The Dynamics of Local Public Policy Processes: An In-Depth Analysis of the Educational System in Zimbabwe

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Abstract

This paper unpacks various educational policies that have been put forward with some having been able to make long lasting impact on the Zimbabwean education sector. The past three decades, has witnessed the educational system encountering innumerable challenges whose implications on service delivery are wide and deep rooted. Consequently, the education is premised upon a centralised system. Conversely, there have been calls and the need to transform policies which had been marred by colonial connotations hence the need to introduce modern policies which are in tandem with the contemporary world. The study is qualitative in nature as it used in-depth interviews and descriptive analysis. More so, document review of existing literature, reports and research papers were analysed. Educational policies among other issues are failing to effectively respond to the social and economic needs as well as political conscientization of the heterogeneous citizenry. The study recommends that the there is need to embrace the bottom-up approach as it encourages capacity building and participation. As mutual understanding and harmonisation of schools and the head office is imperative in line with the provisions of the new Zimbabwean curriculum of 2015. Moreover, a comprehensive and judicious approach to inclusive, participatory and policy process system is paramount towards the revamping of the education sector towards improved service provision and economic development anchored on innovativeness, science, technology and engineering.

Keywords: curriculum, education system, public policy, transformation

1. Introduction

The education system in Zimbabwe has gone through transformation from the pre-colonial period to the post-colonial period. During the colonial period public policy in education intentionally served and perpetuated the motives of the white settlers, (Zvobgo, 1996) while simultaneously ensuring their control and superiority over the native blacks. However in post-independent Zimbabwe the ZANU PF government embarked on significant transformation of the education system. The transformation in the education system has seen several education policies being put forward in an effort to transform the education system, promote equity and equality, improve the education system and to ensure that the education system evolve in tandem with the ever changing global trends. This paper, therefore seek to look at different education policies that have been implemented in Zimbabwe with special reference to their purpose, achievements and challenges. Public policy is anything that a government chooses to undertake or not to undertake, Dye (1972). There is need to have a government for there to be a public policy and the government can make a choice on what to undertake or not to. Buse, Mays and Walt (2005) point out that policy process starts with initiation, development, negotiation, communication, implementation and evaluation of policies. Thus policy process will start from need identification and issues to be addressed, followed by the crafting of policy framework which will then be put into practice, finally the policy's worth is assessed. When analyzing public policy Goldwin (1980) an earnest attempt will be made to ascertain the costs and benefits of various policy alternatives and to evaluate actual or proposed governmental activities. Modern public policy analysis should consciously analyses public policies themselves, deliberately examine the public policy control systems, comparatively measure the possible or probable economic costs and benefits of the actual and various public policy alternatives and systematically evaluate the actual practical results produced by a specific public policy, Marume (1988). in this case public policy analysis is evidently important in providing evidence for decisions made to ascertain if the programmes in existence should be prevail or not or make the appropriate and

necessary adjustments. Therefore public policy analysis focuses on analysis of policies themselves and on the likelihood results of various policy alternatives.

2. Theoretical Underpinnings

The study in an attempt to understand public policy analysis the Institutional model will be used in analyzing public policy in education. The Institutional Models is rooted on the constitution, the dictates of the judicial system and the demands of common laws. Cochron and Malone (2014) argue that under the Institutional model a policy process will only become a public policy when it is adopted, implemented, and enforced by the government and its different institutions. Thus the government departments are used as the channels for legitimizing policy once it is adopted by the government. Governmental policies give legal rights and duties that are reciprocal, affect all the citizens and the government has the sole right to utilize force on those who go against its policies, Cochron and Malone (2014). Therefore the analysis of public policies in education under the Institutional model exhibit how the policies are formulated and implemented the benefits of the policies, their shortcomings and would be beneficial if the policies were implemented from a different perspective.

3. Methodology

The study utilized a qualitative methodology research design and respondents were selected from twenty-five schools, ten secondary schools and fifteen primary schools. The design ensured that the s phenomenon under scrutiny will be handled under natural settings thereby enabling the study to be limited of external influence. The study is qualitative in nature as it used in-depth interviews and descriptive analysis. More so, document review of existing literature, reports and research papers were analysed. Structured questionnaires were issued to respondents to find out views on public policy processes in education. In-depth interviews were held with school administrators from the selected schools to get their detailed understanding of public policy processes in education.

4. Literature Review

4.1 Education Policies in Zimbabwe

Kurasha and Chabaya (2013) argue that politicians and political groups play a significant role in influencing educational processes since education has the potential to be utilized as a tool of furthering political ideologies. The ideological apparatus are therefore used in the formulation of educational policies in Zimbabwe, (Zvobgo, 1994). Considering the role played by the government in policy formulation in education shifts in political ideologies will have an impact in the educational system. In the case of Zimbabwe the ideological intentions of national policy and the infrastructure of capitalism inherited from the white settlers influenced the formation of educational policies in independent Zimbabwe (Maravanyika, 1990). Since the pre-independent policies in education sought to promote white supremacy over the black at independence the ZANU PF government embarked on policies that enshrined the notions of social justice and equality. Thus Kaseke et al (1998) point out that when the Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front (ZANU PF) government came into power in 1980 declared socialism as its guiding philosophy. The analysis of policies in education sector (Haddad and Daemsky, 1995) begins with the identification and appreciation of the major sectoral issues relevant to the country and these issues may be examined under six categories, These categories are access to educational opportunities, equity in the allocation of educational services, structure of the educational system, internal efficiency, external efficiency and institutional arrangement for the management of the sector. In this regard this presentation seeks to carry out an in-depth analysis of policies in education which cover these categories

4.2 Education for All Policy

The policy was embraced at independence by the ruling ZANU PF government in an effort to reverse the discriminatory and dual policy of education which was being pursued by the Rhodesian government, (Zhou and Zvoushe, 2012). This policy was in tandem with the objectives of scientific socialism which sought to attain equity and equality in accessing education while improving the prevailing state of the black people. Mubika and Bukaliya (2011) observed that the EFA policy was carried out with political and moral imperatives and Zhou and Zvoushe (2012) say that formulation of this policy was centralized and came from the top going down. However the policy aimed at the welfare of the nation's citizens and nation reconstruction. This saw the expansion of the education system and redistribution of access to education. The benefits realized from the policy included the production of a large number of graduates who got employed across the different sectors of the economy. In addition Galabawa (2001) points out that EFA resulted in the attainment of high levels of literacy in the country and Avenstrup, Liang and Nelleman (2004) view the policy as a tool that churned out a generation that could exhibit functional literacy thus breaking the vicious circle of poverty. However the policy on the other hand had a toll on the quality of education since resources were spread thinly over an increased demand for education, Mabika and Bukaliya,

(2011). The huge demand for education was not matched with the number of trained teachers, their working conditions and supply of quality and adequate infrastructure, teaching and learning materials. Thus Gatawa (1999) points out that increased learner enrolment put unbearable pressure on the existing infrastructure and resources. Therefore the EFA policy was implemented to enhance access to educational opportunities and equity in the allocation of educational services.

4.3 The Zimbabwe National Orphan Care Policy

The ZNOCP seeks to ensure that orphaned and vulnerable children are able to access education, food, health services, and national registration documents and be protected from abuse and exploitation through coordinated effort by government and civil society with the full participation of children. Bhaiseni, (2016) says Child Protection Committees (CPCs) are established in terms of the ZNOCP. In Zimbabwe schools there are Child Protection Committees made up of two Guidance and Counseling teachers, boy child, girl child and one school development committee member. The CPCs are responsible for identifying children in need of care and protection, providing assistance where possible, referring to appropriate service providers and mobilizing resources. The presence of these committees in schools has helped a lot in retaining children in schools.

The ZNOCP besides CPC, in an effort to enhance children's access to education since it is a basic human right Zimbabwe also introduced the Basic Education Assistance Module [BEAM] in 2001. The Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) policy was introduced in 2001 Gwirayi (2010) and focused on access to education as a social protection intervention and Dlakama (2015) aimed at increasing educational opportunities to disadvantaged learners. Thus the programme targeted orphaned and vulnerable children and catered for their levies, school and examination fees. Therefore this policy aimed at fulfilling the provisions of the 1987 Education Act which stated with absolute certainty that education was a primary human right. Thus through BEAM Community Selection Committees schools in Zimbabwe identify OVCs and select those in dire need and their names are forwarded to the Department of Social Welfare. These OVCs have seen their fees and levies paid for by the government. In this case BEAM has gone a long way in enhancing children's access to education. From its inception the BEAM programme was funded by the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe until 2008.

However from 2009-2011 the government received US$30 million from donors which complemented the government's effort of US$ 33 million from 2010-2011(Dlakama, 2015). However the functionality of CPC in schools is also affected by the shortage or absence of resources to help those children identified to be in need. BEAM program does not pay for extra lessons and vacation school for OVCs and this puts the OVCs at a disadvantage. Mutasa (2015) point out that due to inadequate funds some deserving children are left out when allocated funds are exhausted. Besides that government of late has not been forthcoming in disbursing BEAM payments to schools as a result there is a huge backlog of BEAM payments dating back to 2014. There is need for the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Public Service Labour and Social Welfare to cut on bureaucratic red tape to ensure timeous disbursement of funds to schools, (Mutasa, 2015).The delays in disbursements incapacitates small schools whose greater part of levies comes from BEAM allocations. As for the school feeding program the issue of relish is a challenge to most schools thus draining the schools' already dry coffers or overburdening already burdened parents. Dlakama (2015) points out that the benefits from BEAM are not being enjoyed by the intended beneficiaries and the government should improve its checks and balances on the programme. Thus Monitoring and Evaluation is very important to ensure that the programmes benefits are reaching the intended beneficiaries. Failure to effectively monitor Dlakama (2015) the programme would result in manipulation by leadership in schools prejudicing the orphaned and vulnerable children in the process. Moreover Gordon et al (2014) emphasize that the BEAM policy has been criticized for assisting in-school OVCs whilst paying no attention to out of school OVCs who are failing altogether to be in school.

4.4 Early Childhood Development Programme

The Early Childhood Development ECD programme was in operation since the pre-colonial period CIET (1999) although it was predominantly meant for white children. However the programme was launched in 1981 (UNESCO 2005) and this saw ECD centers being launched by the Ministry of Community Development and Women Affairs. The ECD centers were community owned and Chikutuma and Mawere (2013) assert that communities were in charge of recruiting teachers, procured materials, equipment and infrastructure without government support. However international influence through the Jomtein Conference of 1980 and the Dakar Conference of 2000 resulted in the establishment and operation of the ECD programme in 2000 (Chikutuma and Mawere, 2013). This motivated the government to come up with an ECD policy which was decreed in Circular Minute Number 14 of August 2001. The Circular Minute advised all primary schools to enhance ECD education access integrating ECD A and B into the mainstream school. CIET (1999) argue that the promotion of holistic

development of ECD learners by providing a stimulating surrounding to help them to explore and attain their potential for school and life-long learning were the main objectives of the ECD programme. Hence, this strengthened the mental development of learners at a very early age.

4.5 School Development Committee/Association Policy

In an effort to enhance the participation of communities in the running and development of schools in their locality the government came up with a policy that would gave the communities an official mandate to manage schools, Chung, 2008. This resulted in the Amendment of the Education Act of 1987 in an effort to legitimize the participation of communities in education. Thereafter SDAs and SDCs were established following the Education Amendment Act of 1991 which prescribed their establishment. Sango 2014 points out that the Statutory Instrument Number 87 of 1992 provides the guidelines that mandate SDCs to facilitate the participation of the community in the running and development of schools in their community in order to realize high quality education. Thus both developed and developing countries have recognized internationally the policy of giving communities the power to have a say in the running of schools in their locality as a significant strategy for enhancing quality in education, (UNESCO, 1994). The policy gave communities the autonomy to chart the development path in their schools, promoted transparency and accountability over the use of school funds and resources. The policy promoted transparency as it prescribes the formation of a School Development Committee and a finance sub-committee that presides over the use of school funds. The holding of a mandatory Annual General Meeting promotes accountability as the school administration and the elected SDC members report to the parents and other stakeholders on the use of funds in the school and their achievements in terms of development in the school. This gave communities a sense of ownership of the school thus promoting teamwork amongst community members as they felt it imperative to participate in the development of their school. However it should be noted that this policy Bray (2003) like any other large scale policy has been formulated on the false premise that each community comprises of a group of individuals who share the same mutual interests. This is not the case in reality and McDonough (2001) argues that communities are heterogeneous groups which differ in various demographic properties. Thus while the policy is meant for the greater good of community participation in education White 1996 argues that individuals and groups in a community are more likely to display varying interests in the way they participate in education.

4.6 School Feeding Programme

The programme came into effect focusing on learners who had dropped out of school due to hunger (Dlakama, 2015). Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) launched the programme to ensure learner retention in primary schools and afford hunger drop outs to return to school. Initially the programme catered for learners in junior grades but now it also caters for all junior grades. Dlakama (2015) argues that the School Feeding Programme (SFP) brings gender equality in education, enhances food security, alleviates poverty and promotes nutrition and health and agricultural development. Thus, the role played by SFP is significant as it allows learners to grow to grow healthy and remain in school for a prolonged period. This enhances learners' completion rate in primary schools. In this regard, SFP is a powerful policy mechanism which seeks to increase education access and enhance equality among learners of different backgrounds. Alderman, Hoddinott and Kinsley (2006) from a study they conducted found out that malnutrition delayed learners' entry into school leading to reduced schooling, smaller bodies and reduced capacity to earn income when they grow up.

4.7 Inclusive Education Policy

The government of Zimbabwe does not have legislation on inclusive education (Samkange, 2013). However, policies and policy statements exist which clearly signify the Zimbabwe government's position on inclusive education. Chimhenga, (2016) points out that Zimbabwe adopted inclusive education system in order to address barriers to learning for children with disabilities, hence the inclusiveness was meant to ensure that marginalized students with special needs education are integrated into the least restrictive environment as required by the United Nations declaration that gives children the right to receive appropriate education, (UNESCO, 1994; Dekeza and Kufakunesu, 2017). By enforcing inclusive education in all schools Zimbabwe is ensuring that all children irrespective of cultural, social or learning background get equivalent learning opportunities in all kinds of schools. For example the Leonard Cheshire Trust Zimbabwe has been working in tandem with the MoPSE in promoting the provision of inclusive primary education facilities for children with disabilities. This has seen the Trust providing learning materials and renovating selected inclusive primary education centers in each district to ensure that the schools become inclusive education models in their clusters and districts. It is important to note that there is no specific legislation of inclusive education in Zimbabwe, however there are a number of government policy issues that relate to the position of inclusive education, for example, the Zimbabwe Education Act (1996) the

Disabled Persons Act (1996) which advocates for non-discrimination in the provision of education and non-discrimination of people with disabilities in Zimbabwe and the Education Secretary's Policy Circular Number 36 of 1990. Through the Education Secretary's Policy Circular Number 36 of 1990, schools have been seen to undertake location inclusion, inclusion with partial withdrawal, inclusion with clinical remedial instruction and unplanned inclusion. All these curricula options are meant to ensure that children realize their right to education. Although, these policies have been put forward, they do have weaknesses which emanates from compliance and effectiveness as monitoring is sporadic.

Like any other policy program the issue of inclusive education has had its fair share of challenges. Musengi et al (2010) argue that on inclusive education there is lack of resources, lack training among teachers and lack of commitment by policy makers. Thus, the success of inclusive education hinges on the provision of adequate material, financial and human resources. For these to be availed there is need for policy makers to fully show their commitment by drawing inclusive education specific policies that are backed fully with financial and trained human resources. Failure to address these challenges has dire consequences; the realization of the right to education by disadvantaged, disabled and marginalized children becomes elusive. Jenjekwa, Rutoro and Runyowa (2013) argue that within teacher training education there exist a major fissure of a vibrant inclusive education practice and this cavity may become an impediment in implementing inclusive education in Zimbabwe schools. Training teachers on inclusive education together with vulnerable and marginalized groups helps to amour teachers with basic and pre-requisite skills and attitudes needed to enable them to handle different learners in inclusive schools and settings (Florian and Rouse 2009; Munyaradzi, 2012; Parawira, 2016). While the Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (CIET) (1999) has made solid guidelines on how to implement inclusive education Chikwature et al 2016 argue that in terms of implementation nothing has been achieved so far except mere lip-service on inclusive education. Moreover teacher training colleges are not incorporating inclusive education in their curricula programme (Mafa and Makuba, 2013; Pazvakavambwa, 2015).

4.8 Stem Policy

The successes witnessed in the constructed spaceships and warfare artillery motivated countries mostly from the countries of the Global South (GS) to embrace Science Technology Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) in their curriculum (White (2014, Jie, 2016). STEM thus, is a contemporary education movement Parawira (2016) that seeks to equip learners with scientific, technological, engineering and mathematical skills needed to drive development. As a result STEM has been found to be the riposte to the problems bedeviling contemporary societies today. It is against this background that the Australian Government (2014) has noted that STEM education immense benefits'. Firstly, STEM skills are pivotal the running and progress of projects in Research and Development as well as the operations of competitive firms. In addition education in STEM, impart content knowledge to learners and further attempts to establish frameworks of tackling new global problems. Likewise seventy-five percent of the fastest growing occupations today according to global research require STEM skills and knowledge (Mavhiki, Nyamwanza and Dhoro, 2013; Parawira, 2016). Besides that STEM education fosters a generic and quantitative skills and way of thinking and this allows individuals to notice and group opportunities. Furthermore, STEM has been undisputedly recognized to be a prime key for increasing productivity, developing more and better jobs, boosting competitiveness and growing the economy. Lastly, through its lack of ideology and shared intellectual tradition STEM is commended for its ability to bridge cultural divides. It is against this background of potential benefits that the Zimbabwe government saw if fit to embrace STEM into its education curriculum.

Dekeza and Kufakunesu (2017) assert that Zimbabwe started the implementation of STEM in 2016 and the success of this curriculum hinges on institutional physical infrastructure support, teacher training in teaching STEM curriculum, providing students STEM support and providing a STEM Affirmative Action Program. On physical infrastructure support different studies conducted by Ejiwale (2013), Gadzirayi et al (2016) and Dekeza and Kufakunesu (2017) revealed that the state of physical infrastructure in schools did not meet the expected standards of STEM curriculum. More so, Zvavahera (2015) revealed that the unavailability of laboratories in Mazowe district schools resulted in ninety per cent of the schools not offering science subjects. On the training of teachers to teach STEM curricular Gadzirayi et al (2016) argue that from their study it emerged that Zimbabwe was hand-capped in terms of teachers' adequacy who can teach STEM curricular and they also bemoaned the giving of student support on STEM education whilst there are no laboratories and the required infrastructure in schools. On the issue of STEM Affirmative Action Programme in schools White (2014) asserts that having a technologically literate citizenry is one of the major aims of STEM education. Therefore, if the main objective is to be attained there should be no discrimination and marginalization of any groups of people in the provision of STEM education.

4.9 Results Based Management

The government of Zimbabwe adopted the Result Based Management system from Malaysia and introduced it to achieve effective implementation of projects and programmes focusing on outputs and outcomes while optimizing scarce resources, Madhekeni (2012). The RBM policy is premised on financial accountability, management accountability and programme accountability, Pazvakavambwa (2015). Thus, RBM came into effect through RBM policy guidance circular in May 2005, Zinayama, Nhema and Mutandwa (2015) advising civil service departments and stakeholders that RBM has been adopted. This showed a commitment to improve performance in service delivery in based on the findings made by the Kavran Public Service Review Commission report which articulated that World Bank (2012) the civil service workers were not budget minded, lazy, de-motivated, indecisive unaccountable and insensitive to their clients and duties. Madhekeni (2012) thus argues that increased resource constraint, demand for better quality and more responsive services by the public, the demand by donors for efficient and effective utilization of limited funds and the shift by politicians towards being more sensitive and service oriented triggered the need for adopting RBM. In addition there has been increasing challenges brought about by globalization and regional integration. Moreover Munyaradzi (2012) argues that RBM was adopted because the private and public sector demanded better services and infrastructure for development and growth. Thus the MOESAC had to shift from activity completion to results oriented performance and the need was to ensure judicious management of scarce and limited resources.

RBM adoption resulted in the shifting from a focusing on inputs and activities to focusing on outputs, outcomes, impact and the need for sustainable benefits and Munyaradzi (2012) asserts that better implementation and communication, stronger capacity development, more realistic schedules and useful evaluation results are the benefits of focusing on results. RBM thus ensures improved management effectiveness and accountability in achieving results and Madhekeni (2012) points out that RBM was reviewed as the best international practice in terms of managing public affairs in effort to meet the demands of good governance from its citizens. However, despite the perceived benefits attached to RBM several challenges have been noted to impede the policy's effectiveness. Madhekeni (2012) points out that resource constraint, change management inertia, corruption, lack of will from political leadership, poor implementation of Result Based Budgeting, political uncertainty contributed to unstable policy environment and weak buy in of RBM and performance contracts by Heads of Ministries as challenges faced by RBM system in Zimbabwe. In addition, leadership commitment is crucial in policy implementation and leaders have been blamed for the failure of RBM implementation. Moreover RBM has been a victim of culture driven resistance (Mayne, 2007; Mavhiki et al., 2013). Thus despite the demand to change civil servants still maintain the business as usual attitude in the discharge of their duties. There have been difficulties faced by governments in changing the culture of public servants Siddique (2010) in Canada, Thailand and Malaysia in order to accommodate the RBM philosophy.

4.10 National Gender Policy and Affirmative Action Policy

The Gender Policy in Zimbabwe was launched in 2004 and stipulates guidelines for the mainstreaming of gender in education and other various sectors of the economy (UNGEI, 2010; Kurasha and Chabaya, 2013). The NGP came into being in an effort to reinforce the dictates of the constitution and the Education Act which outlines the foundations for gender equity and equality in education. While policies put forward after independence were meant to eradicate the discriminatory tendencies brought about by the colonialists. Dzvimbo, Magijani and Zimhondi, (2018) argue that the Amendment of the Education Act in 2004 ensured that the Act was brought into line with the NGP ensuring that discrimination is further prohibited on the basis of gender. While the Ministry of Education Sport Arts and Culture has measures put in place for evaluating textbooks and examinations for gender sensitivity UNGEI (2010) contends that from analysis made on selected textbooks at primary level all approved by MOESAC there was evidence that gender stereotypes still exists. Therefore gender stereotyping still remains a challenge in learning materials despite meaningful efforts being made by the ministry. It is mandatory to re-orient and staff develop authors and publishers of textbooks if gender stereotyping is to be dealt with. Gudhlanga and Chirimuuta (2012) maintain that Zimbabwean school textbooks showed that gender prejudice may creep unconsciously into the school curriculum unless the issue of gender is addressed openly.

In line with the NGP is the Affirmative Action Policy which was introduced UNGEI (2010) to increase female enrolment at tertiary education following recommendations of the Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (1999). The government adopted a quota system of admitting female students with lower entry points at universities and tertiary institutions. At secondary school level girls were allowed to enroll into science subjects with lower points than boys UNGEI (2010) and in the public service Affirmative Action Policy was introduced in 1992 for a short period and was replaced by open promotion policy based on merit and qualification. In response to NGP and AAP a 2010 MOESAC regulation allows three months maternity and paternity leave for pregnant

school girls and boys who are found to impregnate them respectively and policy circular 35 of 1993, MOESAC 1993 allowed re-entry of pregnant girls into school after delivery.

However there has been some resistance on the re-entry policy on school girls from school authorities and communities on the one hand and gender activists on the other, Chirimuuta, (2005). Moreover the implementation of the policy has not been methodically monitored thereby making assessment of its effectiveness problematic. In addition Chabaya et al (2009) argue that the implementation of Affirmative Action Policy evidently met resistance leading to lowered self-image and ridicule of the girl child beneficiaries. Furthermore despite the advocacy of the NGP and AAP the number of women in education management is still low therefore UNGEI (2010) points out that it is safe to conclude that at the workplace the policies have not yielded the desired outcomes. Gordon et al (2004) assert that the school girl child pregnancy and Affirmative Action policies were perceived as imported polices. As a result the policies faced resistance from stakeholders, thus resulting in the policies failing to attain the anticipated results of empowering the girl child and reaping the rewards of gender mainstreaming in education. Cochran and Malone (2014) posit that NGP is an effective policy instrument which can reap rewards in gender mainstreaming if the following obstacles are taken into consideration thus; inadequate budgetary allocation and non-consideration of gender, donor dependency, non-involvement of stakeholders, little or no support mechanisms for policy implementation and weak monitoring of policies and gender related activities.

5. Results and Discussion

From the in-depth interviews conducted on different policies in education it emerged that educators both heads and teachers do not have a say in the formulation of policies. However their contribution is required and mandatory when it comes to the implementation of the policies from above. The heads of schools pointed out that the top-down approach used in policy formulation and implementation meant the absence of grassroots contribution on several policies (Dzvimbo et al, 2018). The Head Foundation (2016) contests the use of the top-down approach in public policy processes as there is no probability that the preconditions for successful implementation set out by the top-downers will be present, one head teacher, Mr Chirozva has this to say:

> *"In as much as much as we try to be independent and try to implement policies within our schools, there is always lack of proper consultation and participation within the policy making process. Hence, lack of taking seriously the circulars and other amendments from the ministry…"*

Hence, this has impacted on the effectiveness of several educational policies thereby failure by the policies to fully achieve the required standards and targets. This emanates from the fact that the policy maker adopts a policy and shoves it down to heterogeneous educational institutions for implementation without allocating adequate, relevant and equitable resources needed for the success of the policy. As a result the policy will be implemented under limited or no budget allocation at all. Despite being implemented the policies will have minimal impact since there will be minimal or no resources to support the policies fully. School heads were displeased with the SFP as the government only allocated maize without relish to the schools leaving the burden of finding relish to the already burdened schools which are owed money by government in terms of BEAM payments whose backlog dates back to 2014. Thus although schools were encouraged to improvise on relish or apply to the ministry for authority to collect contributions from parents on relish payments this strained parents who were already failing to pay levies and fees for their children. The fundamental question raised by educators to the government was;

> *Why would a government implement a programme when they cannot fully fund and*
>
> *Sustain the programme?*

The disbursement of BEAM has a huge backlog with secondary schools getting payment for 2014 term 2 and primary schools getting payment for term 3, 2014. Although there were no BEAM allocations in 2015 BEAM allocations were made and applied for, for the period 2016-2018. However no payment for the period is yet to be made to the schools to date. This has practically crippled some schools especially those that heavily rely on BEAM payments. With regards to RBM both teachers and school heads revealed that the RBM policy served no purpose for as long as there were no adequate resources to reward those who would have performed well. The respondents complained about the bunching of teacher in the same grade despite having scored significantly year after year in their duties based on RBM instrument. Thus RBM was viewed as giving false hope to the civil servants, according to Ms Jane Zendeya,

> *"The way the RBM is structured and the reasons why the MoPSE continues to burden teachers' to complete it, is truly unnecessary as it serves no purpose. There is no grading in terms of improving salaries and more so, the resources are inadequate."*

The STEM, NGP, ECD, EFA and Inclusive Education policies were noted to be good policies with good and noble intentions for the nation. However the respondents noted that these policies require adequate funding for them to realize the anticipated goals. As noted by Mandina (2013) budgetary limitations hinder the MOPSE and the school administrators to implement inclusive education.

From the study it also emerged that government on its own cannot fund all these policies effectively and adequately and the respondents pointed out the need for engaging other stakeholders and forming public-private partnerships in education with different partners taking up the challenge of funding a particular policy. Without adequate resources and infrastructure the policy intentions on paper may remain a pipedream. Therefore this entails a paradigm shift in the process of public policy formulation from the current top-down approach to a bottom-up approach or a merger of the two approaches to ensure maximum citizen and stakeholder participation in policy formulation. In this regard this will ensure that co-ownership of the policies while the government still remains with the legal right to implement the policy in collaboration with various stakeholders.

6. Conclusions and Recommendations

It has emerged from the study that in the Zimbabwe education system the government plays a dominant role in the public policy processes and policies are formulated on a top-down approach. Madhekeni (2012) argues that this is not in line with the system's tenets on beneficiary participation which would be largely realized through a bottom-up approach towards policy implementation. In addition, there is need for the government to revamp the way it formulates its public policies. Public participation is needed and very important thus there is need to embrace the bottom-up approach as it encourages capacity building (Kotz and Kellerman, 1997). Thus, public participation promotes democratic principle, Cloete (1995), covey valuable information on the needs and demands of the public to policy makers and implementers and vice-versa, Babooa 2008, and keeps public fundamentals in check, Cloete (1997) and promotes public confidence in the government's policies. In this regard for effective policy adoption there is need for the government to come up with stipulated budget allocations in the national budget meant for public policy processes. The budget allocation will support in building a robust, effective and responsive management information system, funding a bottom-up approach policy formulation system which is important when dealing with public policy and effective public participation. More so, budget allocation will ensure effective, necessary and dynamic training of staff in implementing policies that are supported with adequate and appropriate resources. Adequate resources will always are the mantra in ensuring effective, relevant and beneficial public policy processes in education.

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