence as the entire process of economic change, where there are relocations, shutdowns movements, job losses, expansions and start-ups due to natural selection processes, economic changes, globalisation, technological change and political instability or wrong political decisions. Shapiro and Gross (2013) say there are two types of turbulences, namely external and internal, the internal coming from within the school setup, while the external comes from forces outside. Shapiro and Gross (*ibid.*) are proponents of the Turbulence Theory. It has four levels: light, moderate, severe and extreme turbulence. In light turbulence, there is little or no movement, while in moderate the movement is noticeable. With severe turbulence, control is getting lost and lastly, extreme control is lost. According to Gross (2006), in Turbulence Theory positionality is vital in that, where a person stands about the turbulence will determine how he or she experiences or reacts to it. In the case of the Zimbabwean economy and the prevailing turbulences, there are people benefiting from these turbulences and would want these turbulences to continue for selfish reasons. This is where the issue of positionality comes into play. While some are fighting to end the turbulences, others are busy fanning the fire to give it a new lease of life.

Khoza (2014) defines the *ubuntu* philosophy as humanness, a pervasive spirit of caring and community, harmony and hospitality and respect and responsiveness that individuals and groups display for one another. According to Khoza (2013), the *Ubuntu* philosophy hinges on group solidarity, aimed at building and maintaining communities with justice and mutual care. Under the *ubuntu* philosophy, the community is more important than the individual. Mathooko (2008) says, in the African landscape, regarding management concepts and ethics, you cannot ignore *ubuntu*. Khoza (2012) brings another dimension of interest to the study, that of attuned African Leadership, which he refers to as the compass of African humanism. He argues that a person is a person because of other people (*Umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu.*) Khoza (*ibid.*) equates this theory to the Biblical concept of love thy neighbour as thyself, arguing further that leaders should serve their people with a sense of integrity, accountability, knowledge

and transparency. If we were to follow the turbulence analogy, it will be apparent that people that are piloting the aircraft are the ones that should be steering it out of the turbulences, but in this case, the opposite might be true, hence the study.

Gini and Green (2013) give a five-point model in ascending order of importance, which they say constitute the necessary components of moral leadership, the first being that all leadership is power-laden. In Zimbabwe, a lack of proper balance of power and functioning of the executive, legislature and judiciary led to this scenario which has affected all sectors of the economy, schools included (Chireshe & Shumba: 2011). The second component is the relationship between leaders and followers. Here, Gini and Green (2013) advocate that leadership is plural in that it does not reside in one person. A shared vision is the third component of the five, where they argue that all leaders have an agenda, a series of beliefs, proposals, shared views and values of the organisation. These, however, should be driven by virtue ethics, targeting a shared vision. The fourth component of virtue ethical leadership is the accomplishment of real change and the fifth is value-based and ethically driven leadership. The argument is that leadership is not just a set of learned skills and a series of outcomes; it is about character attuned to its ethical responsibilities to others, where one is saying 'you are because I am, and I am because you are.' The motive is the common good for everybody These three theories directly inform the study.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
The current study was a qualitative and interpretivist multiple-case study, focusing on unethical leadership practices amongst teachers in the context of socio-political and economic turbulence in four schools in the Marondera District of Zimbabwe. In the study, the boundaries were the four schools and the focus was exploring unethical leadership. Yin (2012) states that a multiple-case study is an approach to qualitative research that involves a specific and detailed study of cases. The study of these cases results in an invaluable and deep understanding of issues, which hopefully results in the creation of new insights and knowledge.

The current study used four schools and selected individuals. The individuals were identified as best suited to generate the data required for the study. There were four data generation sites: two primary and two secondary schools. Each case study goes beyond the study of isolated variables, given that each school as a case has its context and setting that cannot be identical to the other but are peculiar to them. Unethical leadership practices amongst teachers in the four schools, making the cases for the current study, were the boundary for the study and the school head, one head of department and four teachers were selected from each case and school, further creating another boundary.

The four case study sites, together with the participants were selected through purposive sampling. The data were generated through semi-structured interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis. The study made use of pseudonyms to protect the identity of the participants and the case sites, the schools.

EVIDENCE FROM THE GROUND

The turbulence factors cited by the participants that triggered unethical conduct amongst teachers in the schools were: late or non-payment of salaries and bonuses, massive teacher brain drain to neighbouring countries and greener pastures, a collapse of the educational funding structures within the schools, salary erosion and political violence on teachers. It was these socio-political and economic factors that created turbulences that triggered all forms of unethical conduct among teachers. These are discussed in detail next.

Amongst the socio-political and economic turbulences that were prevalent in Zimbabwe which had a bearing on ethical leadership in the schools were: late or non-payment of salaries and bonuses, massive brain drain, a collapse of the educational funding structures, political violence on teachers, amongst other factors (Kusereka, 2003; UNICEF, 2008;; Mawadza, 2009; *The Herald,* 2015).

In such an environment, unethical practices were cited as prevalent by the participants, some of their sentiments are as follows:

> Were there any unethical practices caused by the socio-political and economic turbulences in Zimbabwe?

Many of the participants agreed that there were many unethical practices associated with the current socio-political and economic turbulence. The Head of Chifamba High School, Mr Zangata said:

> There are plenty in this economic environment. Absenteeism, both teachers and pupils. Teachers because of economic hardships, the teachers are trying to put food on the table, trying to make extra cash, so at times he does not come to work, busy somewhere trying to make extra cash for a living. We have situations where teachers have affairs with pupils also, all because of the economic hardships driving these pupils to this, which drives some teachers to take advantage of these school kids. There is a betrayal of trust, there is a breach of the code of conduct.

When probed further, it emerged that most of these teachers who either came to work late and left earlier than expected or were absent, were entirely engaged in extra income generation projects, such as flea markets, market stalls, poultry farming, extra tutorial classes and vending. One teacher from Sungano Primary School, Mrs Gadzirai, had this to say:

> Professionally trained people are out there. They are now vendors. You will be forced to set up a business out there and run it while you are also running the profession.

The teachers are aware that they are flouting the basic ethical conduct expected of them, but they blame it on the current turbulences in the country. Mr Ruzivo, also a teacher from Sungano Primary School) said:

> Something in you will tell you that what you are doing is wrong, but then there is the issue of poverty, the issue of the cash crisis, teachers end up being corrupt, accepting bribes and trying to earn a living somehow but without considering the consequences. That is a big job now; you are supposed to be at work yet you want to have cash!

It also emerged that the same teachers who neglect the learners during formal class time in the school followed them after class and gave them extra classes in what had come to be called home tutoring. The data indicated that a teacher could have as many as 20 students each paying US$10 (about R150) per home-tutored subject per month. Teachers abused the learners for the sake of making money out of them. Mr Tsika, Head of Department, Sungano Primary School) said:

> Those people that are doing it are doing it for money. They do not bother themselves about consulting the syllabus and ensuring to follow what it prescribes. They are trying to raise some dollars there, so they say 1,2,3 child come to my place. We have teachers, in one of the schools, I will not mention the name, it was discovered they were using the school premises to do their extra lessons. So regional office descended upon them and almost the whole lot that was teaching Grades Five, Six and Seven were discharged.

This was the consensus amongst the participants, they strongly felt that the current turbulences had a great negative effect on ethical practices in the schools, regarding the teachers.

MASSIVE TEACHER BRAIN DRAIN

There was total agreement amongst all the participants that there was an exodus of trained professionals across all sectors of the economy from Zimbabwe due to the current socio-political and economic turbulence. The brain drain affected all sectors, trained teachers included. On April 9, 2010, the former Minister of Education, David Coltart, revealed that 45 000 teachers had left Zimbabwe for greener pastures abroad (Coltart, 2010). The respondents strongly felt that the brain drain created serious ethical leadership problems for teachers within the schools. The main issue raised in the responses, both for heads of departments and teachers, was the mentoring aspect that was lost when seasoned teachers left.

A good number of the participants associated the young teachers (who now filled the places left by the seasoned teachers) with improper association, indifference, lack of commitment and failure to handle classroom situations appropriately. To add their voice, one of the participants said:

> From my observation, the Zimbabwean curriculum and the Zimbabwean teaching profession have been good, the problem we are facing now is that we have young kids who have just graduated and the majority of the seasoned teachers who were supposed to groom these 'kids' to understand the expectations

of the system are no longer there (Head of Gondo Secondary School, Mr Ngwarai).

The study revealed that many of the young teachers are also leaving, some not even taking up teaching posts after graduation, exacerbating an already dire situation. One participant was eruptive over this issue as they bore the brunt:

Mrs Takunda from Gondo Secondary School, fumed

> You are the ones who suffer with their load, those that leave, go on maternity or sick leave are not replaced. For three months you share loads of those on leave. We are tired now, so we also do our things.

Sentiments such as the ones coming from Mrs Takunda indicated an attitude of burnout, where one did not care anymore about what happened in the school, ethically or otherwise. This was the general mood amongst all the teachers the researcher interacted with in the focus group interviews. They exhibited tones of resignation and an attitude that said we are beyond the level of care.

Related to brain drain is teacher overload, which led to the loss of morale and motivation, eventually triggering teacher apathy and poor performance. Mrs Katsiru, a teacher at Chifamba High School, said the teachers and other professionals were still leaving the profession *en masse* and the trend was growing. As a result, the remaining teachers had loads as high as 60 in a particular class. Those that had remained behind in the country, simply left the teaching profession and engaged in private business, some even opted to be vendors because it paid more to vend than to teach, creating apathy within a once noble profession. Mrs Gadzirai had this to say, regarding vending as opposed to teaching:

> Professionally trained teachers are out there. They are now vendors. Even those that were trained in 2014, 2015 and 2016 still choose to be on the streets selling tomatoes and so on, but they have got their certificates at home, waiting to come when sanity begins to prevail.

The participants revealed that the issue of improved remuneration was the key to transforming education and ethical practices in these schools. The teachers indicated that issues such as low morale, lack of motivation, absenteeism, unpunctuality, private businesses and the massive brain drain were all directly orchestrated by poor remunerations, a factor born out of the current socio-political and economic turbulence in the country and unless these turbulences are dealt with, the worst is yet to come.

POLITICAL VIOLENCE AGAINST TEACHERS

There were indications that teachers were victimised in the run-up to elections, labelled as supporting opposition parties. Mrs Gumbeze, a teacher participant from Chifamba High School, commented on an incident of political violence on teachers that she witnessed, where teachers from a school in Marondera were taken to a community rally by their students and

beaten in front of them. These teachers went into hiding until the elections were over, and some never returned. The participant further pointed out that this is the degrading level to which the profession had been reduced.

Literature on studies conducted in Zimbabwe has confirmed what the current study found. In the Zimbabwean situation, students did witness and, at times, took part in executing political violence on their teachers (Kusereka, 2003). Once this happens, teachers lose respect and control of their students, thereby creating disciplinary problems in schools. Once schools were politicised and controlled by sources other than professional systems and associations, ethical teacher conduct in the schools ceased to exist (Mafa and Makuba, 2013). Amongst the unethical conduct triggered by political violence were teacher overload for those who were remaining, loss of control and loss of dignity amongst the teachers. As per the tenets of *Ubuntu* Leadership Theory, when situations like these do occur, they negate the values and essence of *Ubuntu* in schools and communities alike. There is usually a backlash when teachers begin to retaliate, posing unethical conduct. The philosophy of *ubuntu* embraces values such as transparency, consultation, respect, sharing, selflessness, caring and respect for others (Littrell, 2011; Msila, 2014; Ngidi and Dorasamy, 2014). Given the challenges educators were facing in the Zimbabwean context, the study envisaged serious conflict and dilemma for educators when it came to executing ethical leadership in schools.

According to Gross's (2006) turbulence theory, the concept of positionality is vital in that, where a person stands in the turbulence will determine how he or she experiences it. Turbulence is not spread around the school and community uniformly and the role one plays around also determines one's functions and attitude. A good example from the electronic media is the story in *ZimEye* (2018, Online News) where a High Court Judge barred ZANU-PFF from using schoolteachers, school buses and learners in their campaign rallies to swell up numbers for the July 2018 elections. Here, positionality affected the way each group viewed and acted around the turbulence. Usually, it is the teachers that always ended up on the receiving end and it affects ethical leadership in the schools.

NON-PAYMENT AND LATE PAYMENT OF SALARIES AND BONUSES
The late payment and at times non-payment of salaries and bonuses for up to as much as six to eight months was raised as one of the major causes of unethical leadership practices in these schools. According to the participants, they were trying to make ends meet because their salaries came some six to eight months later and the bonuses were said to have come at times one year later. The non-payment or late payment of salaries and bonuses pushed the teachers to the cliff edge when it came to economic survival. When probed further, it emerged that the majority of these teachers who were either

unpunctual and left earlier than expected, or were absent, were entirely engaged in extra income generation projects, such as flea markets, market stalls, poultry farming, extra tutorial classes and vending. The data pointed to the fact that some were engaged in private home tutoring, running a flea-market stall or having a vending stall. Mrs Gadzirai a teacher from Sungano Primary School said the issue of salary erosion and late or non-payment created by the current socio-political and economic turbulence contributed to all these behaviours and the poverty amongst teachers.

The resigned attitude of most of the teachers was evident on being asked if their ministry was doing enough in preparing them for ethical leadership in the schools, one teacher, Mr Mhuru of Sungano Secondary School, said, "We are happy with what they are doing, enough according to what we are earning from them. They know what they are giving us!"

Furthermore, viewed from the *Virtue* and *Ubuntu* theories, the current Zimbabwean socio-political and economic turbulence left educators impoverished and struggling financially (Mufundikwa, 2010). Hallak and Poisson (2007) lament that, among the many factors that led to corruption were low salaries and poverty among public officials and civil servants, as these forced them to drop their ethics. It thus implies that the more impoverished a country is, the higher the levels of corruption and disregard for ethical leadership practices. Hallak and Poisson (*ibid.*) maintain that such circumstances fuel corruption and unethical conduct among school personnel

THE CASH CRISIS IN BANKS
The study revealed that the cash crisis in the banks created a severe daily dilemma for the school heads and created unethical practices in the schools. Teachers needed to leave the school to access their hard-earned cash, which they could only get in small amounts at a time. The participants indicated that only US$20 could be accessed in a day, from a salary of US$300. The school heads were forced to compromise their ethical position and allow these teachers to be away, yet the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education expected them to be in the schools. Both the school heads and the teachers ended up involved in unethical conduct, one participant, Mrs Moto, a teacher from Chifamba High School
 said:

> At times teachers come late for work from the bank, they have to get cash, they have to get money, they have to sustain themselves. They have to wait at the bank instead of exercising their duties at the workplace.

The tone in this statement indicated someone determined to get their money ahead of meeting their obligation at the school. The participants engaged made it clear that they 'have to get cash no matter the consequences.' The school heads had to find ways of accommodating these teachers and in doing

so there arose unethical conduct. The school heads and heads of departments were also caught up in this challenge, where one would also want to go to the bank to access money. They ended up, according to the findings, drawing up rosters for being absent from the school. Though unethical, it was a survival technique. One of the participants openly stated that while they value ethics, the situation on the ground demanded survival and not ethics.

Here, the findings on the ground seemed to be indicating that, when a person was confronted with two situations, professional ethics versus survival, people followed survival strategies at the expense of ethics. A study by Hester, Joseph and Kilian (2010) states that people's actions in organisations get driven by a balance between meeting personal and organisational values and needs. Once the scale tilts too much at the expense of personal values and needs, then ethics suffer significantly as individuals are forced to do things that serve their interests at whatever cost. Msipa (2016) says a lack of ethical leadership among the top political leaders of Zimbabwe led to the death of ethics in all public institutions. Unless this is corrected, there is bound to be a further downward drift, worsening an already dire situation.

Non-payment of Fees and Levies and other Forms of Funding
The study findings suggested that very little or no funding at all came into the case schools and there was a severe shortage of resources. When conducting the focus group interview for the teachers at Chifamba High School, one of the researchers wanted to close the door to create some privacy and reduce noise from outside, but there was no door. Also, when the researcher remarked on this, all four teachers laughed. Only then ere other signs of dilapidation around us noticed, such as broken windowpanes, floors with holes and chalkboards that were crying for paint and renewal. There was consensus amongst all the participants engaged, that the education funding structures for schools had collapsed and the schools were in challenging circumstances. This scenario triggered a lot of unethical practices among the teachers. Mr Ngwarai, had this to say on the issue of lack of funding:

> Yes, the situation is affecting the parents' ability to pay fees, so most of the students are not paid up. Moreover, the school is expected to use the money to function. Other expenses are mandatory, like affiliations to organisations like NASH (National Association for Secondary Heads). The school is failing to purchase essential equipment and materials, for the proper delivery of lessons and proper functioning of the school, so, it has a bad effect on the school.

These circumstances may seem not to have a bearing on ethical practices if viewed from the surface, but when one goes beyond that, it becomes clear that lack of resources was the trigger for a variety of unethical practices. The inactivity of teachers while at the school, their frustration and

demoralisation, their absconding from derelict school environments and their failure to give learners work were all a result of a lack of resources. Most of the absenteeism from work could be attributed to the desolate conditions in the schools. According to Mr Musa, the School Head of Makore Primary School, they had a staff contingent of 60 and an enrolment of 2 025 learners. When asked how they were faring regarding resources, he said:

> This is a very big challenge, a very big challenge and an issue of real concern. Resources are very limited and the school is massive, one would expect resources associated with such an institution, but it is the opposite. Directly opposite in the sense that we have got fees and levies, it is not much given the situation because our school is a government school, it is $5 (about R75) and the SDC levy is $20 (about R300) per child per term. Now the pattern in payment is pathetic; it is just pathetic because we have some parents that have gone for five, or six years having paid nothing.

(Mr Musa, School Head, Makore Primary)

It emerged that there were only 15 tablets for a school of over 2 000 learners. Again, these tablets were a donation from Econet Wireless. In the same vein, Mr Davirai., also a teacher from Makore Primary School, said:

> Textbooks, furniture, classrooms, workloads. We have got hot sitting and we teach under trees, can you imagine, if a snake falls, can you imagine the disaster? And the pupils will be sitting on the ground while you sit on a chair, you feel sorry for them when it's raining or cold and no students are allowed to be sent home for not paying fees. So, we have cases where learners only paid once when they joined the school.

According to Mubvumbi (2016), the numerous changes made by the then Minister of Education, Lazarus Dokora, were not good for ethical leadership in the schools, let alone the education system in Zimbabwe for. According to his argument, all meaningful changes require a lead time and adequate resources. These have not been put in place at all in the Zimbabwean context. A case in point is the new emphasis on science education and technical subjects. Good as it may be, there are no resources in the majority of schools to equip laboratories and the practical subjects' tools and equipment. As a result, teachers and learners end making do with the little they have. Suffice it to say teachers would be forced to cheat and fabricate marks for practical subjects because the materials would not have been there to do the correct thing. Where resources were lacking, as the data suggested, changing the curriculum would result in severe ethical malpractices.

CONCLUSION
Indications from the study were that school heads were still trying to save the situation, but they were carrying too heavy a load, as the teachers were exhibiting a resigned mood. The heads were still optimistic, like Mr Musa, the Head of Makore Primary, who had a teacher establishment of 60 and 2 025 learners, most of whose lessons were conducted under the trees. The scenario of the *ubuntu* theory is relatable, where society continues to hope

and labour to bring about change and invest in next generations. The tenets of *virtue, ubuntu* and attuned leadership, where the interests of the nation should come before of personal gains and human greed can be referral points. However, restoring the economy and dealing with the non-availability of cash in the banks, engaging all stakeholders, including the international community, would help rescue the current situation.

Based on the research findings, it has emerged that teachers are struggling to balance ethical practices within the current socio-political and economic environment in Zimbabwe. It is, therefore, recommended that serious concerted effort be made, through a multi-faceted stakeholder approach to address the challenges unearthed in the study, which is making ethical practices difficult, if not impossible, in the schools. Some of these issues include: the restoration of funding structures for the schools, engaging the donor community including the NGOs that used to assist schools with funding, restoring the value of the teaching profession, improving the remuneration for teachers and having a Council for Educators.

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EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS A CONDUIT FOR EFFECTIVE BUSINESS LEADERSHIP IN A VOLATILE, UNCERTAIN, COMPLEX AND AMBIGUOUS (VUCA) ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

Emotions are woven into every interaction because they influence how one reacts to challenges and opportunities. They determine whether one collaborates to resolve conflict. As one moves through days, emotions play a role in the amount of effort one demonstrates, what behaviours one display, psychological health and moods. Although most researchers have argued that a leader's emotional intelligence (EI) capability positively influences business performance, this relationship has been studied only at the surface level and not in highly volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous (VUCA) environments. In this study, Goleman's (1998) mixed model of EI and 4I conceptual link between self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship management competencies of leaders' emotional intelligence and learning sub-processes of intuition, interpretation, integration and institutionalisation has been examined. The researchers utilised an integrative literature review as the suitable research methodology. This was made necessary because of the lack of studies (both conceptual and empirical) on the role of the leader's EI and business performance. By conducting a comprehensive search around individual topics of leadership, EI and business performance, the study revealed the missing link between a leader's EI and business performance. It was, therefore, concluded that when it comes to the workplace and especially business, the leader's EI is crucial, and managers and executives are often held responsible for successes and failures.

Keywords: awareness, business performance, mood, coping strategy

INTRODUCTION

This study was aimed at assessing and demonstrating how the four dimensions of emotional intelligence relate to effective leadership. Goleman (1995) noted:

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> People with well-developed emotional skills are also more likely to be content and effective in their lives, mastering the habits of mind that foster their productivity; people who cannot marshal some control over their emotional life fight inner battles that sabotage their ability for focused work and clear thought

The term "emotion" specifies affective component while "intelligence" indicates cognitive component (Kanesan and Fauzan, 2019). According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), emotional intelligence is a person's capability to perceive, express, understand, use and manage emotions in oneself, personal intelligence and in others, social intelligence, which leads to adaptive behaviour consequently, resulting in effective leadership.

The capacity to foster others' "willingness to be persuaded" is a key sign of good leadership (Goleman, 1998). This is a state where the people being led are ready to do something that they may not have otherwise done, or they pick a course of action that serves a purpose. There is a particular sort of leader that almost effortlessly causes others to experience this condition and such leadership is effective in today's business world.

People who answer to their supervisors frequently express the belief that a good leader cares about their followers on an emotional basis. Leaders exhibited emotional intelligence before the phrase "emotional intelligence" became popular. It was a natural propensity for them and the common question that pops into mind is why then is it significant? When a leader demonstrates emotional intelligence by giving their followers the impression that "my boss cares about me", those followers will inevitably be appreciative of their employer. They will also be more committed to the company's vision and goal, remain with the company longer and start acting in ways that are like what they see others doing. This will improve the workplace environment (Adiguzel and Uygun, 2020) and resultantly, this is the kind of effective leadership that today's business sorely needs. Self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management are the four subcomponents that Goleman (1995) identified as constituting emotional intelligence.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The term emotional intelligence was first introduced by Payne in 1985. Payne introduced this term in his doctoral dissertation called "A study of emotion: developing emotional intelligence; self-integration; relating to fear, pain and desire (theory, the structure of reality, problem-solving, contraction/expansion, and tuning in/coming out/letting go)." He brought to light evidence that concludes the mass suppression of emotion throughout the civilised world has muffled human growth emotionally, leading down a path of emotional obliviousness. Therefore, he indicates that many of the problems facing society are directly linked to emotional ignorance: depression, addiction, illness, religious conflict, violence and war. Payne

stresses in his writing that humans, too often, deny their true and emotional nature. He states, "Whatever our motivation, however, we have not done this out of any inherent evil nature. We have done this because we have had the wrong idea altogether about the nature of emotion and the important function it serves in our lives". This is an extremely powerful quote introducing this new term, emotional intelligence. Payne's work offered the following guidance: (1) by raising important issues and questions about emotion; (2) by providing a language and framework to enable us to examine and talk about the issues and questions raised; and (3) by providing concepts, methods and tools for developing emotional intelligence (*ibid.*).

However, Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer coined the term 'Emotional Intelligence' in 1990 describing it as "a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action" (Fianko, Afrifa and Dzogbewu, 2020). Although the term may be new, the elements that make up this term should be familiar. This term still did not become popular until in the later years. It was not until 1996 that an article, "Emotional Intelligence and Emancipation", was published in which a group of women who were supposed to be at low levels of emotional intelligence, rejected their social roles as mentioned (Adiguzel and Uygun, 2020). Yet, anyone acquainted with the term emotional intelligence may inevitably think of the name Goleman.

Goleman, best known for his worldwide bestseller *Emotional Intelligence* (1995), popularised the term "Emotional Intelligence" (Perla, Giovanni and Joel, 2019). Goleman, a psychologist and science writer who has previously written on brain and behavioural research for the *New York Times* discovered the work of Salovey and Mayer in the 1990s (Fianko, Afrifa and Dzogbewu, 2020). Goleman breaks down emotional intelligence into four elements of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. The following bulletin outlines these four dimensions to lay out a clear and precise definition of emotional intelligence and its correlation to leadership.

SELF-AWARENESS
Conscious awareness of one's personality, emotions, motivations and desires are what is meant by the term "self-awareness" (Showry and Manasa, 2014).
> Knowledge about oneself has been viewed as being at the core of both management and human behaviour. In general, self-awareness refers to having accurate and subjective knowledge of one's inner self, including one's personality, mental state, emotions and other mental and physical states (*ibid.*).

To learn more about self-awareness, why leaders need it and how they can improve it, organisational psychologist and author Dr Tasha Eurich studied hundreds of people over the course of many years in rigorous scientific

research. She established that just 10-15% of people are genuinely self-aware, although 95% believe they are. Self-awareness is what she refers to as "the meta-skill of the 21st century, setting the top limit for so many of the skills we need to be successful in the world right now. Things such as communication, influence, emotional intelligence and collaboration" (Jastzabski, 2020). Evolving emotional self-awareness is a vital first step in effective leadership because it lays the groundwork upon which emotional and social intelligence is built. Emotional self-awareness also helps leaders link their emotions to the effectiveness of their interactions with others (*ibid.*), a factor which is important in contemporary business environments.

According to Church (1997), self-awareness is a person's ability to evaluate his/her behaviour and skills. Leaders who make a comprehensive judgment about their proficiencies, are more cognizant of their jobs and interpret how others view them can manage or modify their behaviours which enhances their leadership skills. What Church (*ibid.*) found was that high-performing managers were more managerially self-aware compared to average-performing managers. Taking performance criterion out of the equation, high-performing leaders are more precise in evaluating their workplace behaviours and demonstrate a strong association between self-awareness and awareness of how others see them. Baron and Byrne (1991) explain that self-awareness is an exceptional representation that consists of self-knowledge that individuals possess. This is something more systematised than any other information and profoundly processed. Goleman (1998) describes a leader as someone who is aware of areas that his/her people may fall short but helps followers to develop knowledge and expertise in that area. "According to a study, self-awareness of one's goals, values, beliefs, traits, competencies, time horizons and ways of acting, thinking and feeling, etc. are the self-resources that guide effective leaders" (Showry & Manasa, 2014). Travis Bradberry (Bradberry and Greaves, 2009), author of *Emotional Intelligence 2.0*, describes self-awareness as one of the core components of emotional intelligence. He defines emotional intelligence as the ability to recognise and understand emotions in oneself and others and the ability to use this awareness to manage one's behaviour and relationships. Thus said, it can be argued that a leader who can manage his/her behaviour and relationships is better equipped to navigate the treacherous business environment that leaders face today.

SELF-MANAGEMENT
Since they are the ones who are establishing the norms for those they are guiding, leaders need to control their conduct accordingly. Simply put, being able to control one's emotions is self-management. The objective of self-management, according to Goleman (*ibid.*), is to be able to identify these feelings as a hijack and return the brain to mental clarity and concentrate on the work at hand. It is crucial to develop coping mechanisms so your brain

can accomplish this before reacting to unpleasant feelings (Goleman, 1995). Since leaders serve as role models for others, emotional self-control is essential in a leadership role. Self-management entails assuming accountability for one's actions and well-being (Decker and Cangemi, 2018). Bradberry and Greaves (2009) admit individuals have the power to take control of difficult situations. Bohdi Sanders said "*When you react, you let others control you. When you respond, you are in control.*" This implies that uncontrolled feelings from a boss can have a detrimental effect on staff members as well as attitudes about issues (Eberly and Fong, 2013). Employee behaviours are directly impacted by their superior's emotional condition, claimAshkanasy and Daus (2005). Positive/self-managed emotions in leaders are favourably connected with employee voice behaviour, according to Liu, Song, Li and Liao's (2017) research (Li, Xiao, Wang, He & Wang, 2020). This research is essential for leaders to comprehend since, in addition to upholding the standards for followers, leaders also unquestionably have a significant influence on others' conduct through their emotions, attitudes and behaviours.

Interpersonal emotion regulation (IER) refers to the deliberate and precise actions by which a person pledges, preserves, or changes the manifestation, intensity, or timespan of others' effect and involves the use of strategies to improve or worsen followers' feelings (Niven, Totterdell and Holman, 2009). Vasquez, Niven and Madrid (2020) conducted a study that involved a multisource survey study with a retail organisation in Chile. Employees responded to a survey providing ratings of their leader's IER and their effect. Their findings indicated that leaders' IER had a profound impact on followers' effect. Further their results indicated there was a more distal influence on followers' task performance. "Leader affect-improving IER was positively related to followers' positive affect, which in turn was positively related to their task performance" (Vasquez, Niven and Madrid, 2020). On the contrary, the leader effect worsening IER was positively related to followers' unpleasant feelings. However, they did not find a significant relationship between followers' negative affect and their task performance. (*ibid.*).

An example which shows how emotions affect individuals is that of American Officer Derek Chauvin who is responsible for the death of George Floyd. This was a man in a leadership position who lost complete control of emotions and behaviour which, sadly, cost someone his life. Another example, less extreme, would be in 2009 when Kanye West, an American rapper, lost control and marched onto the stage to snatch singer-song writer Taylor Swift's award because he thought Beyonce, also an American singer and song writer, deserved it. Both are examples of leaders, people that others look up to, that had zero self-management. Leadership is a skill that requires work and practice. One of the main areas that leaders need to have the most

control over is their emotions, which leaders should develop and cultivate. Leaders require the ability to inspire, direct and guide others but control over one's emotions because without such control, then who is going to follow?

SOCIAL AWARENESS

Empathy, service orientation and organisational awareness are some of the components of social awareness (Kanesan and Fauzan, 2019). Social awareness is the ability to recognise other people's emotions accurately and promptly. It also involves observing others' thoughts and feelings without letting your ideas or feelings get in the way. Active listening and observation are suggested by Kanesan and Fauzan (2019) to properly improve these abilities. It takes work to become adept at this patience-testing talent of perceiving others' thoughts and feelings. "A socially aware person uses their ability to understand others' moods and emotions to adapt to various situations while engaging with them" (Kumar et al., 2014).

Social awareness is related to the social relationships and influences within an organisation. The empathy component of this piece gives leaders an awareness of other emotions, concerns and needs. Therefore, the leader can read other emotions and can cue in on nonverbal such as the tone of voice or facial expressions (Cherniss and Goleman, 2001). In terms of service, social awareness is important when it comes to dealing with customers. Someone who is socially aware can understand a customer's requirements and/or concerns. Goleman (1995) emphasizes the importance of this dimension by explaining,

> Insight into group social hierarchies require social awareness on an organisation level not just an interpersonal one. Outstanding performers in most organisations share this ability; to read situations objectively, without distorting the lens of their own biases and assumptions, allows them to respond effectively (Cherniss and Goleman, 2001).

According to Martinovski, Traum and Marsella (2007), social awareness plays a significant role in evolving trust in leader-employee relationships. Furthermore, being an effective leader requires the capability to listen to others' perspectives (Fianko, Afrifa and Dzogbewu, 2020). They further explain that the ability to take the perspective of others means that leaders should be able to *"see the world through other eyes"*. Leaders must obtain empathy to encourage behaviours that are necessary for operative global leadership. The results revealed that perceiving others' state of mind and empathising with them may establish an affective bond that is beneficial for leadership (Fianko, Afrifa and Dzogbewu, 2020). According to Pinos, Twigg and Olson (2006), the social-awareness dimension of emotional intelligence indicates that a heightened state of awareness in a leader's communication abilities is crucial to understanding both the situation and the follower's level of comprehension. Goleman (2001) suggests that out of all the dimensions

of emotional intelligence, empathy is the most easily recognised. Fianko, Afrifa and Dzogbewu (2020) explain that empathy is a critical skill for both getting along with diverse workmates and employees and doing business with people from other cultures.

> Cross-cultural dialogue can easily lead to miscues and misunderstandings. Empathy is an antidote that attunes people to subtleties in body language or allows them to hear the emotional message beneath the words and have a deep understanding of the existence and importance of cultural and ethnic differences (*ibid.*).

RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT

Many researchers believe emotional intelligence has high importance and a positive impact on one's life but even more directly when it comes to leading people (Krén and Séllei, 2021). Emotional intelligence can be examined in connection with interpersonal relations, such as leader-employee relationships. Goleman (1998) describes it as concerning "the skill or adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others.

> Relationship management is considered an integral skill for any successful manager or leader, especially in those cultures that value the behaviours encompassed by the concept of relationship management (Engle and Nehrt, 2011).

Goleman (1995) also breaks out relationship management into competencies:
• Developing others
• Inspirational leadership
• Change catalyst
• Influence
• Conflict management
• Teamwork and collaboration

Krén and Séllei (2021) conducted research that analysed the emotional intelligence of leaders working in successfully performing organisations and the contribution of their emotional intelligence to performance. What they found was aligned with Goleman's theories that "proved that knowing one's own emotions, regulating them, the awareness of others and empathy toward them help leaders to build a positive, inspiring and motivating atmosphere for subordinates." (*ibid.*). In addition, one aspect of relationship management is being capable of building relationships with people that one may not be fond of. Leaders need to maintain a professional relationship with all employees because again, leaders are setting the standards. Leaders who are not able to control their stress transmit their stress to others around them (Kumar et al., 2014) and this can mar the vision and mission which the team may want to achieve, hence EI is significantly important for effective business leadership in a business environment.

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Although the term transformational leadership is not directly captured under the term emotional intelligence, this type of leadership skill has an impact on the relationship management aspect when connecting it to emotional intelligence. Transformational leadership is a leadership style in which leaders encourage, inspire and motivate employees to innovate and create change that will help grow and shape the future success of the company (Hussien and Yesiltas, 2020). This type of leadership focuses on inspiring employees, keeping them motivated and encouraging high communication. This is the most required leadership style in a hyper-turbulent environment and this is why being emotionally intelligent in this type of leadership style is important.

Transformational leadership requires a high level of emotional intelligence because it is the backbone of understanding among individuals, team building, productivity, morale and much more (Kouzes and Posner, 2003). Leaders need to know what motivates and inspires the team to learn to get the most results from their team. To truly understand these concepts, the leader would have to invest a good amount of time into his/her employees. Instead of dictating goals, deadlines and workloads, a transformational leader will help create a vision for the whole team based on the team's ability to perform. This is what transformational leaders provide to their employees with. In turn, this can make employees feel appreciated and worthy and a sense that the leader cares about them which helps create less attrition for the organisation.

According to Alston, Dastoor and Chin-Loy (2016), true leadership matures from those whose main motivation is the deep desire to help others. Bass (1985) introduced a leadership model that outlines the correlation between a follower's success and accomplishments are improved by a transformational leader. The study shows that leaders influence their values and needs and encourage them to work towards more accomplishment than what they considered possible. Further, the follower's attitudes, beliefs and values are altered by the transformational leader to be in line with the attitudes, beliefs and values of the leader and organisation (Alston, Dastoor and Chin-Loy 2016). The followers are also better directed to self-development by a transformational leader and subsequently, to higher stages of success (*ibid.*). Like Goleman's model of emotional intelligence, Bass's (1985) leadership model consists of four dimensions: charisma, inspiration, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation. Over a decade of research, Kouzes and Posner (2003) found that "credibility is the foundation of leadership". They defined leadership as:

> "a relationship that was built from a foundation of trust, which enables leaders and followers to seize opportunities and take risks to effect change within an organisation ultimately influencing organisational effectiveness while fostering corporate sustainability." (*ibid.*).

Leadership is about practice; and a leader that can improve their understanding of the function and influence of emotions in their place of work can successfully instil meaning and impact into their followers (Alston, Dastoor and Chin-Loy, 2016).

Transformational leadership is a leadership style that followers are receptive to and have a positive impact on not only themselves but the organisation. This is important to highlight because to be a transformational leader, one would have high emotional intelligence. This leadership style is primarily focused on relationship management, which is the fourth dimension in Goleman's theory of emotional intelligence.

METHODOLOGY

The research used an integrative literature review as a suitable research methodology. This was necessitated by the lack of studies (conceptual and empirical) on the correlation between EI and effective business leadership. Owing to the absence of a concrete connection between a leader's emotional competency and effective leadership, the researchers found it imperative to build a conceptual link between the two constructs to lay a foundation for further empirical research. That being the case, conceptual restructuring was used to combine the individual literature on the two constructs. During the literature search, two conceptual articles that integrated the 4I framework were found, one with leadership (Berson *et al.*, 2006) and another with power and politics (Lawrence *et al.*, 2005). By conducting a comprehensive search around individual topics of leadership, emotional intelligence and organisational learning, the research established the missing conceptual link between a leader's EI and effective business leadership.

Table 1: The literature search process

Keywords		Databases	Selection criteria
Leadership,	emotional	EBSCOHost, ERIC, ProQuest,	Year range 1995-2020
intelligence,	emotional	Sage ONLINE, Google	Scholarly and peer-
quotient,	emotional	Scholar, Scopus	reviewed only
intelligence,	emotional		Journals, dissertations and
capability,	emotional		books only
competence, organisational			
performance,	team		
building, team learning,			
learning capability			

EVIDENCE FROM THE GROUND

To recapitulate, emotional intelligence is broken down into four dimensions. As previously discussed, it consists of the following: Self–awareness: conscious knowledge of one's character, feelings, motives and desires. It includes gaining an understanding of and insight into one's strengths, qualities, weaknesses, defects, ideas, thoughts, beliefs, ideals, responses, reactions, attitudes, emotions and motivations (Venera, 2019). Self-management: The ability to manage those emotions when one has recognised them. The ability to control impulsive feelings and behaviours, manage your emotions in healthy ways, take initiative, follow through on commitments and adapt to changing circumstances. Also, important to note is self-awareness and being able to recognise one's own emotions and how they impact one's thoughts and behaviour (Goleman, 1995).

Social awareness: The ability to take the perspective of and empathise with others, including those from diverse backgrounds and cultures. The ability to understand social and ethical norms for behaviour and to recognise family, school and community resources and supports (Cherniss and Goleman, 2001). Relationship management: The ability to inspire and influence followers. The ability to communicate effectively and build bonds with individuals. The ability to help followers change, develop and grow (Goleman, 1995). The competencies associated with relationship management are developing others, inspirational leadership, change catalyst, influence, conflict management, teamwork and collaboration.

The four dimensions of emotional intelligence result in effective leadership and provide positive affective states in an organisation. Leaders with emotional intelligence will use these tools at the right time and in an appropriate manner. Such leadership creates an atmosphere of enthusiasm and flexibility, in which people feel invited to innovate and give their best. As a result, such a working climate, given the present realities of the business, gives added value due to the human ingredients essential for organisational performance (Venera, 2019), thus emotional intelligence is a panacea to effective business leadership.

FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS

The purpose of the study was to identify why and how emotional intelligence is correlated to effective leadership. The literature demonstrates that, indeed, the four dimensions of Goleman's (1995) theory on emotional intelligence are crucial to leading others effectively. The research also suggests that leaders who have high emotional intelligence have a more positive impact not only on employees, but also have a positive effect on the whole organisation (Alston, Dastoor and Chin-Loy, 2016). Effective leaders understand the importance emotions play in leadership and the workplace. Leaders with emotional intelligence understand that, not only in terms of

tangible aspects, such as the better results and performances of the organisation and the preservation of values, but also concerning extremely significant intangible elements such as high morale, motivation, devotion and career progression for followers (Venera, 2019). There is certainly a strong association between emotional intelligence and leadership that creates a heightened interest in academia with significant contributions found in the relevant literature.

A study conducted by Hussien and Yesiltas (2020) proved that emotional intelligence has a direct and indirect effect on counterproductive work behaviour and organisational commitment. Their study heavily supported Goleman's (1995) theory that explains the significant impact that emotionally intelligent leaders can have on their followers. It also supported transformational leadership and proved that leaders impact their follower's ability to create a sense of direction beyond the day-to-day work duties, develop a vision for the future and be armed with the ability to manage the relationship through honesty (Hussien and Yesiltas 2020).

DISCUSSION
Through research, as well as scholarly reviews, this conceptual review has provided information about the importance of emotional intelligence in contemporary business environments and the positive impact that it has on leaders. In addition, it has been found that some leaders have characteristics of EI. EI is a set of abilities and skills that allow people to process information about emotions efficiently and precisely. According to the models of EI, an emotionally intelligent individual has abilities related to perceiving, using, understanding and managing emotional information which they then use to effectively lead their teams.

Transformational leadership is the most contemporary and effective way of management and is shown to be greatly dependent on the levels of EI (Yammarino and Artwater, 1993). George (2000) proposes that leaders high in EI can recognise, appraise, predict and manage emotions. In this way, leaders can empower workers and motivate team members. The authors hence argue that "EI of the team leader is important to the effective functioning of the team. The emotionally intelligent team leader also provides a transformational influence over the group and thus in our view a clear picture of effective leadership in today's business world.

Transformational Leadership behaviours have been related to leadership effectiveness and business unit outcomes (Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Waldman *et al.*, 1987). More specifically, Bass (1997) suggests that transformational leaders produce better financial performance than transactional leaders. In addition, Keller (1995) found that certain aspects of transformational leadership make group performance greater. Furthermore, Lowe *et al.* (1996) found

that in most of the studies, transformational leadership behaviours such as charisma, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation are closely related to leadership effectiveness. Another interesting fact is that the success of leaders depends on two factors. On one hand, the success of leaders depends on the interaction that the leader has with group members or their leadership style. On the other hand, it depends on the degree of control that the leader has over certain situations. Additionally, three variables help achieve control in different situations: the leader's relationship with the group, the structure of tasks and the power of the leader (Contingency Theory of Fiedler and Chimers, 1984). This aspect of transformational leadership that makes the group performance greater as the good interaction with the group members or the degree of control of leaders in some situations is also related to EI. Social skills of EI are one of these characteristics that help people to have good relationships with others. EI is "essential to effective team interaction and productivity" (Prati, *et al.*, 2003). Skills such as self-awareness and self-regulation which means having control of emotions, are helpful to face different types of situations in the best way.

Considering all the information, this characteristic as charisma, individual stimulation and other as empathy, which is a characteristic of transformational leadership, also coincides with EI. The information analysed in this review also found that people with high EI are more effective and this may be the reason for the transformational leadership effectiveness because this type of leader possesses EI skills. In addition, emotionally intelligent leaders can improve their empathetic capabilities and influence, motivate, inspire, encourage and persuade their followers, which ultimately can help them climb the leadership ladder themselves (George, 2000).

Transactional leaders are those who are task-motivated. So, they use motivation to begin a task and move ahead to the full completion. To do so, this type of leader needs self-motivation. In this case, they also have EI skills such as self-motivation and self-awareness which explain the relationship between transactional leadership and EI. The fact that such leaders have less emotional intelligence traits than transformational leaders, could explain why some authors argue that in many situations, transformational leaders are more effective and have better performance than transactional leaders.

Fiedler and Chemers (1984) suggest that transactional leadership perform best in situations of high control or low control. In contrast, relationship-motivated leader (transformational) leaders perform best in situations of moderate control. But, according to the literature reviewed, there is no found sufficient evidence of what type of leadership is better than another because it depends on the situation. Effective leadership is required to match the situation to a particular leadership style. But what is clear is that leaders

with a high level of EI are more effective. So, it is true that EI is beneficial and helps leaders to face different situations, both stress and uncertainty. It is shown that leaders who have a high level of EI have better relationships and better teamwork, among other benefits.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

High-quality relationships between leaders and employees have been reported to provide various advantages for organisations, leaders and employees. People want to learn and feel empowered. Empowering leaders to share management responsibilities with their employees, give decision-making authority and express their confidence in the ability of employees to do their jobs autonomously. This will build trust and better relationships throughout the leader's teams. Emotional intelligence in leadership is critical to managing unified, high-performing teams. Emotional intelligence has a direct impact on how leaders communicate with their teams and how their team members interact with them and others on the team. For this reason, employees develop a sense of goodwill towards those leaders who give empowerment and allow employees to not only feel confident in their autonomy but also fairly treated in their important tasks which would indicate they are being led by someone who has high emotional intelligence. Emotionally intelligent leaders and managers know how to manage their emotions and behaviour at work, therefore, fostering a safe environment for exchanging ideas and feedback, productive teamwork and performance, high morale, employee engagement and job satisfaction. Leaders with high emotional intelligence will manage employee and workplace stress and conflict cautiously. As leaders set the example, they are mentoring their team members to do the same.

There were many studies and research on emotional intelligence, specifically the correlation to high-performing organisations. However, there seemed to be a lack of the underlying question of whether or not emotional intelligence does make leaders more effective. Nonetheless, with this research and studies that were out there, it is clear that emotional intelligence does make leaders more impactful, both to the organisation and the people. A common trend established by this research was most people referred to and cited Goleman, as did this research. However, his research could technically be defined as a little outdated. His latest books were written in the early 2000s and the workforce has changed quite a bit since then. For example, even just this past year with the COVID-19 pandemic many people were now working from home. Therefore, the study on social awareness and relationship management within a volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous environment would likely bring new results.

The research and the studies make it abundantly clear that emotional intelligence is so important for leaders to have. Further, it is needed in

leadership for leaders and followers to be effective. The research also proved the significance it plays, not just for leaders and followers, but as an organisation as a whole. Slaski concluded that leaders with higher emotion perception lead teams with a greater sense of voice and togetherness at work (Veshne and Minshi, 2020). Consequently, if leaders can recognise the emotional responses of others and adjust their behaviour accordingly to motivate their team, they will be able to enable trust and collaboration. This can ultimately result in a more beneficial work environment where employees are likely to express their thoughts and sentiments and openly ask questions. The role of a leader is not limited to merely influencing and mentoring their teams, but in parallel being able to establish a connection with their people. Indisputably, for leaders to be effective, they need to be in tune with emotional intelligence.

EI can develop two types of factors: personal factors and social factors. Personal factors are related to the dimensions of emotional self-awareness, self-regulation and motivation. On the other hand, social factors develop empathy, the ability to understand others and social skills that focus on influence, good communication, leadership and teamwork skills among others. Emotions should be considered a source of information (Goleman, 2001). It is good to control what you think to understand emotions because emotion and thought provoke a feeling.

EI can be developed by self-awareness, one of the elements of the mixed model. Self-awareness means being able to control your own emotions in healthy ways. Being able to connect with personal emotions is a key element to understanding how they influence thoughts and actions. Mindfulness practice builds self-awareness and reduces stress. This type of practice consists of focusing attention on the present moment without judging the situation. Being able to appreciate the moment, may help to shift the preoccupation and brings a larger perspective on life. Developing emotional awareness can help to manage stress. Emotional awareness can be developed by learning mindfulness meditation.

Emotional Intelligence can be developed using self-management. When people are overwhelmed by stress, they sometimes lose control of their emotions. Being able to manage emotions could be helpful to make certain constructive decisions. By staying emotionally present and being able to manage stress, people learn to receive all types of information without letting them override their thoughts and self-control. In this way, people will be able to make better choices that allow the control of impulsive feelings and behaviours, manage emotions in healthy ways, take initiative and adapt to changing circumstances that can be present, not only at work but also in daily life.

EI also can be developed by using social awareness. Social awareness is the ability that allows people to understand the nonverbal cues others constantly send. To be able to understand the emotions of others, you will have to know how to suspend your thoughts. This ability will allow people to experience nonverbal cues that change from one moment to the next. It is important to try to pay attention to what you feel and what you experience emotions as you listen to others. Everything that you experience is bringing information about yourself.

Using relationship management also can be helpful to develop EI. Working well with others is important, especially in organisations. This is a process that begins with emotional awareness and the ability to recognise, admit and understand what other people are feeling or experiencing.

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REDUCING ILLICIT FINANCIAL FLOWS TO BOOST DOMESTIC RESOURCE MOBILISATION FOR FINANCING SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA

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Abstract

Illicit financial flows (IFFs) inhibit African development by draining foreign exchange, reducing domestic resources, stifling trade and macroeconomic stability and worsening poverty and inequality. This study focuses on Africa as a recent assessment revealed that Africa lost between US$1.2 and US$1.3 trillion in illicit outflows over the 32 years, 1980-2012. Of great concern is that these figures are almost four times Africa's current external debt and nearly equivalent to its current Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Zimbabwe is not an exception, with IFFs rampant in industries such as mining, especially among artisanal miners who operate clandestinely, avoiding selling their products to the state and evading tax. The rationale for a greater focus on domestic resource mobilisation in Zimbabwe springs from the quest for ever-elusive fiscal consolidation and debt sustainability. However, domestic resource mobilisation cannot succeed without tackling IFFs and other resource leakages through tax evasion and aggressive tax avoidance. According to the Zimbabwe Coalition on Debt and Development (ZIMCODD), the country loses an average of US$276 million annually through IFFs. Motivated by this problem, the study interrogated the challenges and opportunities for curbing these illicit flows to boost domestic resource mobilisation for financing sustainable development in Africa. The study used a desk review and secondary data to explore IFFs and domestic resource mobilisation, with a special focus on the dollarisation period in Zimbabwe. An inadequate regulatory framework, the lack of information and communication technologies facilities, transportation and other relevant infrastructure, , to mention a few, were some of the factors found to be inhibiting the prevention of IFFs. The study concludes that curbing illicit financial flows can help African countries mobilise capital to finance the achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and other national priorities.

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INTRODUCTION

Illicit financial flows (IFFs) and corruption inhibit African development by draining foreign exchange, reducing domestic resources, stifling trade and macroeconomic stability and worsening poverty and inequality (Kar and Spanjers, 2015). These illicit flows rob Africa and its people of their future, undermining transparency and accountability and eroding trust in African institutions. There is a convergence of opinion that Africa has lost more than US$1 trillion to IFFs in the last 50 years and is currently losing more than US$50 billion a year (Kar and Freitas, 2012). IFFs are widespread and covert by nature, hence very difficult to quantify. Integrity (2017) notes that IFFs can be traced back to commercial activities such as tax evasion, trade mis-invoicing and abusive transfer pricing. Other IFFs include drug and human trafficking, illegal arms dealing, contraband, bribery and theft. There is a view that access and deployment of a portion of the funds lost through IFFs could have helped African countries achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015. IFFs reduce and even eliminate expected growth benefits and undermine the development potential in Africa. As an outcome of corruption, particularly so-called 'petty corruption', the negative effects of IFFs are widespread (Integrity, 2019). The pernicious effects of IFFs and their underlying activities are the creation of unfair business practices and the inhibition of competition. From a socio-economic perspective, IFFs wreak widespread damage at many levels, including the erosion of the tax base of affected countries and depriving governments of financial resources needed for public goods, such as education, health and infrastructure (Cobham and Jansky, 2017). Governance structures and public institutions are weakened, with subsequent diminished public trust in the government and low tax morale. These obstacles to economic activity and employment creation may lead the most vulnerable to resort to crime, creating a vicious cycle of corruption and IFFs, inequalities and unemployment (Kar and Spanjers, 2015).

The loss of potential public funds through IFFs within and across countries and the consequent reductions in public sector investments, as well as the amplification of foreign debt burdens, reduce and impair the capacity of states to invest in social sectors vital to sustainable development, particularly health and education, or in human rights terms, the rights to health and education (Integrity, 2019). Unfortunately, regressive taxes, such as consumption taxes and other indirect taxes, which disproportionately affect the incomes of low-income households and their ability to purchase basic goods and access public services, are adopted to compensate for the revenue shortfalls.

According to Jansky (2015), domestic resource mobilisation (DRM) is the foundation for self-sustaining development. Domestic resources are essential in financing domestic investment and social programmes, necessary for economic growth and poverty eradication. Financing for economic growth and poverty reduction is one of the challenges facing the least developed countries (LDCs) (Lebillion, 2011). DRM refers to the savings and investments generated by domestic households, firms and governments. In contrast to mobilising external resources (through foreign direct investment (FDI), aid, trade and debt relief), DRM offers the advantages of greater domestic policy ownership and greater coherence with domestic needs. It does not suffer from the disadvantages associated with external financing, which is tied to the objectives of foreign governments, investors and donors. However, DRM poses apparent challenges in low-income countries, making attracting external resources seem like an easier option. Integrity (2019) suggests that a greater emphasis on DRM can help developing countries enhance their growth and economic performance, increase their policy space and ownership of development strategies and reduce aid dependence, thus achieving sustainable development.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

ILLICIT FINANCIAL FLOWS

The issue of IFFs has increasingly become an integral part, not only of the development agenda of individual states, but also of the global economy (Adekele, 2019). Much of this concern with IFFs coincided with the development community's search for alternative sources of financial assistance for developing countries and the simultaneous surfacing of shocking figures of massive IFFs from the same needy developing countries (Reuter, 2012). This heightened concern with IFFs has also been triggered by fears of the potential to finance terrorism through money laundering networks (Goredema and Botha, 2004). Global Financial Integrity (GFI) (2010) defines IFFs as money that is illegally earned, transferred, or utilised. If it breaks laws in its origin, movement or use, it merits the label. The activities from which the money is derived are, more often than not, in violation of "the national criminal and civil codes, tax laws, customs regulations, value-added tax (VAT) assessments, exchange control requirements, or banking regulations" (Kuditchar, 2021).

There are four ways of externalising funds illegally: corruption (bribery and theft by government officials); criminal (drug trafficking, racketeering, counterfeiting); tax evasion through trade mispricing; and smuggling (often difficult to measure). It is argued that IFFs are channelled outside countries mainly through external accounts and trade mispricing (mis-invoicing of international trade transactions with the ultimate purpose of diverting financial resources) (Adekele, 2019).

Type of IFF	Description
Tax and commercial IFFs	These include illegal practices such as tariff, duty and revenue offences, tax evasion, corporate offences, market manipulation and other selected practices. Some activities that are non-observed, hidden or informal, or part of the so-called shadow, underground or grey economy may also generate IFFs. The practices are typically motivated by increasing profits and avoiding taxes (Chamisa, 2019).
IFFs from corruption	The United Nations Convention against Corruption (UNCAC) defines acts considered as corruption in the International Classification of Crime for Statistical Purposes. They include bribery, embezzlement, abuse of functions, trading in influence, illicit enrichment and other acts. When these acts, directly or indirectly, generate cross-border flows, they are counted as IFFs (Chamisa, 2019).
IFFs from corruption	Theft-type activities are non-productive activities that entail a forced, involuntary and illicit transfer of economic resources between two actors (Chamisa, 2020). Examples include theft, extortion, illicit enrichment and kidnapping. In addition, the financing of terrorism or crime involves the illicit, voluntary transfer of funds between two actors to fund criminal or terrorist actions. When the related financial flows cross country borders, these activities constitute IFFs. IFFs from illegal markets.

DOMESTIC RESOURCE MOBILISATION

According to Chamisa (2020), domestic resource mobilisation (DRM) is the process through which countries raise and spend their funds to provide for their people. It is the long-term path to sustainable development finance. DRM not only provides governments with the funds needed to alleviate poverty and deliver public services but is also a critical step on the path out of aid dependence. The rationale for a greater focus on domestic resource mobilisation in Zimbabwe springs from the quest for fiscal consolidation and debt sustainability, both of which have been notoriously elusive in recent years (Barasa, 2018).

Domestic resource mobilisation comprises the financial and fiscal accruals generated within a domestic economy. It consists of taxes on personal and corporation incomes, goods and services, as well as non-tax revenues such as social security contributions, commission on natural resource extraction, property income, dividends from state enterprises, tourism income, domestic savings, domestic credits, user fees, fines, interest, royalties, licences, rents, penalties, forfeits and sale of goods and services as well as other kinds of levies collected by the government from citizens, resident non-citizens and local businesses (Ncube and Okeke, 2015).

There is little debate among scholars, researchers and policymakers that effective domestic resource mobilisation leads to greater policy ownership and increased policy space, resulting in better matching of capital investment and development strategies to domestic needs (Ncube and Okeke, 2015; Barasa, 2018; Chamisa, 2020). As such, DRM has the potential to provide what Goredema (2019) refers to as decolonial finance, which could reduce Zimbabwe's dependency on debt financing from multilateral institutions such as the World Bank Group, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the European Investment Bank and the African Development Bank. Besides responding to the Euro-Western creditors, greater domestic capital mobilisation may also liberate the country from the conceptual envelope of the Sino-Zimbabwe neo-imperialist trap that is dominated by Beijing's debt book diplomacy (Parker and Chefitz, 2018). In this regard, the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) was right when it observed that "domestic resources bring about a sense of patriotism and ownership of development policies and outcomes unlike foreign aid that comes with conditionalities, constraining a country's ability to manoeuvre and adopt policies that are consistent with its national development goals" (COMESA, 2015).

SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA

Although Africa is relatively rich in natural resources, development strategies pursued on the continent have not always been in harmony to ensure decent living conditions for the population and maintain a high level of environmental quality (Moyo, 2019). Sustainable development may be described as a process of change in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development, and institutional change are made consistent with future and present needs. It is a vector of development characteristics that should be non-decreasing over time and embrace wider concerns of quality of life. The achievement of development goals remains unfinished business for African countries, and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), fit accurately with Africa's priorities for the next 15 years. The future of growth and its impact on poverty reduction in Africa hinges on what happens to structural transformation (*ibid.*). A new development trajectory of structural transformation is required to improve productivity as Africa industrialises. A huge investment in infrastructure, especially energy, and improvement in labour productivity, is needed to fit the needs of manufacturing and agro-based industries.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Drivers of IFFs have been examined in the literature (Kar and Leblanc, 2013; Kar and Spanjers, 2014; 2015; Nnadozie *et al.,* 2017) and include macroeconomic variables (budget deficits, inflation and inflationary expectations), structural aspects such as the impact of trade openness and

rapid economic growth on income distribution, and governance-related issues.

INITIATIVES TO CURB IFFs

Given the severe potential impacts of IFFS on African and global economies, various measures at the global, continental, regional and national levels have been taken to address the phenomenon (AUC/ECA, 2015; Nnadozie *et al.*, 2017; Spanjers and Salomon, 2017). These include:

i.   Automatic exchange of tax information aimed at sharing information on financial transactions and assets of non-residents;

ii.   Anti-money laundering laws which criminalise money laundering, or the movement of proceeds of criminal activity through legitimate financial systems;

iii.   Disclosure of 'beneficial ownership' of shell companies to government officials;

iv.   Anti-bribery and corruption conventions to monitor, report and punish bribery and corruption;

v.   Country-by-country reporting whereby companies report income and other financial indicators for each country in which they operate, enabling tax authorities and the public to hold them accountable; and

vi.   Monitoring tax, transfer pricing and profit shifting to ensure that multinational corporations do not shift profits and avoid taxes in developing countries

At the continental (African) level, the High-Level Panel on Illicit Financial Flows from Africa established in 2011 has received a lot of attention while raising awareness of the strategic importance of IFFs and related issues. Under the auspices of the African Union Commission (AUC), various conventions such as the Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption and the Yaoundé Declaration on Combating Illicit Financial Flows from Africa have been adopted but, unfortunately, not yet ratified by all African countries (Kar and Spanjers, 2014). Other Africa-specific initiatives include the African Tax Administration Forum (ATAF) and the Collaborative African Budget Reform Initiatives (CABRI) aimed at ensuring sound budgeting as well as improving the efficacy of tax legislation and administration in Africa. However, both initiatives are yet to have full membership in all African countries (Kar and Leblanc, 2013). The African Organisation of Supreme Audit Institutions (AFROSAI) and the African Organisation of Public Accounts Committees (AFROPAC), focusing on external financial control and auditing and legislative oversight, respectively, are also worth mentioning.

Regional initiatives aimed at curbing IFFs in Africa include the Middle East and North Africa Financial Action Task Force against Money Laundering and

Terrorism Financing and the Eastern and Southern Africa Anti-Money Laundering Group (Nnadozie *et al.*, 2017). At the country level, national task forces have been established to facilitate the development of robust and effective anti-money laundering programmes through education and sensitisation campaigns. ACBF (2015) shows that many countries have put in place initiatives to optimise tax revenues and reduce inefficiencies such as tax exemptions. For example, in Tanzania, electronic fiscal devices (EFDs) were introduced as a measure of improving revenue collection (Chamisa, 2020). The Zimbabwe Revenue Authority (ZIMRA) also introduced the same in Zimbabwe in June 2020 through Statutory Instrument (SI) 10 of 2010.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
The study adopted qualitative secondary data analysis. Although secondary data would have been collected for a different purpose, it is a viable option for researchers with limited time and resources (Latham, 2007). The study is mainly analytical, predicated upon secondary information collected from various publications, reports, periodicals, books, theses, journals, newspapers and websites (Creswell and Creswell, 2017). The data were analyzed through content analysis.

RESULTS
Over the course of 30 years, from 1980 to 2012, Africa lost between US$1.2 and US$1.3 trillion in illicit outflows. The prevalence of IFFs in sectors like mining, particularly among artisanal miners who operate covertly, avoiding selling their goods to the government and paying tax, is not an exception in Zimbabwe. The nation loses an average of US$276 million per year due to illicit money flows, according to the Zimbabwe Coalition on Debt and Development (ZIMCODD). IFFs are pervasive and covert by nature, making it highly challenging to quantify them.

IFFs have been linked to business practices such as tax evasion, trade mis-invoicing and unfair transfer pricing. Drug and human trafficking, illegal armed trade, sale of illegal goods, bribery and theft are examples of other IFFs. IFFs lessen, if not completely erase, anticipated growth gains and limit Africa's capacity for development. The development of unfair business practices and the restraint of competition is the destructive repercussions of IFFs and the activities that support them. The development community's hunt for other sources of financial aid for developing countries and the simultaneous disclosure of stunning numbers of enormous IFFs from the same impoverished developing countries contributed significantly to this concern about IFFs. Fears that money laundering networks could be used to fund terrorism also led to the creation of IFFs.

There are four ways to illegally externalise cash, these being corruption, criminal activity, tax evasion through trade mispricing and smuggling. To

combat this issue, numerous steps have been adopted at the international, continental, regional and state levels. A few measures have been launched in Africa to stop this. These include the automatic exchange of tax data to share data on non-residents' financial transactions and assets. IFFs can be controlled by anti-money laundering regulations that make it illegal to launder money or shift the proceeds of criminal conduct via the legal financial system. Transparency can be used by nations to make sure that government authorities are informed of the "beneficial ownership" of shell corporations. There must be conventions against bribery and corruption to keep track of, report and punish such behaviour. Companies should record their income and other financial indicators for each country in which they conduct business, allowing tax authorities and the general public to hold them accountable. To prevent multinational firms from moving earnings and evading taxes in developing nations, tax, transfer pricing and profit shifting are monitored.

CASE STUDIES

EGYPT

Among African countries, Egypt ranks first in terms of the magnitude of illicit flows. IFFs from Egypt are estimated to have reached US$105.2 billion, constituting 14.7%of the total illicit outflows from Africa (UNECA, 2014). Egypt ranked third in Africa, after Nigeria and South Africa, for the exportation of illicit capital from 1980 to 2009 (ABD & GFI, 2017). It also dominated the North African illicit out-flows ranking, followed by Algeria and Libya (*ibid*. pp.25-27). Together, Egypt and Algeria account for 66%of the illicit outflows from North Africa (UNECA, 2014). Despite their substantial magnitude, as indicated by these figures, attempts to measure Egyptian illicit outflows remain incapable of capturing the full picture. Difficulties associated with tracking capital outflows during political turmoil and accounting for 'legalised' corruption where illicit capital was not necessarily illegally earned, transferred, or utilised as per the definition of illicit outflows, complicate the measurement. The literature reviewed suggests that illicit outflows continue to render efforts towards poverty alleviation, human rights and economic recovery ineffective, especially after the events of the 2011 Arab Spring. The primary source of illicit outflows in Egypt is traded mis-invoicing motivated by a desire to evade or reduce taxes. Trade mis-invoicing alone contributed to the loss of over US$25 billion over the period 2005 – 2014, with an annual average of US$2.5 billion (GFI, 2017). Another major source of illicit outflows is political mistrust or instability. As shown in Table 1, Egyptian illicit financial flows peaked in 2008 (US$6 billion) and 2011 (US$5 billion), periods characterised by political apprehension and instability.

ETHIOPIA

According to GFI estimations, between 2005 and 2014, an estimated average of between US$1259 million and US$3153 million left Ethiopia as IFFs every year. Additionally, Alemayehu and Addis (2017) estimate that the levels of capital flight from the country, which include IFFs, have led to an average loss from illicit capital of 2.2 percentage points per year for the case of Ethiopia. They also estimate that had it not been for capital flight, poverty would have been reduced by about 2.5 percentage points in the last decade (*ibid.*). Data from Global Financial Integrity shows that between 55% and 80% of the illicit financial outflows leaving Ethiopia originate from trade mis-invoicing, which amounts to an estimated 6% to 23% of the total value of the country's trade. The report, 'Illicit Financial Flows from Developing Countries over the Decade Ending 2009', reveals that corruption, crime, terrorism and tax evasion fuelled the rise in illicit financial flows from Ethiopia. The channels/mechanisms through which they are transferred from one country to another can range in sophistication from cash smuggling and remittance transfers to trade finance and shell companies. Because of the complex nature of the phenomenon and its cross-sectoral nature, a wide range of policies and actions are needed to combat IFFs. Generally, Ethiopia has very strict laws that are meant to prevent money laundering within the country and IFFs out of the country, but their effect has been limited and concerns that illicit outflows might impact government revenues and weaken governance in the country remain (Yimer, 2017).

KENYA

Kenya continues to lose millions of dollars annually as the military, police, the Kenya Revenue Authority (KRA) officials, individuals and corporations stash illegally acquired funds in highly secretive foreign banks abroad. This has resulted in IFFs accumulating to over US$10.6 billion since 1970, making Kenya one of the worst, if not the worst, offenders among Africa's non-resource-endowed countries. It is estimated that Kenya has been losing an average of KES 40 billion every year through illicit financial flows since 2011 as government, local firms and multinationals engage in fraudulent schemes to avoid tax payments. This synthesis brings together the evidence on IFFs and interrogates common themes, practices and policies on IFFs and associated tax reforms to tackle IFFs in Kenya.

The Kenyan government has responded by introducing additional laws intended to tighten access to foreign currency for the private sector and by rationing foreign currency. In some instances, the government has even suspended access to foreign currency for the private sector and also for government projects that have less priority in the country's development strategy. This creates additional problems rather than solutions as illicit outflows continue to grow, according to available data. Foreign currency rationing promotes the emergence of the black market and foreign currency

smuggling (Yimer, 2017). Kenya has enacted the Prevention and Suppression of Money Laundering and Financing Terrorism Proclamation No. 780/2013 to ensure healthy financial transactions. However, as the title indicates, this proclamation focuses on controlling the financing of terrorism and money laundering within the jurisdiction of the country, with very little focus on illicit financial outflows from Kenya. The proclamation does not treat illicit outflows independently except for money laundering and financing of terrorism.

SOUTH AFRICA
In South Africa, tax evasion through IFFs occurs mainly through mis-invoicing, transfer pricing, contraband, corruption and human and drug trafficking. IFFs take many forms, including grand corruption scandals involving illicit money transfers by the ruling elite since independence. Multinational corporations (MNCs) who dodge income tax on the hefty pay perks for their expatriates through mis-invoicing and transfer pricing are also to blame. Reviewed evidence points to severe implications of IFFs on South Africa's economic, social and political development agenda. The practice of illegally hiding income from tax authorities and sending it abroad impedes government domestic resource mobilisation efforts. Some government-guaranteed loans flow immediately and directly into foreign private accounts, exacerbating government debt and dependency on foreign aid. The resultant reduction in government revenue and subsequent decline in public social expenditure comprises health and education outcomes.

South Africa has adopted several initiatives to tackle IFFs, including joining global regimes against IFFs such as the Global Forum on Transparency and Exchange of Information for Tax Purposes, the Base Erosion and Profit Shifting Project (BEPS) and the Multilateral Convention on Mutual Administrative Assistance in Tax Matters. The country has also established several legal and administrative frameworks and requirements. However, these frameworks have not been effective due to the lack of enforcement. The main institutions mandated to fight IFFs in South Africa, the central bank, revenue authority and national treasury, face numerous challenges that limit their effectiveness. Such challenges include the vulnerability of the country's financial sector to ill-intentioned investors attracted by its strategic position in the region; weak inter-agency cooperation between the financial sector regulators, law enforcement agencies and the financial institutions; weak laws and internal controls governing financial institutions; and limited engagement with international bodies tackling IFFs.

ZIMBABWE
In Zimbabwe, the Zimbabwe Anti-Corruption Commission (ZACC), through the National Anti-Corruption Policy (NACP), is implementing the Integrity Committee Initiative to fight corruption. The Integrity Committees are

'watchdog' units within public and private organisations tasked with dealing with complaints from the public and referring them to appropriate authorities. They also monitor and investigate suspicious behaviour, enforce service delivery standards and promote internal policies to combat corruption.

The Zimbabwe Revenue Authority (ZIMRA) has implemented a series of anti-smuggling measures to curb tax evasion and avoidance, especially on imported goods. Examples of such measures include a 24-hour border patrol (by a paramilitary unit operated by ZIMRA) at main border points and the implementation of a Revenue Authority Digital Data Exchange (RADDEX) system to provide cargo details in a standardised electronic format – minimising data errors and saving time. The anti-smuggling measures are partially credited with the reduction in tax evasion.

CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH COMBATING IFFS
Challenges in tackling IFFs in the African context as identified by Nnadozie *et al.* (2017) include inadequate regulatory framework; the lack of information and telecommunication facilities, transportation and other relevant infrastructure; inadequate funding and over-reliance on unpredictable foreign assistance; the duplication and overlapping of functions and lack of coordination among different agencies; and the lack of technical and human capacity to deal with sophisticated crime.

INADEQUATE REGULATORY FRAMEWORK
Evidence shows that bad governance, weak and corrupt regulatory structures, poorly structured double taxation treaties, criminality, tax expenditures, banking secrecy and tax havens and lack of social cohesion, which provide unpatriotic partners for those abetting IFFs, are the major drivers of IFFs in Zimbabwe and Africa at large (Ncube and Okeke, 2015).

LACK OF INFORMATION AND TELECOMMUNICATION FACILITIES, TRANSPORTATION AND OTHER RELEVANT INFRASTRUCTURE
Africa's infrastructure requirements range from US$130 to US$170 billion per annum, far higher than the long-accepted figure of US$93 billion a year, thus leaving a financing gap of as much as US$108 billion (Saungweme, 2019).

DUPLICATION, OVERLAPPING OF FUNCTIONS AND LACK OF COORDINATION AMONG DIFFERENT AGENCIES
In many African countries, regulatory agencies and institutions have been established with responsibilities that cut across various dimensions of IFFs. For example, various institutions and agencies created to tackle IFFs and related issues in Nigeria, have not produced any remarkable results, partly due to lack of coordination (Goredema, 2018).

LACK OF TECHNICAL AND HUMAN CAPACITY TO DEAL WITH CRIME PERPETUATED BY SOPHISTICATED INDIVIDUALS

Evidence shows that most African countries, Zimbabwe included, lack an adequate stock of qualified forensic statisticians, investigators and financial crime prosecutors. They also lack state-of-the-art technology and equipment for collecting, processing and storing specialised information on financial crime (Integrity, 2017). Human capacity has to do with sufficient skills for the assessment, formulation and implementation of IFFs-specific policies and measures, as well as for monitoring, reporting and reviewing the same. Kuditchar (2021) shows that most countries (31 of 42) surveyed for the Africa Capacity Report, indicated that their tax administration was either understaffed or moderately staffed, with only 10 adequately staffed. Inadequate capacity is also reflected at various other levels, such as the lack of accurate data and up-to-date information and poor understanding of the various mechanisms associated with IFFs-related transactions (Chamisa, 2019).

Adeleke (2019) also noted that IFFs and the activities that create them, notably corruption, are major scourges in Africa. To eradicate these ills impeding sustainable development in Africa and, especially the implementation of Agenda 2063 and attainment of the SDGs, a common African strategy with efficient monitoring and evaluation mechanisms is necessary. In implementing its methodology, the APRM has, since it was established in 2003, reviewed 23 African Union member countries participating in the mechanism. These evaluations indicate that a lack of governance is the root cause of IFFs and the illegal activities that spawn them. The lack of political will to implement the recommendations of anti-corruption agencies and commissions of enquiry, inadequate financial, human, technological and logistical capacities in various agencies charged with the responsibility of fighting corruption; inherent weaknesses in public procurement systems, and weak information management systems without a coordinated tracking and information sharing mechanism, are the challenges being faced.

LINKS BETWEEN IFFS AND DOMESTIC RESOURCE MOBILISATION

The ever-increasing interest in IFFs has led to the production of a large body of literature on the subject (Dyreng *et al.*, 2015). The same interest is also attributable to the effects of IFFs on the level of development of different countries (Herkenrath, 2014; Epaphra, 2015; Ortega *et al.*, 2017). Most striking is the effect they have on public bodies. According to Kar and Cartwright-Smith (2010), those capital outflows, which could have been spent on public service expenditures, undermine economic development in poor countries. Not only do IFFs have a direct impact on public service delivery, but they also threaten the stability and credibility of a country's financial system and its institutions (Fontana, 2010). Regarding the

relationship between IFFs and public revenues, the existing literature is unanimous on the fact that the former constitutes an obstacle to resource mobilisation and wealth creation (Ayadi, 2008; Ritter, 2015).

Moreover, some studies suggest that they erode the tax base (Ajayi, 1997). Empirical studies conducted in several African countries have indicated that the public debt burden would disappear if IFFs were stopped (Fofack and Ndikumana, 2015). Ndikumana (2009) found that illicit capital flight affected a country's budget balance by reducing its tax base through a contraction of its economic activity.

Corruption and illicit financial flows (IFFs) are major hindrances to governance, sustainable development and democracy, as they break down opportunities for transparency, transformation and the growth of good democratic policies, practices and institutions (Herkenrath, 2014; Ortega *et al.*, 2017). Domestic resource mobilisation has become crucial in Africa due to increasingly urgent infrastructure needs and social demand. Low-income countries will need to increase their annual public expenditure by 30% of the GDP to achieve the SDGs (Baum *et al.*, 2017). Africa also has other sources and strategies for mobilising adequate resources (Ortega *et al.*, 2017). Efforts should therefore be intensified at the country level to mobilise further national resources, thereby overcoming dependence on foreign aid. Africa must seek to improve the use of its available financial resources through a real improvement in the efficiency of public spending and good management of financial resources.

DISCUSSION
Combating IFFs requires a wide range of actors to design and implement different (albeit mutually reinforcing) policies and actions at various levels of government. The various actors have different stakes, with some of them implicated as perpetrators, while others are actively engaged in combating the scourge (AUC/ECA, 2015; ACBF and AfDB, 2018). UNODC and OECD (2016) advance that law enforcement and customs authorities need to increase awareness while the financial sector and vulnerable sectors need to take preventive measures. It is important to have transparency in corporate structures, with deliberate actions taken to promote public sector integrity and support asset recovery.

African countries are in one way or another implementing policies to combat IFFs and thereafter mobilise more resources to address their development challenges. Measures such as transfer pricing legislation and the training of staff to conduct forensic audits, have been introduced in Zimbabwe. Several African governments have liberalised their financial sectors and focused on product innovations and financial inclusion (ACBF, 2015). Some examples of strategies and initiatives on IFFs include the integration of revenue

collection agencies in one coherent institution (for example, Ghana, Togo and Zimbabwe); the optimisation of revenue collection from the mining sector and the introduction of presumptive taxes on informal activities (whereby indirect methods are used to determine tax liability rather than rules based on the accounts of taxpayers, for example, Zambia, Zimbabwe); and the implementation of anti-smuggling measures to curb tax evasion and avoidance.

Drawing on the findings, countries need to establish appropriate rules and regulations while enhancing the capacity of institutions in the IFFs value chain. The rules and regulations must encompass sound public financial management which is integral to the process of preventing IFFs and ensuring that recovered resources are allocated towards development priorities. Moreover, it is important to:
   i.   have legal system reforms, especially where the laws are inadequate, or the systems poorly functioning;
  ii.   reduce crime and criminal activities of all kinds;
 iii.   undertake reforms in the areas of taxation, banking and capital markets;
  iv.   have flexible yet effective laws and regulations to curb IFFs; and
   v.   work more on tax reforms that will ensure tax harmonisation and a move away from tax exemptions, concessions and holidays.

Another critical component of the capacity-building efforts would be to strengthen the capacities of key continental, regional and national institutions to effectively combat IFFs. Targeted institutions include the AUC and its organs, especially those dealing with legal, audit, tax and parliament-related issues will play a great role at the regional level in the IFFs value chain; and national tax administration and revenue authorities. Equally important is the need to foster visionary leadership, mindset change and soft capacities. A transformative, visionary, committed and accountable leadership that sets the right tone at the top is a key ingredient. While there is need for positive social norms, values and practices against IFFs, the ability and willingness to learn from experience are equally important.

CONCLUSION
Curbing illicit financial flows can help African countries mobilise capital to finance the attainment of SDGs and other national priorities. Reducing these outflows can increase the stock of capital available — for building the productive capacity of business and stimulating job creation. Increased tax revenues can provide governments with additional fiscal space to invest in infrastructure, spend on poverty reduction programmes, or assist citizens during emergencies, such as the COVID-19 pandemic. Policymakers at the national, regional and international levels should consider the following recommendations:

- Revenue authorities, policymakers and researchers need to treat wide and persistent trade gaps for a commodity group as "red flags" for further investigation. Government should engage the private sector and obtain transaction-level data for use in analysing the sources of the macro-level gaps which may be indicative of illicit behaviour;
- African governments need to invest in trade data collection infrastructure and capacity building of port, customs and tax authorities personnel to improve data collection and analysis. Such steps will improve the detection and investigation of IFFs and the ultimate prosecution of the highly elusive perpetrators;
- There is also need to accelerate progress on tax reporting and strengthen domestic regulatory frameworks drawing lessons from best practices and model treaties and contracts. Institutions such as financial intelligence units, anti-fraud agencies, customs and border agencies, revenue agencies, anti-corruption agencies and financial crime agencies should be strengthened or established, if not already in existence;
- Mechanisms for information sharing and coordination among the various institutions responsible for preventing IFFs should be developed, such coordination being championed by the country's financial intelligence unit (FIU);
- Adoption of multi-stakeholder oversight of the exploitation and trade of natural resources through joining voluntary initiatives such as the Extractive Industries Transparency Initiative (EITI) while pushing for mandatory country-by-country and project-by-project reporting requirements in the extractive sectors (immediately) and across all sector (medium to long term);
- Given that private sector commercial activities are by far the largest contributors to IFFs, robust bank supervision regimes by central banks and other financial supervision agencies such as mandatory reporting of transactions that may be linked to IFF activities, should be prioritised;
- There is need to publish taxes paid as part of corporate social responsibility reporting; and
- Civil society organisations (media, non-governmental organisations, academia and think tanks) can play a critical role in the fight against IFFs by:
  - promoting more dialogue on tax-related issues and efforts at curbing IFFs; demanding transparency and accountability in multinational corporations and tax authorities' operations; monitoring performance indicators to assess the progress made in fighting IFFs and advocating for information exchange.

- Advocating for government accountability to taxpayers on utilisation of public funds and transparency in the granting management of tax incentives to ensure that they serve the best interests of countries.
- Supporting government delegations with research evidence and expertise during international negotiations, consultations and meetings. This also requires that governments embrace collaboration with civil society organisations (CSOs) on this front as public institutions usually lack capacity in research and negotiation skills, resulting in receiving raw deals that never benefit the citizenry.

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MEASURES TO REDUCE SECONDARY SCHOOL HIGH DROPOUT RATE OF THE GIRL-CHILD IN MARGINALISED RURAL COMMUNITIES IN ZIMBABWE: THE CASE OF BINGA DISTRICT

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Abstract

This article explores and discusses measures to reduce the secondary school digh dropout rate of the girl-child in marginalised rural communities of the Binga District in Zimbabwe. It plugs the gap in literature that, besides secondary education being a fundamental human right with far-reaching benefits for girls and women, its successful completion is one of the measures for quality learning which the study acknowledges. For methodology, the study engaged the qualitative approach. Data was collected using focus group discussions, individual key–informant interviews, observations, photographs, as well as documents and records. Six critical issues, long and daring walking distances; substandard school infrastructure and furniture; subject teacher profile and high turnover; cultural and religious practices; impoverished backgrounds and menstrual hygiene management, among other issues, were noted as deep-rooted barriers to girl child's successful completion of secondary education in Binga District. The study concluded that dropout threats that played havoc with girl child's successful completion of secondary education were historically institutionalised among the marginalised communities of Binga District. Thus, this study evokes all stakeholders' political will and review of policies, supported by beneficiary-originated targeted affirmative action mitigation measures, to effectively curb the girl child's institutionalised secondary school dropout rate in Binga District, Zimbabwe.

Keywords: secondary education; threats to education

INTRODUCTION

In Zimbabwe, secondary school education is a four-year programme culminating in the Ordinary Level Certificate. Secondary education is stipulated as the minimum employment qualifications in any field of commerce and industry, whether in public or private enterprises. It forms the bedrock of all higher tertiary educational opportunities in public or private educational institutions (MoESAC, 2012b; MoPSE, 2013; 2014). Furthermore, the study recognises the high literacy ranking of Zimbabwe in Africa and beyond. Nonetheless, it is equally pertinent to acknowledge UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and UNICEF, (2015, p.40) sentiments that "countries that are approaching universal access to education need to

focus, in general, on targeted responses that address the specific barriers faced by the most marginalised children." Learning is the ultimate purpose of schooling for all children worldwide. Undeniably, low quality education, measured by low value and added to cognitive achievement, leads to a high secondary school dropout rate. Quality education is at the heart of goals set at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal, in 2000 as Goal 6 (UNESCO, 2014a). Subsequently, quality education is prioritised as the United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 4 tabled at the 70th United Nations General Assembly held from the 25 to the 27th of September 2015 whose aim is to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education, leading to the promotion of lifelong learning opportunities for all (UNDP, 2015). Thus, the study endorses the view that quality education is "what students know or how well they perform on standardised tests" (Tembon, 2008: p.7). Evidence suggests that educational quality is directly related to school attainment in developing countries (Hanushek, 2008: p.27). Generally, quality education is closely aligned with the acquisition of basic reading, writing and arithmetic skills by learners. Though Grima (2008) admits that quality education is not an easy concept to qualify, this study, regulated by the principle of entitlement, maintains quality education translates into a range of personal, social and developmental benefits that guarantee lifelong educational trajectory underpinned by the attainment of an Ordinary Level Certificate, as a minimum measure. Quality education should allow a girl-child to reach her fullest potential in terms of cognitive, emotional and creative capacities. Thus, access to quality secondary education remains a fundamental determinant factor leading to learning with the end goal of attaining a minimum of five passes with Grade C or better in the Zimbabwe Schools Examination Council (ZIMSEC) Ordinary Level standardised examinations at the end of a four-year secondary education programme, in the case of Zimbabwe (MoPSE, 2013; 2014). For Zimbabwe to achieve access to basic quality education for all, there is need to curb the girl-child high secondary school dropout rate seemingly prevalent in marginalise rural communities.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Globally, children are reported to be at the risk of dropping out of school as they get older. Adolescents who generally constitute learners in the institutions of secondary education are said to be twice likely to be out of school as compared to children at the primary school level (UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and UNICEF, 2015). "If I have seen further, it is standing on ye shoulders of giants" is an adage attributed to Isaac Newton which he wrote in a letter to his friend, Robert Hooke (Schreiber and Asner-Self, 2011: p.32). Thus, it is prudent for the study to capture what others have already known and gathered on secondary school dropout threats faced by the girl-child as she strives to access quality education, particularly in marginalised rural communities. Inevitably, knowledge accumulates as researchers learn from and build on what others would have done. Thus,

using terms borrowed from Swart (1988), the study unpacks 'push-out/throwaway' threats that lead to 'runaway' inclinations by a girl-child, culminating in unprecedented high secondary school dropout rates in marginalised rural communities such as Binga District, in Zimbabwe.

Focusing on a nine-year compulsory education cycle in two rural communities in North China, research conducted by Lui (2004) sought to find out whether basic education was a legal obligation or an individual choice. The study revealed that while at the primary level, nearly 100% enrolment and completion rates were achievable at the secondary level dropouts constituted a serious problem rendering the nine-year compulsory schooling an unfinished cycle (*ibid*.). Using the rational choice theory as a theoretical framework, 30 families of secondary school dropouts were interviewed, leading to the conclusion that the rural schooling landscape was underpinned by local people's rational choices, rather than the compulsory education law. Consequently, due to a lack of educational law enforcement, the rural communities of China disregarded rural secondary schooling in direct contrast to the country's statutory obligations. In the Zimbabwean context, the basic education cycle stretches from pre-school (Zero Grade) up to Form 4, stretching for a period of 12 years (Dokora, 2015). The Zimbabwe Education Act Chapter 25:04 deems basic education compulsory for all learners (Government of Zimbabwe, 2006). The study concedes that despite having compulsory laws or statutory instruments in place, the prevalence of unprecedented girl-child high secondary school dropout rates in marginalised rural communities of Zimbabwe retards the attainment of inclusive and equitable quality education.

Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) (2011) reports on studies conducted by the PASEC/CONFEMEN and University of Witwatersrand/SACMEQ research teams which focused on the quality of learning and female disadvantages in several French and English-speaking African countries whose findings have implications on secondary schools. Using a quantitative approach, data gathered from national evaluations highlighted that a girl-child faced disadvantages when compared to a boy-child as also collaborated by Kiragu (2012), UNESCO (2014b), Bethell (2016) and Warrington.Differences in average literacy and mathematics test scores became more gender-pronounced as children progressed through primary education. The study concluded that factors such as teacher absenteeism, large class sizes, not speaking the language of instruction at home, parents' literacy levels and living in a rural area negatively impacted the academic success of a girl-child. It was unfortunate that these learning inequalities also surfaced through school extracurricular-related activities. Some of the teachers, mainly the unqualified ones, were failing to provide an appropriate conducive learning environment, compromising access to quality education for a girl-child. Thus, the study highlights the grounding

of disparities in accessing quality schooling that become more distinct at the secondary school level as cases of subjects to school dropout become more apparent. Among other issues, the study evokes a range of explanations and policies aimed at countering gender gaps that perpetuate the underperformance of a girl-child in many countries, including Zimbabwe an observation supported by Chabaya, Rembe and Wadesango (2009).

Michelle Obama, in her then capacity as the First Lady of the United States of America (USA), travelled to Africa, particularly to Liberia and Morocco (Obama, 2016). Embarking on her 'We Will Rise' girl-child advancement project, the former First Lady captured a variety of issues that worked as 'push-out or throwaway' ingredients that included 'runaway' factors that finally saw a girl-child dropping out of school. Sub-Saharan Africa is described as a region known to have countries with the lowest female literacy rate and lowest gender parity index for enrolment in formal schooling (UNESCO, 2012; World Bank, 2012;). Financial hardships, long walking distances to get to the nearest school, risking physical abuse and kidnapping as the girl-child walked to school on a daily basis, inadequate and inappropriate bathrooms which pushed her out of school when having her menstrual cycle leading to her falling behind in class are captured as undeniable barriers that lead to a girl child's subsequent dropping out of school, (Nyamanhindi, 2013; Jewitt and Ryley, 2014; Tshering, 2014; Obama, 2016). Furthermore, during her visit to sub-Saharan Africa, Obama, noted that girl-child education was also about attitudes and beliefs to do with a girl-child being valued for her body more than her mind; a girl-child not being worthy of an education for her best chance in life was to be married off when barely a teenager at times and then having children. Particularly, in Morocco, as the girl-child reached puberty, the former First Lady noted that lack of resources combined with socio-cultural barriers such as child marriage and early motherhood led to high rates of school dropouts. Thus, deep-rooted socio-cultural norms are not likely to change rapidly across sub-Saharan Africa. Using Tanzania as an example, the United Nations (2009, p.209) reported;

> Women in Tanzania, like women elsewhere in sub-Saharan Africa, are oriented towards motherhood. Traditionally a woman is expected to marry early and give birth to many children. Girls are socialised early in their lives into key roles as mothers, housekeepers and producers. A women's status is measured largely by her capacity to reproduce and maintain children. Young girls learn early in life to look after their siblings and to trade and farm like their mothers, sisters, aunts and grandmothers.

A girl-child faces intersecting reasons for dropping out of school ranging from "increased household responsibilities, family preference for educating sons when limited funds are available for school fees, the pressure to get married, premarital pregnancy and parental concerns about school safety (Sommer, 2010, p.523). Though Zimbabwe's high literacy rate is recognised internationally, there seem to be pockets of marginalised rural communities

where ills that bedevil the girl child's successful completion of secondary education are also in existence signifying shared concerns with the rest of sub-Saharan Africa.

In trying to understand girls' absence from school, Mohanraj (2010) investigated why girls of school-going age in rural Madhya Pradesh, India, were not in school despite incentives and targeted interventions. The interview accounts of participants who included the out-of-school girls, parents of out-of-school girls, schoolteachers and administrators of the education department who operated at different levels, pointed out the ineffectiveness of the incentives provided by the education department to bring all girls into schools which were viewed as "not robust enough to act as encouragement" Mohanraj (2010: p.2). Affirmed by other researchers, conclusions reached indicated that the societal standing of girls and their apparent future roles as mothers and home-makers, the cultural marriage system, community traditional pressures and the perceived usefulness of the girl-child had detrimental consequences for girl-child education (Mohanraj, 2010; Rembe, Chabaya, Wadesango and Muhuro, 2011). The way teachers and the education administrators operated seemed to exacerbate the girl child's predicament. Thus, incentives and targeted interventions for the girl-child to take advantage of the offered school educational opportunities were undermined by the absence of contextualised targeted interventions and worsened by the insensitivity of the learning environments.

Universally, attaining secondary education is considered an empowering tool for girls and women. Regrettably, the study registers, with great concern, studies that reveal that going to a secondary school and being in school perpetuate huge risks that threaten a girl child's successful completion of secondary education. Coming back home, a study done in Zimbabwe revealed that "girls face sexual harassment and violence both from male students and teachers" (UNAIDS/WHO, 2004, p.13). Similar findings were reported in Botswana, South Africa, Swaziland and Zambia from other studies. In Binga District, some teachers have been accused of impregnating secondary-school-going girls in the communities where they work resulting in an unprecedentedly high percentage of school dropout rate in the district (Masara, 2016). Captured in a local newspaper, Ward 9 community, also known as Siansundu, was reported to have been up in arms with local teachers who had impregnated school-going-girl-children following the failure of senior education officials to make them accountable for their involvement in improper association with learners. Troubled, Chief Saba, a local community leader, is cited as having voiced his concerns and asserted

that community leaders were deeply concerned by the unbecoming behaviour of teachers in the secondary schools deployed in Binga District. In *The Chronicle* of the 15th of July 2016, reporter Whinsley Masara captured Chief Saba alleging that:

> Every year, we're about 30 school dropouts in each of our schools, which is very sad because it means we're still far from having female graduates in our wards. What's most saddening is that teachers are contributing to these dropouts. In many instances, we've taken the matter to our district education offices and police but the cases always die a natural death within the courts.

In the report, Siansundu Secondary School, which caters for learners from more than four ward communities, was mentioned as contributing to girl-child high dropout rate due to male teachers' failure to act in loco parentis and preying on vulnerable children.

For the study, defining this girl-child threatened with a high secondary school dropout rate in Binga District, Zimbabwe is key. Generally, when a girl-child enrols for secondary school education she would be in the adolescence stage, a period of an identity crisis and also associated with heightened 'storm and stress' (de Beeck, 2009). Adolescence is a term constructed by Stanley Hall in 1904 to describe the period between childhood and adulthood (Chiweshe, 2012; UNICEF-Zambia, 2014). Michelle Obama defines adolescence as a period when a girl-child first experiences being the subject of cultural values and practices that define what it means to be a woman in one's society (Dews, 2014). Bringing more clarity, the United Nations Interagency Task Force on Adolescent Girls (UNITFAG) (2009) precisely states that adolescence is a period between the ages of 10 to 19 years. "As a transition towards adulthood, adolescence is very important as it shapes adulthood," (UNICEF- Zambia, 2014, p.15). Calder and Huda (2013, p.1) assert that adolescence is a critical period, "which profoundly influences girls' future potential". Key transitions from girlhood to womanhood, from primary to secondary education, from education to work and family life, add to the complexities of adolescence. More often, the complexities of key transitions have been observed to go wrong, "with high dropout rates from secondary school; early and forced marriage; exposure to violence, abuse and HIV infection; and high maternal mortality" (*ibid.*). Adolescence is, thus, a transition into new dominions of discrimination, vulnerability and risks as the girl-child transforms into adulthood (UNITFAG, 2009). Nevertheless, with appropriate educational support, the girl-child can open up new opportunities for communities and nations. How communities treat the adolescent girl child's issues determine not only her future, but also the future of her family, community and the

nation. Thus, the study recognises that girl-child secondary education takes place during this unescapable adolescence period which, potentially, contributes to a high secondary school dropout rate if significant measures are not put in place to curb her dropping out from school.

CONTEXTUALISING BINGA DISTRICT EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Binga District, home to the marginalised Tonga Tribe, is one of 63 administrative educational districts located in 10 provinces of Zimbabwe (MoPSE, 2014). Geographically, Binga District is known to be inaccessible due to poor road networks, (ZESN, 2009; Basilwizi Trust Semi-Annual Report, 2011; Parliament of Zimbabwe, 2011b; Langa, 2014). Bridges get washed away during rainy seasons, hence vehicles sometimes cross flooded rivers (Machakaire, 2012). Historically, the Tonga people used to live along the Zambezi River with their livelihoods depending mainly on fishing and called themselves "People of the Great River" due to their domination along the Zambezi valley before they were relocated away from the river in the 1950s, paving way for the construction of the Kariba Dam (Basilwizi, 2015, p.1). Langa (2014), in one of his reports, alleges that Binga District ranks least on the Zimbabwe development index, notwithstanding its vast natural resources that hold great tourism potential. The district has unexploited natural resources and is dominated by the most impoverished rural communities in Zimbabwe (Parliament of Zimbabwe, 2011a; 2011b). Profiling the two constituencies, Binga North and South, the Parliament of Zimbabwe Research Department portrays the whole of Binga District as an area with its share of problems that impinge directly on girl child's access to quality secondary education. The Member of Parliament for Binga North Constituency, Honourable Prince Sibanda was concerned that, generally, what used to happen before independence was still happening after independence. "We do not have a single high school that offers science subjects in the whole of the constituency and that automatically limits Binga North students in terms of career choices" he alleged (Langa, 2014, p.5). Furthermore, through its Research Department, the Zimbabwe body of legislators, concluded that the number of secondary schools in the whole of Binga District fell "far below the number of primary schools" (Parliament of Zimbabwe, 2011a, p.6). Also painting a dire educational environment of Binga District, the Zimbabwe Election Support Network (ZESN) (2009, p.219) concedes that "infrastructure is poor, with very few schools and poor roads". Thus, the Binga District operating environment reveals a grim picture that demands the study to unpack issues leading to a girl-child high secondary school dropout rate.

THE GENERAL PERCEPTION OF WOMEN IN BINGA DISTRICT

Binga District has the highest population of 139 092, made up of 75 356 females and 63 736 males, compared to the other six Matabeleland North Province education administrative districts (ZIMSTAT, 2012). In its 15 wards for Binga North and 10 for Binga South Constituencies, charged with the responsibility of influencing pertinent political decisions with far-reaching bearing on girl child's retention in a secondary school, disenfranchised "women outnumber men" (Parliament of Zimbabwe, 2011b, p.3). Women in the district are known for not participating in local governance, hence, are described as "not yet empowered" (*ibid.*, p.12). There had never been a female councillor in any of its 25 wards before the 2013 national harmonised election (ZESN, 2013). Social exclusion dating back to colonial days, seems to have persisted to the post-colonial era preventing women in Binga District from fully participating in the educational, economic, social and political life of Tonga communities in the district as confirmed by Parliament of Zimbabwe (2011b).

SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATION IN BINGA DISTRICT

It is most prudent to briefly enlighten readers on the existence of primary schools that feed learners into secondary schools in Binga District. Putting 2012 into perspective, *Binga District's 2012 Annual Report* reports that Binga District had a total of 57 registered and 49 satellite primary schools, making a total of 106 primary schools servicing the whole of Binga District (MoESAC, 2012a). The unregistered 49 satellite primary schools were established to mitigate the long walking distances by primary learners. With great concern, the study registers the non-existence of secondary schools during the colonial period for Binga District until 1983 when the first two were established (Binga and Kariangwe) heralding the commencement of secondary education in the marginalised rural district.

Whilst pointing to serious marginalisation of Binga District, an unfavourable protracted and staggered establishment of secondary schools commenced with the founding of Binga and Kariangwe in 1983. According to the Binga Rural District Council files, between 1983 and 2001, a total of only 10 secondary schools had been officially established.. The number remained stagnant until mid-2015, when two more schools were added, Simatelele and Siachilaba. Captured below is the Binga District map of ward locations of registered secondary schools by mid-2015.
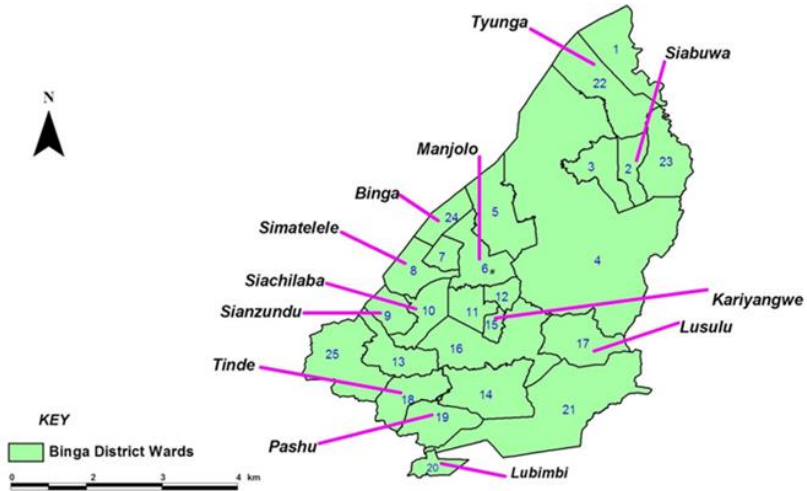
Figure 1: Binga District Registered Secondary Schools by September 2015

Also, by mid-2015, the 27 satellite secondary schools had more than doubled the registered secondary schools. Furthermore, in line with government policy, satellite establishments are not recognised as 'schools' by the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE). According to the *Zimbabwe Education Act Chapter 25:04* Part I Section 2, a 'school' "means an institution … recognised by the Ministry, which provides school education" (Government of Zimbabwe, 2006b, p.619). Thus, all the 27-satellite secondary 'schools' in Binga District fell under the jurisdiction of particular mega schools and though named, did not appear in the MoPSE record of schools in 2015, a common practice throughout Zimbabwe. It is, also, important to note that since satellite secondary schools are unregistered with the Government of Zimbabwe, they are undoubtedly prone to remote administration by substantive heads and deputy deads stationed at 'mother' schools. The officially registered secondary schools in Binga District have the responsibility of running the affairs of unregistered secondary schools as their annexes. Distribution is not evenly done for their administration is determined by their proximity to registered secondary schools as can be appreciated in the Table 1 showing the situation that prevailed in September 2015.

Table 1: Registered secondary schools and the number of annexes attached to them by 2015 *(Documents from PED's Office and field notes)*

Lusulu	Manjolo	Pashu	Siansundu	Siabuwa	Kariangwe	Tyunga	Lubimbi	Tinde
7	4	4	3	3	2	2	1	1

An illustration of the biggest secondary school spreading its administrative responsibility is captured in the Figure 2.
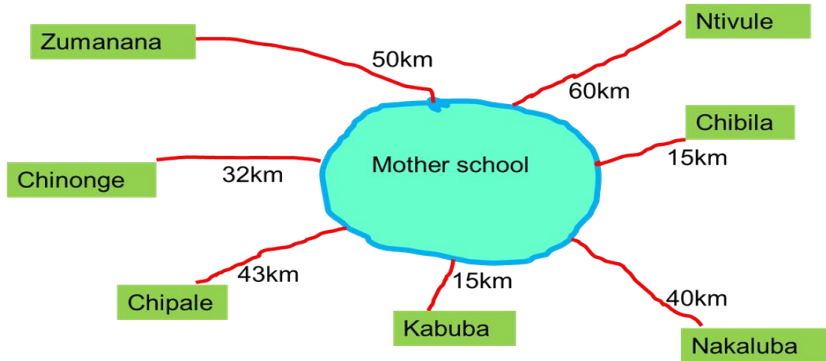
Figure 2: An illustration of a registered secondary school and its annexes. *(Construction based on documents and field notes gathered in 2015)*

The establishment and running of satellite secondary schools in the marginalised rural communities of Binga District signify interconnected 'pushout/throwaway' excruciating impediments, consequently leading to a girl-child high secondary school dropout rate.

STAFFING AND PERFORMANCE OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN BINGA DISTRICT

Binga District is known to have the highest number of satellite secondary schools, the highest number of unqualified teachers, the highest percentage of teacher turnover and holding the lowest pass rate among the seven Matabeleland North Province educational districts (MoPSE, 2014). Vacant teaching posts in both primary and secondary schools came up to 71.6% of the total teacher establishment during the second term of 2012. Rightly so, Binga District Education Officer then, bemoaned, "this is quite disturbing since service delivery is compromised by the big number of untrained teachers' (MoESAC, 2012a, p.14). Table 2 depicts 2012 secondary school teacher profiling, as captured in the *Binga District Annual Report 2012* which is considered historically significant in the study for it has a bearing on the girl-child high secondary school dropout rate in Binga District today.

Table 2: Secondary teachers by qualifications and gender in 2012. (*Binga District Annual Report, MoESAC, 2012a:13*)

Qualifications of Teachers	Males	Females
Master of Education Degree	1	1
Certificated University Graduate	7	3
Uncertificated University Graduate	6	3
Certificated Diploma Holders	125	38
T3/T4/Ptl/Pth	1	0
A' Level Temporary Teachers	170	50
O' Level Temporary Teachers	11	5
Relief Teachers	7	2
Total Trained and Temporary Teachers	328	102

Universally, the quality of teachers manning secondary schools at any given time impacts either positively or negatively on keeping a girl-child in school and her future socio-economic prospects. Regarding the foregoing, it is clear that a girl-child in Binga District faces serious secondary school dropout threats impinging on her educational advancement. Consequently, the study is calling for intervention measures informed by empirical evidence. Quality secondary education seemed elusive, with the girl-child on the receiving end. The above 2012 teacher profiles remained partly responsible for the generally bad state of 2011 to 2014 Ordinary Level ZIMSEC attainment for Binga District captured in the Figure 3. The graphic picture presents trends that, undoubtedly, destroy learners' transitional prospects, particularly the girl-child, whose pass rate is fixed at the bottom of the ladder (MoPSE, 2015).
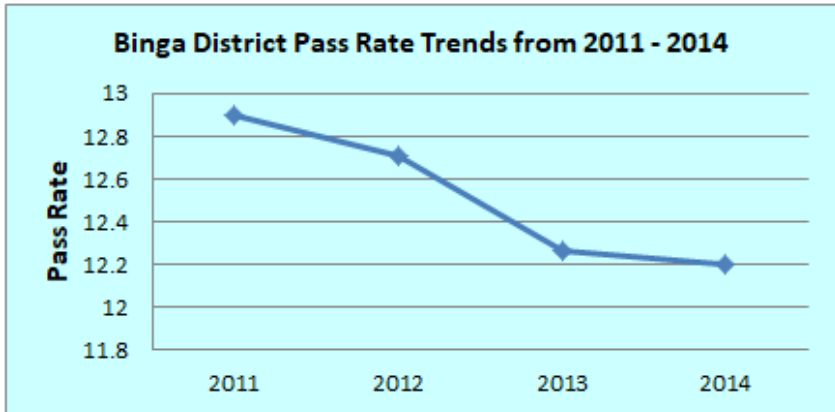
Figure 3: Binga District Ordinary Level Pass Rate Trends 2011 to 2014. *(Binga District Education Office Reports 2012 to 2015)*

As portrayed in Figure 3, the generally unwarranted trend seemed to persist without any envisaged hope for the future if drastic solutions to turn around the prevailing situation were not mooted. Justifiably, this state of affairs demanded evidence-based findings that would lead to action-driven policies to work as tools to reverse negative secondary education trends that include the girl-child high secondary school dropout rate currently prevailing in Binga District.

THE TONGA LANGUAGE QUESTION IN BINGA DISTRICT SCHOOLS

The *NewsDay* of 8 September 2014 carries an article that claimed that successive governments in Zimbabwe neglected quality educational development in Binga District which led to the district being "marginalised for a very long time with pupils being forced to learn other languages while neglecting their native Tonga" (*NewsDay,* Muponde, September, 2014: p.3). Thus, rebellious tendencies captured through print media carried fiery headlines such as, "Binga bans the teaching of Ndebele" (*ibid.*). ChiTonga was first examined only at the Grade Seven Level in October 2011, as a curriculum development that reflects the power struggles which characterise all societies. Following this development, Pinos Buligwamanu, a member of the Tonga Language and Cultural Committee remarked, "Teaching of Tonga language and getting it examined at Grade Seven is like a dream come true for us the Tonga people after a long struggle that dates back to 1976 when the effort to get Tonga language taught in school began" (ActionAid, 2012). Muponde (*ibid.*) confirms that a major milestone was indeed achieved in 2011 "when Tonga was officially tested in the Grade 7 examinations for the first time". Further on, Tonga language development registered a landmark claim to its constitutional right in September 2014, when a full council

meeting, which was dominated by Tonga-speaking members, banned the teaching of Ndebele in all primary schools in Binga District, (*ibid*.). This 2014 drastic action interrogates the impact of the education system among marginalised ethnic community groups, particularly on the observed girl-child high secondary school dropout rate in Binga District. Undoubtedly, having ChiTonga Secondary School Syllabus in place by 2012, restored the cultural rights, pride and dignity of the Tonga communities as equal citizens of Zimbabwe as enshrined in the 2013 Zimbabwe Constitution.

METHODOLOGY
A qualitative research approach underpinned by a naturalistic approach was adopted to investigate secondary school 'push-out/throwaway' dropout threats that led to unprecedented girl-child 'runaway' inclinations that could only be understood by sharing participants' frames of reference. To propose measures that could curb the girl-child high secondary school dropout rate in Binga District, an interpretive investigation that typically involved a "sustained and intensive experience with participants," (Creswell 2014, p.187), got underway. Thus, the study recognises the importance of the primacy of subjective consciousness which is active and meaning-bestowing and dependent on key informants' lived experiences centred on the girl-child secondary school high dropout rate within the marginalised rural communities of Binga District.

Data were typically collected in the most densely populated ward communities of Binga District (Wards 14, 17 and 21) where three secondary schools, used as study sites, were located. At each of the three study sites, pseudonyms were attached to focus group discussion (FGD) participants, composed of eight school-going girl-children who included head girls, prefects and class monitors, drawn from Form 1 to Form 4 (coded FGDG1-3) and eight senior secondary school teachers of equal gender (coded FGDT1-3). Among the key informants, who also shared their views and opinions regarding girl-child high secondary school dropout rate in the marginalised rural communities of Binga District, were school administrators and representatives of responsible authorities (coded SSEA1-6); Binga District local leaders who included two Chiefs, two Members of Parliament and three ward councillors (coded LL1-7); and representatives of civil society (coded SC1-4).

Semi-structured individual interviews and focus group discussions were triangulated to bring forth the trustworthiness of the findings. Supported by Silverman (2010, p.133), the triangulated data from different participants gave a "true" state of affairs regarding girl-child education in Binga District. By examining where different data intersected, a full picture was cumulatively drawn, bringing to the fore, the environment under which a

girl-child recorded a high secondary school dropout rate in the marginalised rural communities of Binga District, Zimbabwe.

EVIDENCE FROM THE GROUND

A general picture of over-aged girl children in the secondary schools of the marginalised rural communities of Binga District, spreading across all forms, was painted. Contrary to the MoPSE (2014) prescribed secondary-school-going age range of 13 to 16 for Forms 1 to 4, respectively, Table 3 captures a depiction of age disparities that existed in Binga District as represented by the 24 secondary-school-going girl children who shared their views and opinions regarding girl-child high secondary school dropout rate in Binga District in 2015.

Table 3: Age of girls who participated in FGDs at three study sites *(24 girl-children participants in focus group discussions, September 2015)*

Age Range → Level	13 yrs.	14 yrs.	15 yrs.	16 yrs.	17 yrs.	Above 17 yrs.
Form 1	0	3	2	1		
Form 2	0	1	4	1		
Form 3	0	0	3	1	1	1
Form 4	0	0	0	4	1	1
TOTAL	0	4	9	7	2	2

Age analysis of the 24 girl-children study participants reveals that only eight were appropriately placed according to the MoPSE's age prescription and 16 could be described as over-aged for their levels. Thus, in Binga District, it was not a misnomer to find a 16-year-old girl-child in Form 1. During an interview with CS4 on the 7th of September 2015, it was indicated that at times girls as old as 22 years would be in Form 4 at some of the secondary schools in Binga District. Consequently, the over-age would have commenced at the primary school level. A girl-child was reported to be facing intersected dropout threats within the secondary schools of Binga District, some of which could have been exacerbated by being over-aged.

Excerpts captured from individual interviews with civil society representatives coded (coded CSI-4), local leaders (coded LL1-7), secondary school education administrators (code SSEA1-6) as well as from focus group discussions with girl children themselves (coded FGDG1-3) and senior teachers (coded FGDT1-3) reveal multifaceted dropout threats faced by a girl-child in the marginalised rural communities of Binga District. Transitioning to secondary school after Grade 7 marks a girl child's high secondary school dropout rate in Binga District as she is told "You have finished school". Daring, long walking distances to get to the nearest school;

age vulnerability compounded by bad practices; intersecting poverty-related challenges; child-pregnancy and/or marriage-induced threats, among other intersecting 'push-out/throwaway' ills compounded by 'runaway' inclinations, were noted to exacerbate girl-child high secondary dropout rate in Binga District. As a means of presenting a condensed mass of "given" data that revealed circumstances leading to girl-child high secondary school dropout rate in the marginalised rural communities of Binga District, a pictorial "visual format" display, is used to facilitate easy communication of findings, as suggested by (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014, pp. 60;108). Thus, narrative descriptions, capturing participants' categorised excerpts present persuasive evidence that justifies the crafting of measures that could curb girl-child high secondary school dropout rate in the marginalised rural communities of Binga District and beyond.

Pictorial visual display of findings on girl-child high secondary school dropout rate in Binga District
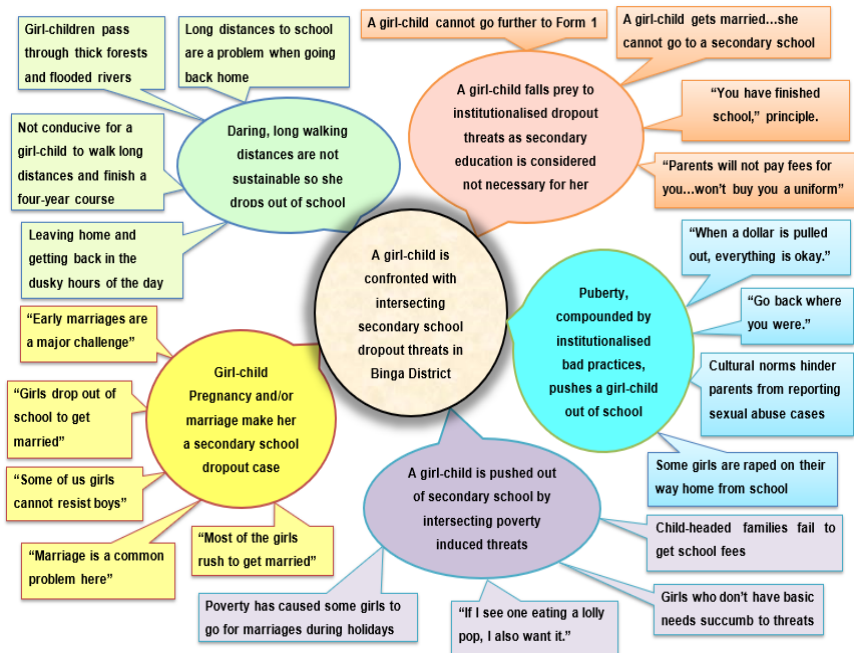
Figure 4: School is finished at the Grade Seven level

LL1: THERE ARE QUITE A SEVERAL DROPOUTS WHO WILL JUST GO UP TO GRADE 7. THEY CANNOT GO FURTHER TO FORM 1.

FGDG2: Some parents hold a principle that when a girl-child finishes Grade 7 she will not go for secondary education. They say, "You have finished school." If you force your way to proceed to secondary, they will not support you financially.

*FGDG1: S*OME PARENTS SAY A GIRL-CHILD GETS MARRIED AND IN THAT CASE, SHE CANNOT GO FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION.

FGDG2 No: Such parents will not pay school fees for you and most of the time you will be sent back home to get the fees. No books for you. They won't buy you even a uniform (*others say* "Yes" *in agreement*). They say, "What you are doing is useless. It's not necessary" (*group laughs*).

LL7: Here in Binga, communities still have the belief that a girl-child should not go further with her education. Also, generally, the girl-child tends to end her education at the Grade 7 level, find a suitor, get married and settle down as a housewife at a young age. So, it's like if you go to our district hospital there, I think you will find all the data that indicates that a girl-child at the age of 13 years is giving birth to a child. It, therefore, means that girls still have a big disadvantage. It's all suffering. There is nothing. What will a girl-child wait for whilst at home after Grade 7 except to get married? These are the challenges faced by girl-children.

CS3: There are also issues of poverty levels of the family and some practices within the communities that may or may not promote girl-child education as general culture in some communities

DARING AND LONG JOURNEYS TO GET TO THE NEAREST SECONDARY SCHOOL
CS1: The long distance of about 20km that our children walk daily is also a threat, they pass through thick bushes and flooded rivers. This increases the vulnerability of the child because she has to wake up very early, maybe at 4 am, walk in the early hours of the morning to go to school and when they dismiss, she walks the same distance and reaches home when it is dark. Such situations are not safe for girl-children.

FGDG2: several girls walk together passing through the thick forest on their way to school to be safe.

FGDT1: I found out that form 2 girls who got married was a result of the narrow bushy pathways like Gwangwaliba which feed Lusulu, which become conducive to girl-child sexual abuse on the way. Some learners were found hiding in the bush. I think that it is dangerous for a girl-child to travel on such paths alone.

FGDG3 six children in ward 14 confessed that they knew some girls who had been raped on their way home from school.

LL1: The effects of long distance are dropout, level of understanding and participation in class is reduced since they wake up around 4 am, to meet the 7 am commencement of lessons. I have discovered that in my community, 50% of the children who walk very long distances to school don't finish the four-year course. Thus, distance has become the major factor of school dropouts.

LL6: It's a bit difficult for a girl-child to walk long distances pursuing secondary education due to rape cases thus, there are fewer girls than boys that are going to school in some areas.

FGDT3: Some girls are walking to school from areas which are 15km away. (FGDT3 Mr Johnson gives examples of Malubale, Siampora and Singwazi that range from 13 to 15 kilometres away, as areas where some of the girls wake up as early as 3 am or 4 am to get to the nearest secondary school on time).

Child pregnancy and/or marriage induced school-dropout threats
LL5: Early marriages are a major challenge as shown by records of the whole district that, in a term, twenty or thirty girls drop out of school because of early marriages, pregnancy and rape cases.

LL1: Statistics from Kariangwe School show that dropouts for 2014 and 2015, had 13 girls dropping out because of pregnancies, of which five of them were below the age of 15 and nine girls who got married, of which two are below the age of 15, respectively.

FGDT3: Some parents send their children to grow and when they find some boys to marry, they leave school. Girls' first preference is marriage and to be able to write. (*Members laugh and all agree with Ms Shoko*).

FGDG2: Marriage is a common problem here and we have dropouts in all forms and the process is on-going due to pregnancies (*Reflecting on her Form level*). There are some girls we know who have come back this term but are pregnant and we know that in the days to come they will drop out of school, (*Group laughs*). (*In agreement that at every Form level, girls were dropping out due to falling pregnant or getting married in 2015, two girls in Form 1, two in Form 2, three Form 3 and two Form 4*).

FGDG1: Reason many girls are dropping out of school before Form 4 is marriage.

FGDG2: Most of the girls rush to get married and fall pregnant before finishing school.

SSEA6: Despite positive attitude towards education, girls believe in getting married whilst they are still young as indicated by the dropout rates. To them marriage is very important, rather than education.

FGDT1: Sure, girls dropout of school to get married. I suggest they remain in school to get older then get married latter

LL2: A girl-child is affected by walking long distances to school even if she thinks of going to a boarding school the parents cannot afford to pay fees, she eventually drops out. Financial constrains have also caused some of the girls to miss school by a year and probably write the following year.

SSEA4: Unfortunately, girl-children succumb to pressures that surround them which result in early marriage.

INTERSECTING POVERTY-RELATED DROPOUT THREATS
FGDG3: Parents will not have fees for a girl-child and there would be a shortage of books. So, there will be no need to come to school and one thing left would be to get married.

FGDG3: Poverty has caused some girls to get married during school holidays. Most of the girls are facing early marriages at any level (*They all laugh*).
AMLGA: Young mothers who are illiterate do not know how to look after their girl-child. She would rather encourage the girl-child to drop out of school and assist her to look for food.

LL4: Girls who don't have basic needs, succumb to threats very easily and eventually fail to complete their secondary education. So, it really depends on how well looked after they are and secondly, those that are from strong parent are resilient. But those that are orphans and perhaps looked after by stepmothers and stepfather, are those susceptible to threats. The majority are struggling; they are scrounging to make ends meet.

FGDT1: Some are coming from child-headed families and they dropout of school because they would have failed to get school fees.

PUBERTY: AGE OF VULNERABILITY COMPOUNDED BY INSTITUTIONALISED BAD PRACTICES
FGDG3: Some of us girls cannot resist boys when we see them. Many girls seek boys' attention by enticing them so that they can come,(*Froup laughs. She goes on to share how poverty leads to girl-child vulnerability at puberty*). You know, girls have a problem. If I see someone eating a lolly pop,

I also want it, yet my parents can't afford that. (*The researcher inquired about the price of a lolly pop and all girls replied, "*One Rand*" laughing*).

FGDG3: I cut short my uniform and it will be like this (*she demonstrates*), then I cut it to become so short to attract boys. Again, some girls are so weak that they cannot even say "No" when they are proposed to by boys (*group laughs*). If the boy says let's have sex, they can't say "No". Some don't say "Yes" but will be keeping quiet and shy as the boy does what he wants (*in agreement, they all laugh*). Many of the girls who are even at this school may not come back here in January next year (*2016*), (*they all laugh*) especially after the (*2015*) December holidays. December is a problem month. Some would be overjoyed then get pregnant and so it will not be possible to come back *(Yeolyser says this amid laughter by all)*.

CS4: Girl children fall pregnant and drop out of school and get married due to misbehaviour, mostly those at puberty, 14, or 15-year-olds even though parents do not encourage their children to get married.

FGDG3: There is also child abuse at home *(said with a very muted voice).*

FGDG3 Yolanda (*Further probing on "child abuse at home*: Your parents tell you that when the sun sets you must be home, then you go and meet your boyfriend and come back home late, they will say, "Go back where you were," (*all girls laugh*). (*All agreed that such things were happening. The girl-child would then reluctantly go to the boy's home resulting in her dropping out of school*).

FGDG3*: (Highlighting girl-child vulnerability)* Girls are fond of money*. (The researcher inquired if this involved boys in the school or the villages or the teachers and the girls responded by saying "All of them". Further probing revealed that at this site some male teachers were sleeping around with schoolgirls and some culprits were known to the girls in FGDG3. Amongst the teaching staff, as of 15 September 2015, FGDG3 reported that some teachers were having love affairs with some girls at the school).*

SSEA2: Mostly the girl child does not know what will be happening since by the end of the day you realise that the girl may not be married to the person she may be in love with. It's someone who has his wife. That's where the danger is. She may be in love with a schoolmate who has nothing at all.

LL3: The major threats include culture which says that a girl-child can get married at 16 '*akura*' (she is old enough). Therefore, there is entirely nothing in our culture that stops a girl who sees herself as having 'some breasts playing around' saying, "Now I want to get married." So, in the context of that culture, it then reduces the priority of excellent performance

in school. It becomes secondary for her top priority become, "Well I can establish myself a home."

FGDT2: The problem here is caused by school leavers and this place is dominated by those illegal border jumpers who go to South Africa. So, they lure those girls giving them goodies, buying them some biscuits, some 'stumbos' (round sweets on a stick). Now, they don't concentrate on schoolwork, instead, they go and get married or fall pregnant.

CS4: Cultural norms hinder the parents from reporting sexually abusive cases. The parents look at the consequences of reporting such cases thinking, "If I report to the police and the person responsible for the pregnancy gets arrested, tomorrow what will happen to my daughter? She won't find anyone to marry her in future," and so the case is not reported.

DISCUSSION
Dropping out of school before finishing secondary education is considered a serious threat to girl-child secondary education attainment in the study. Thus, for a girl-child, successful completion of secondary education is one of the measures of quality learning. In this 21st century, educationists, naturally, get concerned when a girl child's school's successful completion is threatened. Nonetheless, dropping out of secondary school tends to be institutionalised within particular areas, associated with a particular gender, affecting a particular age and more apparent at particular institutions of learning. Findings presented in the study indicate that the girl-child high secondary school dropout rate is a common feature in Binga District due to intersecting barriers. For a girl-child, her transitioning to secondary school is riddled by an underlying commonly shared principle, "You have finished school," and so "when a girl-child finishes Grade 7, she will not go for secondary education…If you force your way to proceed to secondary school, they will not support you financially," (FGDG2 Faith). Whilst perpetuating gender inequalities, inherently, the "You have finished school" stance to a girl-child as opposed to a boy-child, subsequently, triggers a girl-child high secondary school dropout. Thus, as also observed by renowned authorities, (FAWE, 2011; Warrington & Kiragu, 2012; UNESCO, 2014b;Bethell, 2016), it is apparent that in marginalised rural communities, such as Binga District, girl-child education is undervalued. Consequently, quality learning by a girl-child becomes very remote under circumstances described by FGDG2 Faith. Furthermore, FGDG2 Sihle gives an account of 'institutionalised' girl-child dropout lived experiences.

> In Form 1, we were quite many, but come Form 4 examination registration time, we were only a handful. Most of the girls dropped out to the extent that less than half the original number remains. Whilst in Form 1 they dropped out, in Form 2 they dropped out, in Form 3 they kept on dropping out and now in Form 4, they are still dropping out. Term after term girls drop out; year after year they drop

> out. This year (2015) first term girls dropped out, in the second term they dropped out and this term some of them have already dropped out.

Concerns surrounding girl-child secondary school dropout trends have also been highlighted by various authorities (Calder & Huda, 2013; Nyamanhindi, 2013; Masara, 2016; Obama, 2016). Their sentiments affirm the existence of an unacceptable practice that denies a girl-child successful completion of secondary education in the marginalised rural communities of Binga District.

On a continuum with two extreme ends, findings indicated that girl-child pregnancies and/or marriages could be equated to an unprecedented girl-child high secondary school dropout predisposition. Sentiments such as "…early marriages are a major challenge. We have got a record of the whole district. Maybe in a term, 20 or 30 girls drop out of school because of early marriages, pregnancy…" (LL5) and "Many girls here drop out of school to get married before finishing Form 4." (FGDG1 Yvonne), portray an institutionalised cultural practice that undermines international bodies' commitment to a contemporary broader vision of basic education for everyone (World Bank, 2012; UNESCO, 2014a: UNDP, 2015; UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and UNICEF, 2015). It is a 21st-century misnomer to deny a girl-child her fundamental right to quality education by preferring girl-child marriage to education, a retrogressive disempowering cultural practice that must be curbed (Mohanraj, 2010; Rembe *et al.*, 2011; Calder & Huda, 2013; Obama, 2016).

The sparsity of secondary schools in Binga District alludes to the fact that in some rural communities, secondary schools are non-existent (Parliament of Zimbabwe, 2011a; 2011b; ZESN, 2009). Even with the establishment of satellite secondary schools that more than doubled the number of registered ones in 2015, unsustainable daily daring and long walking distances to access the nearest secondary schools have remained a major threat that 'push-out or throwaway' a girl-child out of school in the marginalised rural communities of Binga District. LL1 shares intersecting impediments that lead to girl-child discontinuing secondary school education, among other predicaments:

> Distance does not only affect children by their dropping out, it also compromises their level of understanding and participation in class because some of these children wake up around 4 am, walking to meet the 7 am school time. Two hours of running, not walking, so, what do you expect the girl-child to do? So, distance doesn't only bring or increase dropouts, but it even compromises the level of class participation. From what I have seen from schools that are in my community, most children that walk very long distances to school don't finish the four-year course. Maybe 50% would be complete. So, I think distance becomes a very big factor that affects girl-children.

Submissions made by various authorities also point to daring, long walking distances that intersect with other obstacles leading to girl-child high secondary school dropout rate, particularly in marginalised rural communities (Jewitt and Ryley, Nyamanhindi, 2013; 2014; Obama, 2016; Tshering, 2014). A girl child's vulnerability is at its peak at puberty as she is perceived as a 'ripe woman' ready for marriage. Culturally, girl-children get married with the blessing of their parents and guardians and, at times, some community leaders request to preside over such marriages. Nonetheless, such practices are tantamount to institutionalised girl-child sexual abuse which is made difficult to detect as it happens under the cover of acceptable cultural practices and is considered an 'achievement' as alluded to by LL3 who says:

> The major threats include culture which says that a girl-child can get married at 16 "akura" (she is ripe). Therefore, there is entirely nothing in our culture that stops a girl who sees herself as having 'some breasts playing around' saying, "Now I want to get married." So, in the context of that culture, it then reduces the priority of excellent performance in school. It becomes secondary for her top priority become, "Well I can establish myself a home."

Getting married "whilst they are still young" (SSEA6) triggers the high dropout rates by girl child's preference for marriage to education, a culturally acceptable phenomenon. Girl-child bride is a harmful practice perpetuated by an immature girl-child who seems blinded by her conscience and behaviour. On the other hand, parents and guardians take advantage of the girl child's vulnerability by marrying her off to enjoy the dowry. Highlighting cultural complexities that make an adolescent girl-child vulnerable, FGDG3 Yeolyser dramatises how it happens.

> I cut short my uniform and it will be like this, (she demonstrates) then I cut it to become so short to attract boys. Again, some girls are so weak that they cannot even say "No", when they are proposed to by boys. If the boy says let's have sex they can't say "No." Some don't say "Yes," but will be keeping quiet and shy as the boy does what he wants (in agreement they all laugh). Many of the girls who are even at this school may not come back here in January next year (2016), especially after the (2015) December holidays. December is a problem month. Some would be overjoyed then get pregnant and so it will not be possible to come back.

Getting married is a deep-rooted culturally acceptable achievement for a girl-child and her family (Mohanraj, 2010; Rembe *et al.*, 2011; Calder & Huda, 2013; Obama, 2016;). SSEA6 insinuates that most girl-children in Binga District "believe in getting married whilst they are still young. If you look at the drop-out rates that we are having, you can tell that to them what is very important is marriage, rather than education".

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
Successful completion of secondary education is a fundamental empowering tool that shields girls and women from self-depreciation as it forms the transitional bridge to higher transitional prospects endowed with socio-

economic gains. Regrettably, an unprecedented girl-child high dropout rate plays havoc with the successful completion of secondary education in marginalised rural communities, rendering girl child's access to quality secondary education very remote despite the high ranking of Zimbabwe's literacy rate. Marginalised rural communities could be serving as the epitome of a deep-rooted retrogressive and disempowering culture of girl-child high secondary school dropout rate. Complex intersecting obstacles entangle a school-going girl-child until she unceremoniously drops out of secondary school, particularly in marginalised rural communities such as Binga District.

Measures that could be used to curb challenges that undermine the girl child's successful completion of secondary education in marginalised rural communities such as Binga District demand individual girl-child personal will, all-inclusive civil society unreserved participation, community members cultural transformation and all stakeholders, including the Government of Zimbabwe.

Local leadership, composed of highly honoured community leaders who include Chiefs, Members of Parliament and Ward Councillors, the major task is to work in collaboration to change retrogressive social norms and values of communities to curb the girl-child high secondary school dropout rate within their communities. The major thrust for local leadership should be to eliminate negative cultural practices such as girl-child marriages by ensuring that perpetrators are exposed and brought to the book.

Whilst parents should be willing and committed to sending their girl-child to school by providing school fees and adequate learning materials, a girl-child needs to show commitment and determination no matter her circumstances. Life is not easy and does not spare a girl-child for who she is. She has got to take up the challenge and toughen up to make it in life. A girl-child needs to accept the environment in which she finds herself so that she navigates the terrain with caution to achieve whatever she wants to achieve. It is no longer a time for self-pity in this 21st century when girl-child support is abundantly available in various forms and from various directions.

The concept of bringing schools to communities by the Government of Zimbabwe remains a priority but is guided by research-based evidence of the neediest areas. Satellite secondary schools to operate within a regulated timeframe whilst their upgrading, pending their formal registration, is closely monitored by the responsible authorities in partnership with appropriate government institutions.

MAKE SURE THAT IN-TEXT CITATION APPEAR HERE IN THE REFERENCES LIST AND VICE VERSA. FOR STYLE REFER TO GUIDELINES OR IN THIS ISSUE SEE ARTICLES BY Chingwanana or Mapuranga *et al.*

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SHADOW EDUCATION AND ITS IMPORT IN TEACHER EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE: WHAT EMERGENCIES HAVE TAUGHT US

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Abstract

This qualitative case study was undertaken to report the emergence of shadow education (SE) in teacher education in Zimbabwe as perceived and portrayed by lecturers and student teachers. WhatsApp discussions and Google interviews generated data from 12 lecturers and 12 students selected using snowball sampling. Informed by Charles Wright Mills' sociological imagination and the Technology Acceptance Model, the thematically analysed data reveal that behind the lecturers' and student teachers' engagement in SE were wider societal problems. Lecturers engaged in SE not only because they were unethical, but also because they were deep in abject poverty and were incapable of supporting their families. Rather than adopting online teaching and learning as an alternative employed to continue education during the COVID-19 pandemic, students who lacked technological skills disapproved of it and turned to SE. Considering these findings, the study recommends that employers review the lecturers' remuneration for them to be motivated and committed to providing quality online teaching and learning. Additionally, before entry into colleges, students must be exposed to technology in sync with the dictates of the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR). The study extends the conversation on SE, which has been confined to primary and high schools and opens cans of worms to its presence in institutions of higher education.

Keywords: Online learning, policy, education management, ethics

INTRODUCTION

The outbreak of COVID-19 in 2019 and the subsequent travel restrictions established to curtail the spread of the virus saw education institutions closing and shifting to online pedagogy. As a result of the detection of COVID-19 and its detrimental effects on people's lives, education, among other sectors, was presented with insurmountable challenges that emanated from the fact that schools and colleges adopted online teaching and learning overnight to ensure continuity of education without putting contingencies in place. Intrinsically, two issues emerged: students were made to learn online even if they were not technologically savvy and lecturers had to deliver their

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lectures using the online mode despite that they were either competent or not, using the online platforms. A walk through one of the leisure parks in Harare, Zimbabwe, the site of the current study, reveals that wall-less classrooms had mushroomed and that shadow education (SE) had proliferated.

The term shadow education, which had gained currency in global scholarship, has been used by Bray (2021b) to refer to supplementary educational activities that are done outside school hours for payment. SE is then private supplementary teaching offered by a tutor outside formal education to students for a fee. The visibility and intensity of SE have been confined to high school students (Liu, 2018; Hajar, 2019) based on the premise that they used it to better their academic performance to enter prestigious institutions of higher education. Hajar and Abenova (2021) explain that doing well academically is the clearest path to a better life, so parents sometimes employ tutors to provide SE, thereby giving additional training in the key subjects required by universities for admission. Strangely, SE has taken a new shape and form because of the global COVID-19 health pandemic since its presence became noticeable in colleges of education in Zimbabwe. Initial surveillance showed that lecturers were working in cohorts with the students to promote SE in teacher education, while the students were willing participants. However, the emergence and expansion of SE in colleges of education in Zimbabwe invited mixed feelings, as stakeholders questioned the quality of online teaching and the caricature of the educators. The study was undertaken to report on Zimbabwean lecturers' and students' voices on the emergence of shadow education in Zimbabwe's institutions of higher learning amid COVID-19.

BACKGROUND STUDY

When COVID-19 was declared a pandemic on 20 March 2020, countries in all corners of the world implemented national school closures, affecting both students and lecturers (Chimbunde, 2021; Krishnamurthy, 2020). To mitigate the spread of the virus, governments around the world imposed social distancing measures, lockdowns and cessation of personal contact outside immediate households (García-Morales, Garrido-Moreno and Martín-Rojas, 2021), thereby rendering face-to-face teaching and learning redundant and inapplicable. The closure of learning institutions was necessary to uphold the World Health Organisation's protocols and regulations. These measures, however, brought massive changes in the education sector. As such and in a very short period, the entire education system from elementary to higher education had to completely transform its activity to evolve into an online teaching-learning scenario, which led academics and students to become unfamiliar due to the need to adapt swiftly to total online settings (Krishnamurthy, 2020; Chimbunde, 2021).

Thus, academics had to convert materials and methods rapidly to a format that was suitable for online delivery while students had to quickly adapt to the demands of online teaching. In light of these events, two issues of concern emerged: online teaching and learning were imposed on students who were not technologically sound and lecturers' competencies in the use of online pedagogy were still yet to be audited. Chimbunde (2021) explain this could have been so because COVID-19 did not give warning shots about its outbreak. Such is the nature of natural disasters and pandemics, which normally do not announce their coming but their presence. In support, García-Morales *et al.* (2021) observe that universities have experienced a large-scale transition to online learning and that transformation was hasty and compelled by circumstances.

With the outbreak of COVID-19, a growing body of literature has investigated the challenges and prospects that students, lecturers, administrators and institutions face because of pandemic-induced online teaching and learning (Adnan and Anwar, 2020; Cucinotta and Vanelli, 2020; Muftahu, 2020; Adarkwah, 2021; Chimbunde, 2021). Previous work has tended to focus on how to improve online teaching and learning in higher education to ensure continuity in education. A neglected area in this field was how final-year students in teachers' colleges responded to the sudden introduction of online teaching and learning and how they refashioned and recalibrated their educational experiences. The study aimed exploring how final-year students in Zimbabwe responded to the hurriedly introduced online teaching and learning amid the COVID-19 pandemic given that they were to sit for their final examinations in the next few months. The Zimbabwean community raised concerns about the strengths and feasibility of online teaching and learning given the poor internet connectivity across the country (Adarkwah, 2021; Chimbunde, 2021). There has been some disagreement regarding online teaching and learning. Some members of the community doubted its efficacy and suggested private lessons for their children, thereby neglecting the WHO health guidelines and regulations on how to mitigate the spread of COVID-19. Despite health concerns, SE has mushroomed in wall less classrooms in Zimbabwe not only for high school students but also for trainee teachers in colleges of education. In the study, we report on the perspectives of students and lecturers on the emergence of SE amid COVID-19 using the Zimbabwean experience. For the sake of clarity and to put it into the context of the study, the concept of SE is hereunder unpacked.

The phenomenon called shadow education is not new in scholarship because old and new studies acknowledge that it has expanded to reach almost all corners of the globe and has become a part of daily life in an increasing number of households (Subedi, 2018; Makwerere & Dube, 2019; Zhang & Bray, 2020; Duong and Silova, 2021; Bray, 2021b). The concept of SE,

despite its diversity in meaning, is generally understood to mean a set of educational activities that occur outside formal schooling and are designed to promote the student's formal school career (Zhang & Bray, 2020; Bray, 2021;). Seen this way, SE, therefore, connotes educational activities, for example, tutoring and private lessons, which occur outside of the formal channels of an educational system that are designed to better a student's opportunity to successfully move through the entire allocation process. SE, therefore, means different types and forms of private supplementary teaching, that is, teaching in academic school subjects, which is in addition to regular school instruction and is mostly provided for a fee. These forms include cram schools, one-on-one private tutoring and examination preparatory courses. It is called SE because to a large extent, its content replicates that which is found in formal schools. Bray (2021a) explains that as the curriculum changes in schools, it changes in shadow.

A recent review of the literature on shadow education found that the main force underlying the demand for SE by parents and students is social competition because they both perceive education to be a major instrument for social mobility and see it as an investment for the future (Zhang and Bray, 2020; Bray, 2021b; Duong and Silova, 2021; Wei and Guan, 2021). What drives teachers to engage in SE is different from students' motivation. In their study in Zimbabwe, Chidhakwa and Chitekuteku (2012) report that the growth of SE in Zimbabwe was increasingly becoming worrisome to the various stakeholders in education. For instance, some had become sceptical about the quality of the initial formal teaching in the schools that needed to be supplemented through private lessons, while others questioned whether it was a money-spinning venture for the teachers or it was a valid teaching exercise for the benefit of the learner. In answer to that question, Subedi (2018) argues that the motivation of private tutoring for the teacher is additional earnings, while better and improved learning along with higher performance in school examinations is the main intent of the students. Various views emerge that relate to SE, of which some studies describe the act as teacher-entrepreneurialism while others depict SE as unethical money-spinning ventures for educators (Chidhakwa and Chitekuteku, 2012; Makwerere and Dube, 2019; Bray, 2021b). While SE had received bad publicity in some quarters of the world, some stakeholders, especially parents and students, view it as an investment in education and an avenue for social advancement for students struggling in their studies. As argued by Nam and Chan (2019), SE is great for parents worrying about their children's ability to compete at school or to obtain higher scores. Hence, many parents trust SE as a helper and a complement to formal education. In this context, SE acts as a remediation platform meant to assist students who lag in some aspects of their formal schooling.

However, in his cutting-edge paper of 2021, Bray raises some critical issues against SE, in which he argues that situations in which teachers neglect their regular duties to devote their energies to private tutoring raise ethical issues. Furthermore, teachers are alleged to be coercing regular students to take their paid private lessons. This, they do by complaining that the syllabi are too wide to be completed without extra lessons and then go on to leave vital content to be taught in their private tutoring, thereby disadvantaging those who do not attend. Seen this way, SE can be an unscrupulous creation by teachers for their benefit. What remains unclear from research is the perspectives of educators on their position regarding SE, although the phenomenon of them providing private supplementary lessons has been reported in studies undertaken in countries as diverse as Cambodia, Egypt, France and Zimbabwe (Ille and Peacey, 2019; Makwerere and Dube, 2019; Mustafa *et al.*, 2021; Bray, 2021b).

Following an upsurge of interest in SE, studies, for example Bray (2021b), Duong and Silova (2021), Mahmud (2021), Šťastný (2021), Subedi (2018), Wei and Guan (2021), Zhang and Bray (2020), have been conducted on SE, its motives, prospects, challenges, backwash on the education system and policy implications. These studies have widened our understanding of SE and made contributions to the discernment of this global phenomenon. However, none of the studies from our survey of the current literature has explored how COVID-19 has led to the massification of SE in teacher education. The study threaded this uncharted territory to report on the emergence of SE, siphoning from the perspectives of lecturers and students from colleges of education in Zimbabwe.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
The study is guided by the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) and Charles Wright Mills' sociological imagination. The TAM is Fred Davis' theory advanced in 1989, which sheds light on the acceptance of technologies among users. The theory is based on two premises: perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness (Venkatesh and Davis, 2007). According to Davis (1989), ease of use is the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would be free from effort. In the context of the study, if the online platforms are easy to use, then the chances of acceptance of online teaching and learning by students are higher. In this case, the students will have positive attitudes towards it. Perceived usefulness is seen as the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would enhance his or her job performance (*ibid.*). This means acceptance of technology rests on whether someone perceives that technology is useful for what they intend to do. Therefore, individuals' perceptions lead to attitudes about technology, which affect behavioural intentions to use or not to use technologies (Venkatesh & Davis, 2007). The TAM was useful in the study, as it offered an explanation and insights into the external factors that

influenced the students' beliefs, attitudes and objectives in accepting COVID-19-induced online teaching and learning (Davis, 1989) and how they responded in the face of uncertainties such as pandemic and futuristic emergencies.

The sociological imagination, developed by Charles Wright Mills, was the second lens used in the study. Mills uses the term "sociological imagination" to refer to the ability to link or connect what we think are personal issues with the wider society (Gwirayi, 2010). The power of sociological imagination lies in the ability to connect personal troubles to public issues and public issues in the terms of their human meanings (Mills, 2000 cited in Giddens, 2009). Thus, it is an awareness of the relationship between an individual and the wider society. Sociological imagination helped in the study to gain insights into the students and their lecturers' behaviour and experiences as reflected after the outbreak of COVID-19 and the introduction of online teaching in colleges. As such, it was a helpful tool, as it allowed us to look beyond a limited understanding of the sudden emergence of SE in colleges of education and how that was connected to the education sector and its stakeholders in a new way through a broader lens than what people might otherwise. Using this lens, the study broke free from the immediacy of the personal circumstances of students and lecturers and put SE into a wider context. Thus, adopting a sociological imagination allowed us to see that SE that appeared to concern only individual lecturers and students reflected larger societal issues (Giddens, 2009).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
The qualitative case study guided by the TAM and the sociological imagination sought to explore the students' and lecturers' perceptions of the rise of SE in colleges of education amid COVID-19-induced online teaching using the Zimbabwean experience. The study sat comfortably in the qualitative approach because it was premised on the meanings created by students and lecturers and the context (Yin, 2015) of COVID-19-induced online teaching and learning. The study was interested in interrogating the way lecturers and students interpreted their concrete real-life experiences of online teaching and SE amid COVID-19 in their minds and their own words, hence the use of the qualitative approach.

The current research used an interpretive case study that was analysed through qualitative methods. According to Yin (*ibid.*), a case study is an enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used. We considered Yin's (*ibid.*) argument that a case study investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context. Thus, the case study approach was useful to hear the lecturers' and students' voices on how they experienced

COVID-19-induced online teaching and how they responded to its backwash. The case was helpful because one strength of it was its endowment with several perspectives that were deep-seated in a particular background. The study employed WhatsApp discussion and Google interviews to solicit data from 24 participants, made up of 12 lectures and 12 students, drawn from colleges of education in Zimbabwe. We elected to use Google interviews instead of face-to-face interviews because of COVID-19 pandemic lockdown restrictions. As such, Google interviews allowed us to direct the interview questions to the focus of the project, enable us to conduct a cross-analysis of the results (Patton, 2015) and open opportunities to probe further for new and relevant issues that could develop during the Google interviews. Later, we created a WhatsApp group for discussion using false names to conceal identities. We then discussed issues related to the focus of the study. The 24 participants were selected using snowball sampling. According to Schutt (2015), snowball sampling is used when it is extremely difficult to identify participants of the desired population to be studied. In the context of the study, while SE was a global phenomenon, the current Ministry of Education in Zimbabwe banned private lessons in all schools and elsewhere. Therefore, finding participants for the study was difficult because those who provided SE were afraid of and risked victimisation or dismissal from work. The snowball sampling procedure was thus used to access people who were most unlikely to consent to be studied. Therefore, we identified one case with the characteristics that we were interested in and then generated data. We then asked the research participant to introduce us to other relevant cases. The new cases also introduced us to other cases. In this way, the sample became bigger like a rolling snowball and totalled 24 participants.

In data analysis, we used Miles and Huberman's (1994) basic steps for coding. Coding summarises the content of short sections of text in a few words on a line-by-line basis. In the study, emphasis was placed on the meaning the lecturers and students made of their narratives as well as the reason it was "the way it is" (Maree 2012, p. 103). The data generated were analysed in tandem with the themes that emerged from the study as per the dictates of the focus of the research. Data trustworthiness was improved through member checking, where themes were sent back to the students and lecturers who made confirmations of whether the data corresponded to their lived experiences in their contributions during the data generation process (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). Furthermore, the trustworthiness of the study was enhanced through data triangulation by using two instruments, namely Google interviews and WhatsApp discussions, to generate data. The use of various lecturers and students from different college settings assisted in confirming the findings. Adherence to strict ethical guidelines to respect participants' secrecy, privacy, self-respect, rights and anonymity was religiously followed.

EVIDENCE FROM THE GROUND

LECTURERS AND SE AMID COVID-19

It was a finding of the study that lecturers provided SE to students who were about to write end-of-year examinations as a means to supplement their income during the COVID-19 pandemic given that they had no other sources of income. In the words of L6:

> COVID-19 was both a challenge and an opportunity for us. The travel ban imposed to contain the pandemic saw most of us confined to our neighbourhoods with no meaningful activities that could generate income for us. I then decided to supplement my meagre salary by providing private lessons to examination-bound students from my college. I knew they had not adequately completed their programmes and thus desperately needed private tutoring to prepare for exams. Thus, an additional activity was needed to kill boredom and at the same enrich my pocket…. the fees for private lessons are tempting because it is charged in US dollars while the salary is still in Zimbabwean dollars.

In agreement, L2 had this statement:

> We used to hear about private lessons being done in primary and high schools. Well, the phenomenon has mushroomed in colleges of education. I provide SE because the salary I get from my employer cannot sustain my family. Therefore, doing private teaching during this pandemic is helping to augment my salary. What I get from the employer is a mockery of the services that I render.

The sentiment is unique in that it revealed that SE was now not confined to high schools but had also encroached on teachers' colleges, a new trend that had not been previously reported anywhere in studies. In justifying why lecturers provide SE, L4 added that:

> As a college lecturer, I am underpaid and generally unable to support my family based on the official government salary. The financial strain is forcing me to look for other means to generate income and SE is one such option.

This finding concurs well with studies that argue that in many developing countries, teacher salaries often hover close to the poverty datum line and suggest that the pattern of classroom teachers supplementing their incomes by tutoring students after school hours could be explained in terms of a necessity rather than a choice (Bray, 2021b; Duong & Silova, 2021). Benefitting from the sociological imagination, this finding is better explained in that teachers provided SE not because of their choice but because they were forced by the need to support their families. It was not their problem but rather a societal concern reflecting poor remuneration in public colleges. Although the lecturers appeared cruel, disreputable and opportunistic when providing SE, they had a heavy liability in which they conglomerated their regular work in the mainstream with lecturing after school hours to support their families. Considering this context, teachers could be presented as victims of the broader economic system. The explanation of the finding from the sociological imagination lens refutes studies that portray teachers who participate in tutoring activities as corrupt and frame their work in terms of profit, competition, or entrepreneurship (Chidhakwa & Chitekuteku, 2012;

Makwerere & Dube, 2019; Bray, 2021; Mahmud, 2021; Wei & Guan, 2021). Rather, the sociological imagination explains that an ideal situation was that teachers in public schools must be well paid so that they remain committed to their duties. This finding underlines just how important it is for developing countries to look into the welfare of the lecturers so that their commitment to what they are employed to do remains uncompromised. Otherwise, lecturers could respond to market signals that again could raise ethical issues that include but are not limited to the neglect of their core duties in colleges.

ONLINE TEACHING AND LEARNING AMID COVID-19

The WhatsApp discussion and Google interviews revealed that students were not technologically savvy and could not access and understand lectures provided during COVID-19-induced online teaching and learning. In the words of S2:

> I benefit very little from COVID-19-induced online teaching. Learning online is difficult, especially for me. I happen to have challenges with the use of the online platforms in use; therefore, accessing the lecture is a hurdle on its own. This online learning thing is a foreign terrain for me. I don't have the skills, nor do I know to navigate the learning process. It is not easy to get and understand lectures using the online mode. In addition, I am more comfortable with the traditional face-to-face learning I learnt from elementary school up to tertiary. The possession of modern Information and Communication Technology tools is yet another challenge that I face.

The finding suggests that COVID-19 had exposed that online teaching and learning were not fully operational and higher education institutions were undergoing radical transformations driven by the need to digitalise education and training processes because college students lacked innate technological capabilities for online learning. In support, S3 said:

> Online teaching and learning were abruptly adopted by our college. This mode of learning demands extra effort. With the limited time available before I write final examinations, I believe online teaching is a sheer waste of time. Rather, I looked for a private tutor to help me prepare for my examinations instead of trying to work out the details of how to access online lectures.

In addition, it emerged from the WhatsApp discussion that lecturers were just scanning and sending notes through the WhatsApp platform without explaining them. S5 complained that:

> We just received pictures of teaching notes taken from textbooks....or extracts of textbooks downloaded from the internet which needed the lecturers' input for us to understand. However, alas, the lecturers' voices were missing. Private lessons provided the missing voice.

From the perspective of the sociological imagination that informed the study, we argue that it was not the lecturers' problem to send pictures of notes and extracts of textbooks but the college's problem of not training the lecturers in online pedagogical skills. As a result, the lecturers were not conversant with online pedagogical skills since if they were, they could have

accompanied the notes with a video and voice as was expected. In the context of the study, the learning content was not explained and the students experienced challenges in mastering it. They then eventually turned to SE.

The findings reflected in the narratives of the students further strengthened several studies' conviction that the overnight shift to online teaching and learning amid COVID-19 in Africa was fraught with challenges such as lack of information and communication technology (ICT) resources, resistance to online learning by students and academic staff and lack of ICT literate skills of users (Adnan & Anwar, 2020; Muftahu, 2020; Chimbunde, 2021). We argue that such a scenario is worrisome given that the process of digital transformation in higher education began years ago and the COVID-19 pandemic accelerated it, leading to fundamental overnight changes. We argue the pandemic could have found us with fundamental resources for the digitalisation of education had institutions of higher education made a conceited effort to digitalise their teaching and learning processes. With this view, preparation for online teaching and learning could have started years back, starting with the procurement of appropriate infrastructure, technological platforms and methodological training of lecturers and students for online delivery using all the technical and educational resources available.

The sentiment expressed by S2 and S3 reinforces the TAM's argument, which claims that ease of use is an important aspect of embracing technology. In the context of this finding, online teaching and learning faced challenges in their acceptance because students believed that using online teaching and learning modes were demanding and needed extra effort. If the online platforms were easy to use, then the chances of acceptance of online teaching and learning by the students were higher. Another critical observation of the finding suggests that there was very little of the perceived usefulness of online teaching and learning when facing examinations shortly (Davis, 1989); hence, acceptance of it rested on whether or not students perceived technology as useful for writing examinations. This finding was in contradiction with current calls for the adoption and application of the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR), which underscores the need to be technologically savvy. The study further argues that SE is following developments in education and online teaching and that learning is the need of the hour given the challenges posed by COVID-19. The question that remains to be answered is as follows: Are there no chances that SE can also be done online using what we may call "Microsoft Schools and Zoom lecturers"? We are yet to see this shortly.

SE AMID COVID-19
The most remarkable finding to emerge from the WhatsApp discussion was that students, on realising their incapacity to learn online, opted for SE

during COVID-19 to compensate for lost lectures and advance their academic achievement since it was a coping strategy. Students revealed that they had to refashion and recalibrate their educational experiences. S5 thus narrated:

> On noticing that I was benefiting very little from online teaching and racing against time to write examinations, I decided to look for another way to learn the same concepts. I then head-hunted lecturers who could provide private tutoring. I was afraid of failing the final examinations, which were soon to be written within months. The private tutor is assisting me to catch up with what I miss from online teaching. Hence, I can write the examinations with confidence.

S1 added that:

> Online teaching and learning need extra time for me to be familiar with its demands. However, time is limited, as I need to concentrate on forthcoming examinations. I do not have time. I need serious revision of my work. No wonder why I looked for a private lecturer.

Our findings extend previous research in this area. In fact, in addition to what was previously reported that SE was an investment in academic work (Bray, 2021b; Mahmud, 2021; Wei & Guan, 2021), we found that students were also drawn to SE because they could not gain from COVID-19-induced online teaching and learning since they had limited time left before the commencement of final examinations. Given that context, the findings indicate that the COVID-19 crisis has served as a catalyst in the emergence of online learning in institutions of higher education and has brought with it many challenges. As such, learning how to navigate the online platforms students was one such challenge that consumed examination preparation time and therefore could disturb the overall academic achievement. Instead of our analysis remaining confined to the standard performance of as a factor that drives students to SE, the sociological imagination lens widens our knowledge that COVID-19-induced online teaching contributed to the rise of SE in colleges of education in Zimbabwe. Failure by students to embrace online teaching and the closeness of the examination dates were driving factors to join SE. This finding significantly differs from previous results reported in the literature, which tended to claim that students regarded SE as a means to improve their school performance and maximise their chances of admission to higher education institutions (Bray, 2021a; Hajar & Abenova, 2021; Mahmud, 2021; Mustafa *et al.*, 2021). The study argues that these students were already in tertiary institutions and thus college admission was no longer a driving factor. Rather, the students were possibly lured by the need to have a better placement in society after completing their studies. The study further argues that it has followed developments in education and that there are chances that SE could be done online through Zoom tutors and Microsoft schools with the unforeseen future of COVID-19.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study has explored the reasons for the rise of SE in Zimbabwe amid COVID-19, drawing from the voices of students and lecturers. The findings show that lecturers and students had different agendas in SE. On the side of the teachers, the emergence to supply private lessons was linked to their meagre remuneration, that was inadequate to support their families. For students, in addition to being a coping strategy to advance their academic achievement, their failure to adjust and embrace online teaching and learning during COVID-19 worked as a driver for them to turn to SE. It is not confined to primary or high schools but has also encroached on institutions of higher education. SE follows the development of education around the world. Online teaching has gained relevance in the education sector and its continuance even after the COVID-19 pandemic and futuristic emergencies are certain. It is not surprising to see the establishment of Zoom lecturers and Microsoft Schools providing SE soon.

Policymakers should revamp salary structures to increase the performance of lecturers. Lecturers need to be paid decent salaries for them to remain motivated and committed to their core business to avoid private lessons that are not sanctioned by the government. The research suggests that policymakers should be serious in initiating the acceptance of the Fourth Industrial Revolution and its use and application in the digital society. The study suggests that ICT be an examinable component for one to gain entry into colleges of education, especially in developing countries. This would ensure that college students who are future teachers are computer literate and will transfer those skills to their future students. In our view, the findings reported representing an excellent initial step toward understanding the emergence of SE in institutions of higher education. Remarkably, the findings of the study have added substantially to our understanding of COVID-19-induced online teaching and learning and SE.

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STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION AND LEADERSHIP AGILITY IN PUBLIC TERTIARY EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS: CRITICAL INSIGHTS ENGAGED

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Abstract

This article seeks to suggest a framework for strategy implementation through leadership agility in tertiary education institutions so that they can attain their national mandate. A desktop study was conducted which included the search of the theoretical and empirical literature, as well as a documentation review. The search identified only a handful of studies exploring both strategy implementation performance and leadership agility in the public sector context, a gap this article seeks to fulfil. The review of documentation focused on the Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ) documents relating to the National Development Strategy and the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Innovation Science and Technology Development (MoHTEISTD) Strategic Plans. The framework integrates six variables of leadership agility; strategy direction, stakeholder engagement, innovation, ICTs, leader focus and the ability to deal with bureaucracy and political interference. Evidence from the private sector currently indicates a positive impact of leadership agility on strategy implementation. The results indicate that leadership agility has a positive effect on strategy implementation.

Keywords: agile leadership, strategic management, tertiary institutions, public sector

INTRODUCTION

The full potential value of any strategic plan is achieved through effective strategy implementation. Yet, globally, strategy implementation is arguably the most significant drawback of strategic management, with empirical studies alluding to failure rates as high as 90%. While strategic planning has become an ubiquitous practice in Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ) public institutions, the implementation is not as effective, which is not surprising given the global trends. The GoZ aims to achieve socio-economic development through national industrialisation and innovation-driven through higher and tertiary education, a philosophy referred to as Education 5.0. It is against this background, that the study designs a framework for strategy implementation through leadership agility.

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Several scholars have expressed concern over the huge strategy implementation gap in the public sector, calling it 'undesirable' and declaring the need for substantial and urgent efforts towards the reduction of the gap (Oliver and Schwella, 2018; Bhimavarapu *et al.,* 2020; Brüggen *et al.,* 2021). If the gap is not resolved, the performance of the public sector is seriously affected (Muwowo and Phiri, 2018; Oliver and Schwella, 2018; Amoo *et al.,* 2019; de Oliveira *et al.,* 2019). In that vein, there is need to develop mechanisms, initiatives, frameworks or models for improving strategy implementation in public tertiary institutions. Previous strategy implementation models and frameworks such as the Mckinsey 7S model, Higgins (2005) 8S Model and Okumus (2003) model have not been very helpful, given the status. In the Zimbabwean public tertiary education sector, no model for strategy implementation exists. Moreover, the few studies on strategy implementation in Zimbabwe have focused on other sectors such as Svotswa (2019) SME; Mapetere *et al. (*2021) telecommunications; Guruwo *et al. (*2019) clothing industry; Chigivi and Mahombo (2020) local government. This, therefore, calls for an urgent need for models that can improve strategy implementation in the tertiary education sector in Zimbabwe. In Zimbabwe, while the official unemployment rate in 2020 stood at 16.3%, most of the youth remain unemployed as demonstrated by the fact that 84% of the economically active population is engaged in the informal sector (Zimbabwe Statistical Agent, 2020).

It is evident that the strategy implementation gap in the public sector is so huge and undesirable (Bhimavarapu *et al.,* 2020; Brüggen *et al.,* 2021). In addition, any strategy implementation failure seriously compromises the performance of the institution and is a loss of resources invested during the strategy planning (Muwowo and Phiri, 2018; Oliver and Schwella, 2018; Amoo *et al.,* 2019; de Oliveira *et al.,* 2019). Therefore, this article is an attempt to develop a mechanism for improving the huge strategy implementation gap in the public sector tertiary education institutions in Zimbabwe. The consequence of the tertiary institutions failing to implement their strategies successfully is a failure not only for the higher and tertiary education sector to fully achieve its strategic objectives, but a potential failure for the education sector to contribute meaningfully to socio and economic development of the economy in line with success stories in literature. Zimbabwe will also potentially fail to reduce the national skills deficit.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Agility _ defined as the capacity to react quickly to rapidly changing circumstances (Walter, 2020) _ has been identified in the private sector as key to successful business performance, in today's dynamic and uncertain business environment. Similarly, leadership agility has been identified as an enabler of high-performing agile organisations (De Smet *et al.,* 2018).

Aldianto *et al.* (2021) further concluded that leadership agility is critical in driving business resilience in a dynamic and rapidly changing environment. The research question, therefore, is: *Could leadership agility be an answer to improving strategy implementation in tertiary education institutions in Zimbabwe?* Currently, little is known about leadership agility and the nature of its relationship with strategy implementation, particularly in the public sector. It is against this backdrop that this article is aimed at reviewing relevant strategy implementation and leadership agility literature to suggest a leadership agility model for tertiary education institutions.

Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) is defined by UNESCO-UNEVOC, (2017) as post-secondary education and training which is formal or informal and is acquired in either or both educational institutions or the workplace and it encompasses skills development before employment and during employment.

Globally, TVET has been identified as a critical pillar of the education and social economic development of nations. This is demonstrated by the important role TVET occupies in the SDG4, through taking three (3) of the ten (10) specific targets of SDG4. The inclusion of TVET in SDG4s is an indication of the importance of TVET to the Education 2030 agenda (SDG4 Education 2030, p. 20; Plance, 2020; Marope *et al.,* 2015). Figure 1 shows Specific Targets for TVET in SDG4.

SPECIFIC TARGETS FOR TVET IN THE SDG4

Figure 1: TVET Specific Targets: Sustainable Development Goal 4 (UNESCO, *Education 2030 Framework for Action*, 2015, p. 18)

Through Targets 4.3; 4.4 and 4.5, SDG4 devotes significant attention to TVET, to achieve economic growth, social equity and sustainability. Through these specific targets, TVET has the potential to address multiple and complex economic, social and environmental challenges faced by today's economies, through skills development in both the youth and adults (UNESCO, 2015). According to UNESCO-UNEVOC Strategy (2016 – 2021; and Marope *et al.* (2015, p.148) one of the major global challenges of today is unemployment, particularly, youth unemployment and employability. The world unemployment rate stood at 5.4% in 2019 (International Labour Organisation, 2020). This situation worldwide will be exacerbated by the economic effects of the Coronavirus Disease of 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic which has led to huge losses of employment worldwide (ILO, 2020; WHO, 2020). The unemployment problem, in particular the youth unemployment and employability, as well as poor-quality and low-paying jobs for the youths, is caused by a lack of opportunities to acquire skills for employability (International Labour Organisation, 2012a). To this end, TVET, which enhances employability through skills development in both the youth and adults is critical for any economy, hence the focus of the study on tertiary education that provides TVET. Therefore, to drive the national objective of human capital skills development for industrialisation and innovation and to address the national critical skills deficit of 68% (Zimbabwe National Critical Skills Audit (NCSA), 2018), TVET provided mainly through tertiary education is critical.

GoZ Education 5.0 philosophy, which is further articulated in the MoHTEISTD 2019-2023 and 2021-25, indicates that the strategy to implement Education 5.0 to enhance TVET, exists. If this is attained, Zimbabwe can achieve socio-economic development which has the potential to lead the entire nation to a middle-income economy by 2030. It is against this background that, this theoretical study seeks to design and present a leadership agility model that can enhance the strategy implementation capacity of tertiary education institutions.

Several scholars consistently view strategy implementation as *the process that turns strategies and plans into action* (Amoo *et al.*, 2019); *the ability to achieve a strategy* (Yang, 2019); *how strategies are implemented and adapted* (Weiser *et al.*, 2020); *the realisation of strategies* (Keoseoglu *et al.*, 2020); *a series of intervention towards desired outcomes* (Greer *et al.*, 2017). There is a consensus among scholars and practitioners today that, without effective strategy implementation, the whole process of strategic planning becomes redundant, worthless and a waste of time and resources (Siddique and Shadbolt, 2016; Hitt *et al*, 2017; Muijs and Reynolds, 2017; Tawse and Tabesh, 2021; Vigfusson *et al.*, 2021). Similarly, Galpin, (2018, p.35) argues that even if a strategy is advantageous, its full potential value is only achieved through effective implementation. In support of that notion,

Bhimavarapu, Kim and Jie Xiong (2020) argue that it is not important how well-designed a strategy is, what matters is if it will realise its intended objectives. Corroborating the idea, several scholars (Homkes and Sull, 2015; Sage, 2015; Andrews, Benyon and Genc, 2017; Hitt *et al.*, 2017; Obeidat *et al.*, 2017; Oliver and Schwella, 2018) regard strategy implementation as the most critical part of strategic management, as it translates the whole strategic management process into action and has the potential to result in the creation of sustenance and competitive advantage. Unfortunately, according to Iglesias (2015) many strategic plans are window dressing that never gets implemented. Consequently, the success of an organisation is determined only when a firm successfully formulates and implements a value-creating strategy (Charity *et al.*, 2017; Kihara *et al.,* 2016). Taken together, these arguments, place strategy implementation as the most powerful pillar of strategic management and is also the main reason why some firms outperform others.

Leadership agility has received scant academic attention and it remains a modern and under-researched phenomenon (Akkaya, 2020). Little is known about leadership agility and the nature of its relationship with strategy implementation., more so, in the context of public higher education institutions (HEIs) in Zimbabwe. Yet it could be the missing link in strategy implementation in today's rapidly changing business environment. De Smet *et al. (*2018) concluded that leadership agility is an enabler of agile organisations, while Aldianto *et al. (*2021) concluded that leadership agility is critical in driving business resilience in a dynamic and rapidly changing environment. Akkaya, (2020) describes agility as a speedy, flexible, responsive and competent response to the challenges in the environment. Similarly, Walter, (2020) defines agility as the capacity to react quickly to rapidly changing circumstances.

According to Joiner (2019) and Joiner and Josephs (2007), leadership agility is achieved firstly when a leader develops over Five Levels of Leadership Agility which he describes as, Expert, Achiever, Catalyst, Co-creator and Synergist. As leaders develop from one stage to another, their mental and emotional capacities and abilities grow, which enables them to deal with more complex and dynamic environments, thereby becoming more agile. In addition, agile leaders can master four competencies which are context setting, stakeholder engagement, creativity and self-leadership (Joiner, 2019). Co-Creators are the ideal agile leaders. They exhibit a sense of shared purpose, believe in collaborations and relationships, have a high capacity for dialogue, exhibit high emotional resilience and can create win-win solutions in the dynamic and often disruptive global economy (Joiner and Josephs, 2007). Unfortunately, Joiner (2019) observes that only 10% of today's leaders have developed Catalyst capacities, resulting in most organisations lacking agile capabilities. This article considers leadership agility from a five-

dimension viewpoint which is; stakeholder engagement, innovation, technology, leadership focus and the ability to deal with bureaucracy and political interferences. The article, therefore, proposes that: *Leadership agility positively influences strategy implementation.*

There is a consensus among scholars and practitioners on the important role of stakeholder engagement in business performance. Stakeholder agility enables organisations to collaborate and partner to share their core competencies, thereby increasing their capabilities to provide products and services that can meet the changing needs and demands of their clients (Aghina, *et al.,* 2018). Various recent empirical studies on the public sector, across the globe, have highlighted the importance of stakeholder engagement in strategy implementation (Cirolia and Berrisford, 2017; Mugambi, 2017; Aguire *et al.,* 2019; Muwowo and Phiri, 2018). Similarly, several studies in the private sector (Alamsjah, 2020; Amoo *et al.,* 2019; Galpin, 2018; Johnson and Scholes, 2016), have also alluded to the same fact that stakeholder engagement and stakeholder buy-in have a positive effect on strategy implementation.

To support stakeholder engagement, agile leaders must have the ability to build effective relationships with stakeholders to improve their organisational performance (Joiner, 2019; Lokman *et al.,* 2019). As such, De Smet *et al. (*2018) challenge agile leaders to come out of silos and embrace a new mindset of partnerships, collaborations, networks and relationship building. This enables the leaders to tap into skills and new ideas, foster inclusion and seek diverse opinions and as a way of embracing innovation (DiFranza, 2021). In support of that view, Joiner (2019) states that the most successful companies are those that create strong, timely alliances and partner effectively with customers, suppliers and other stakeholders. In his review of the role of agility in educational leaders during and the post-COVID-19 pandemic Buffone (2021, p.1) emphasized the importance of partnerships in educational systems reforms. It is, therefore, proposed that: *Stakeholder engagement has a positive effect on strategy implementation.*

Innovativeness includes experimentation, discovery and development of production processes, technologies and new goods or services and it can enhance sustainable competitive advantage and the survival and success of organisations in the increasingly knowledge-driven world (Mohsin *et al.,* 2015; Demartini and Beretta, 2020;). Luqmani, Leach and Jesson (2016) argue that one of today's global challenges is business sustainability and innovation is key to business sustainability. Several other studies have also identified the positive impact of innovation on sustainable business performance (Alhadid, 2016; Agyapong, Agyapong and Poku, 2017; Aldianto, 2021). The challenge is how organisations can maximise their ability to innovate for sustainable value. De Smet (2018) argues that to lead

in dynamic and uncertain environments, agile leaders need to adopt a self-authoring and creative mindset that fosters discovery and encourages innovation and continual experimentation. Similarly, Alhadid (2016) argues that agility enables the capacity of an organisation to innovate, expand its horizons and create ways for the new enhanced process. Other studies (Mutahar *et al.,* 2015; Akay and Demirel, 2017; Samuel *et al.,* 2017;) also identified the ability of transformational leaders to enhance organisational innovation and improve the organisational learning of their employees. It is therefore proposed in the study that: *Innovative agility leads to successful strategy implementation.*

Technological capabilities enable agility through the provision of a fast, flexible, responsive, reliable and effective flow of information across the company (Alhadid, 2016; Akkaya, 2020; Aldianto *et al.,* 2021). Furthermore, technology can enhance the agility levels of organisations through speed and high information capacity (YaşarUğurlu, Çolakoğlu and Öztosun, 2019). According to Guthrie (2019), the development of ICTs in HEIs facilitates new forms of learning and new teaching techniques, which leads to improved quality of the knowledge provided to students ICTs also facilitate information sharing with stakeholders and partners, thereby enhancing flexibility in stakeholder agility (Alhadid, 2016). The great impact of ICTs, through the rapid spread of information across the globe will transform the world in a much bigger way than the Industrial Revolution (Guthrie, 2019). The study hypothesises that: *Technology agility has a positive impact on strategy implementation.*

An agile mindset is essential for agile leadership (Joiner, 2019). However, agile is not something one does, but something one is (Denning, 2018). Agile leaders must focus and change themselves first, before others (*ibid.*). Unfocused agile leaders are good visionaries and change agents but may lack dedication to fully execute and complete prior projects before starting new projects, leading to chaos and instability for their organisations (Coleman, 2017). For an agile leader to withstand the challenges of a volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous (VUCA) business environment, Joiner (2019) concluded that the leader needed to develop and practise self-awareness and motivation, which is essential for the development of cognitive and emotional capacities. Similarly, a study by Gallup's executive leadership research programme spanning over four decades across the globe in both public and private sectors, identified key leadership traits and preparedness, focus and consistency were among the key traits. The study, therefore, formulates the hypothesis: *Leadership focus leads to successful strategy implementation.*

The ability of public administrators in executing their responsibilities is affected by political interference and bureaucracy (Mfuru *et al.*, 2018).

While African public universities face a mirage of operational challenges, political interference and bureaucracy on student access, curriculum content, teaching methods, harassment of academic staff, student leadership, widespread academic corruption, student disturbances, inadequate funding and poor remuneration were consistent in African universities (Oanda, 2016; Asiimwe and Steyn, 2017; Kwateng, 2020; Mugoniwa, Tsimba, Mutembedza, 2021; Nwafor and Joseph, 2021;). The effect of political interference on the public sector includes poor service delivery, abuse of power, inexcusable delay, maladministration, improper conduct, poor and lack of commitment among public staff and when the administrative institution is politicised chances for corruption increase (Figaji 2016; Gevers 2016; Oanda, 2016; Sebola 2017; Mfuru *et al.,* 2018). For HEIs to achieve their global expectations of knowledge advancement, their research and teaching ought to be independent both ethically and intellectually and free from all forms of political authority and economic power (Nwafor and Joseph, 2021). Therefore, *the ability to deal with bureaucracy and political interference positively affects strategy implementation.*

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Literature and document review approaches were used to get detailed information on leadership ability and strategy implementation. The literature review was conducted through the Google Scholar search engine and databases such as Ebsco, Emerald Group Publishing, JSTOR and Wiley Online Library. The review of documentation included The Government of Zimbabwe (GoZ) documents relating to the National Vision 2030, National Development Strategy1, Higher and Tertiary Education such as the Manpower Development Act and Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Innovation Science and Technology Development (MoHTEISTD) Strategic Plans and MoHTEISTD documents relating to Education 5.0 Philosophy. Strategic implementation theories (systems theory and resource-based view) and leadership agility theories (transformational leadership theory, adaptive and dynamic capabilities theories) were reviewed to have a better understanding of both the strategy implementation and leadership agility variables. It also helped to identify indicators of the variables and the relationship between the variables. By having insights into each variable, it was easy to develop a tentative model for leadership agility, which integrates six variables of leadership agility; strategy direction, stakeholder engagement, innovation, ICTs, leader focus and the ability to deal with bureaucracy and political interference.

RESULTS

It is evident that strategy implementation challenges exist in public tertiary education in Zimbabwe (Kangonyo, 2015; Katsande, 2016; MoHTEISTD, 2016; Dube and Xie, 2018; Shereni, 2020; Mugoniwa *et al.,* 2021UNESCO, 2017), a potential threat to the attainment of Education 5.0, which is the

industrialisation and innovation agenda of the Zimbabwe National Vision 2030. Furthermore, if this problem is not resolved, the national skills deficit of 68% (NSCA, 2018) will not be closed as this depends on the performance of higher and tertiary education to provide relevant skills for industry and commerce. As such, ineffective strategy implementation potentially fails in the tertiary education sector to contribute meaningfully to the socio-economic development of the economy in line with success stories in literature.

The Zimbabwean education system comprises 13 years of primary and secondary education and post-secondary education called Higher and Tertiary education. Higher education refers to university education which is degree awarding (Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education Act (ZIMCHE, 2006). On the other hand, tertiary education encompasses TVET) which are generally provided through polytechnic colleges, teachers' education colleges, vocational and industrial training centres (VITCs) and all other post-secondary colleges providing certification (Manpower Planning and Development Act Amendment, 2020). There are nine (9) public polytechnic colleges spread throughout the ten provinces of the country, eleven (11) public teacher education colleges and three (3) private ones. It is largely through the tertiary education institutions that provide TVET, that technical skills will largely be achieved.

The GoZ is set to achieve socio-economic development through industrialisation, modernisation and innovation that is driven through higher and tertiary education (GoZ, National Development Strategy 1, 2021-2025). The stance by the GoZ to drive national development through education is in line with global trends, which emphasize the fundamental role of education for social and economic development and growth (World Bank Education Strategy, 2020, pp.13; Sustainable Development Goal on Education ((SDG4), 2030)). To drive the national agenda, the GoZ the MoHTEISTD, reconfigured the existing higher education philosophy which consisted of Education, Research and Community, to incorporate Innovation and Industrialisation, a philosophy known in Zimbabwe as Education 5.0. (GoZ, MoHTEISTD Strategy Plan, 2021-2025; GoZ, Education 5.0 Doctrine, 2018). The philosophy is a complete paradigm shift from the colonial education philosophy which restricted human skills development for the black majority, leading to limited social economic development (Nziramasanga, 1999). The new Education 5.0 philosophy is premised on a heritage-based education, focusing on innovation and industrialisation through education that leads to knowledge development using own national resources for own national solutions (GoZ, MoHTEISTD Strategy Plan, 2019-2023; GoZ Education 5.0 Doctrine, 2018). This philosophy places great emphasis on technical education. Zimbabwe National Critical Skills Audit (NCSA) (2018) identified a skills deficit of 68% in technical skills.

To develop the model, the study adopted the indicators for strategy implementation developed by Mnjama and Koech (2019) which are strategy control, rate of strategy implementation and strategy evaluation. For leadership agility, indicators used are stakeholder agility, innovation agility, leader Focus and Technology which were adapted from various scholars as indicated in Table 1.

Table 1: Variables and their indicators *(Researcher's compilation)*

Dimension/variable	Indicators
Strategy implementation	• Strategy Control Systems • Rate of Strategy Implementation • Strategy evaluations (*ibid.*, 2019)
Stakeholder engagement	• partnerships, collaborations and networks (Joseph & Joiner, 2007, Joiner 2019, De Smet, 2018) • Collaborations (DiFranza, 2019) • Relationships (Lokman *et al.,* 2019; Aghina *et al.,* 2018; Buffone (2021)
Innovation agility	• R&D Kihara *et al.,* 2016) • Introduce new products (Dabi´c *et al.* 2021) • Development of existing technology and introduction of new products (Aldianto, 2021)
Technology	• Knowledge and skills • Tools, machines and equipment • R&D funding • Infrastructure Kihara *et al.* (2016)
Leadership focus	• self-awareness and personal developmental motivation (Joiner, 2019)
Ability to deal with bureaucracy & political interference	• Inadequate funding, excessive rules (Bakare, 2021) • Inadequate Infrastructure (Asiimwe and Steyn, 2017) • Student demographics (Guthrie, 2019) • Decision Making (Mfuru *et al.,* 2018) • Appointments of key positions (Sebola 2017; Oanda, 2016)

DISCUSSION

The national vision of the GoZ is to attain a middle-income economy by 2030, through skilled human capital development, to be driven by higher and tertiary education (GoZ, National Development Strategy 1, 2021-2025). It is, therefore, of paramount importance that public tertiary education institutions successfully implement their strategic plans to attain their strategic objectives so that the GoZ achieves its national vision. This is in line with literature which states that the whole process of strategic planning is deemed unworthy if the formulated strategies are not implemented successfully (Siddique and Shadbolt, 2016; Obeidat *et al.,* 2017; Galpin,

2018). However, regardless of its significance to the performance of organisations, strategy implementation has long been classified in the literature as a mammoth task resulting in significant failures of the process (Andrews *et al.*, 2017; Wheelen *et al.*, 2017). Globally, the strategy implementation failure rate is estimated to be as high as 60% to 90% (Childress, 2013; Cruz, 2013; Oliver and Schwella, 2018; Verweire, 2018; Cândido and Santos, 2019;). In Africa, several empirical studies in the public sector (Kamande, 2015; Njoroge *et al.*, 2015; Mugambi, 2017; Mawowo and Phiri, 2018; Kombate *et al.,* 2021; Taylor *et al.*, 2018) have shown the same trend of huge strategy implementation failure.

In Zimbabwe, the State Enterprise Regulatory Authority (SERA) (2017) has stated that public entities perform poorly as they struggle to achieve their strategic plans. Similarly, Chigivi and Mahombo, (2020) identified poor strategy implementation in local government in Zimbabwe. Other empirical studies on higher education in Zimbabwe (Mugoniwa *et al.,* 2021; Muramba, 2017) have also demonstrated poor execution of strategic plans. Studies on tertiary education in Zimbabwe (Shereni, 2020; Dube and Xie, 2018; UNESCO, 2017; MoHTEISTD, 2016; Katsande 2016; Kangonyo, 2015) indicate that both poor strategic plans and poor strategy implementation have led to poor standards of TVET)

CONCLUSION AND THE FRAMING OF A THEORETICAL MODEL
As alluded to in the introduction earlier, no model exists in the Zimbabwe public tertiary education sector for leadership strategy implementation guidance and prior models have not assisted given the existing strategy implementation failure rate of up to 90% both in the public sector and private sector.

The article has examined the role that leadership agility plays in strategy implementation. Extant literature has shown that in general, the components of leadership agility, namely leadership focus, technology, innovation, stakeholder engagement and the ability to deal with bureaucracy and political interference have a positive effect on strategy implementation. However, it is suggested that empirical research be conducted to produce evidence that helps in validating the proposed framework.

A theoretical model was developed based on the reviewed literature. The model hypothesises that leadership agility can drive effective and successful strategy implementation. Leadership agility is driven by the following dimensions: strategy direction, stakeholder engagement, innovation,

technology and leadership focus, the ability to deal with bureaucracy and political interference and the public sector can positively influence strategy implementation. The relationship is illustrated in Figure 2.
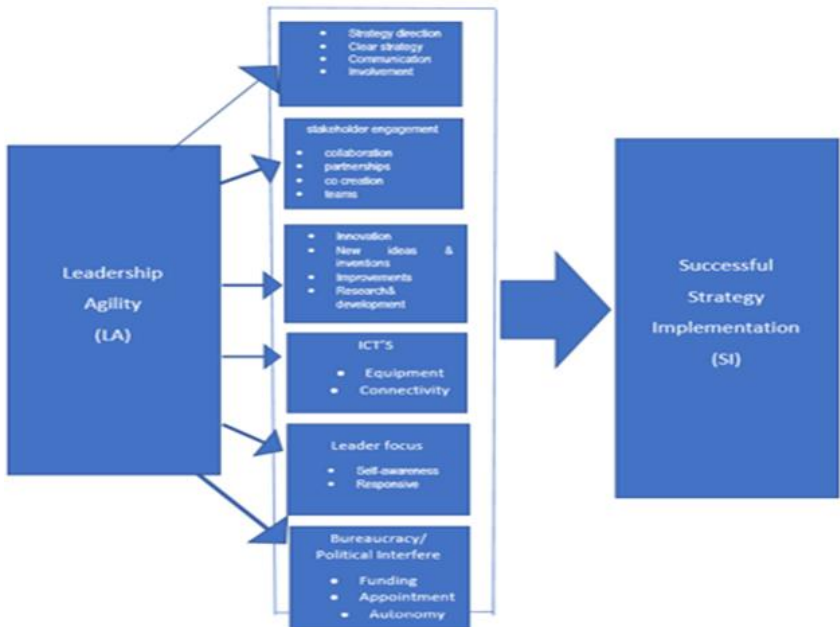
Figure 2: Theoretical model of leadership agility influence on strategy implementation

The relationships demonstrate that leadership agility as measured by strategy direction, partnerships, innovation, ICT, leadership focus and ability to deal with political interference and bureaucratic processes, positively influences strategy implementation. The effect of leadership agility on strategy implementation and the recommendations, thereof, are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2: Variables of the framework (Authors, 2022)

Aspect in Agility	Emerging Discussion	Authors	Options
Strategy Direction	Literature suggests that while the public sector has strategic plans, the implementation is not as successful.	de Oliveira *et al.,* (2018); Verweire, (2018); Muwowo and Phiri, (2018); Kihara, *et al.,* (2016); Njoroge *et al.,* (2015)	Agility in strategy implementation is an enabler

Stakeholder engagement in strategy implementation	Evidence suggests stakeholder engagement is key in sharing resources and a way of financing projects.	Buffone, (2021); Love, (2020); Guthrie, (2019); Aghina *et al.,* (2018); Raporu, (2016)	The public sector should embrace partnerships, collaborations and the engagement of all stakeholders.
How innovation affects strategy implementation	Evidence suggests that innovation culture is minimal in the public sector	De Smet, (2018); Teece *et al.,* (2016)	An innovative environment is a key to agility; hence the public sector is encouraged to create an innovative environment.
Effect of technology on strategy implementation	Literature suggests that investment in ICT soft and hard infrastructure is key to agility in the public sector and this is lagging.	Kihara *et al.,* (2016); Alhadid, (2016; Akkaya, (2020; Aldianto *et al., (*2021)	The availability of resources for ICT infrastructure is required.
Leadership focus on strategy implementation	Evidence from the literature suggests that an agile mindset, focused, decisive and quick and flexible decision-making is lacking in the public sector	(Joiner, 2019); De Smet, (2018)	Bureaucracy, redtape and rigidity must be eliminated to enable leaders to make quick and flexible decisions. Leadership must be given the leeway to think, innovate and act speedily. Leaders should change their mindset and embrace agility,
Ability to deal with bureaucracy and political interference in strategy implementation	Evidence from the literature points out that most leaders in the public sector are usually politically loyal to their appointing authority. This makes them more allegiant to the appointing authority than to what needs to be done to situations. Achieving agility in this case becomes a difficult task.	Bakare, (2021); Asiimwe and Steyn, (2017); Guthrie, (2019); Mfuru *et al.,* (2018)	Objective, merit-based and independent appointments are needed. Autonomous governance structures are needed.

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