Contribution of Life Skills Training to Youth Development at University Institutions: A Case of the Passport To Success Pilot Programme In Zimbabwe

by

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Declaration

I, Chipo Muchabaiwa, hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. I authorize the University of Midlands State University to lend this thesis to other institutions or individuals for the purpose of scholarly research.

Signature………………………………Date ........................................
Approval

This dissertation/thesis entitled “Contribution of Life Skills Training to Youth Development at University Institutions: A Case of the Passport To Success Pilot Programme In Zimbabwe” by CHIPO MUCHABAIWA meets the regulations governing the award of the degree of Master of Arts in Development Studies of the Midlands State University, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literal presentation.

Supervisor:...........................................

Date .....................................................
Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother, my mother in law and my daughter whose support made it possible.
Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to my supervisor; Dr J. Matunhu for his valued advice, teaching and encouragement towards the finalization of my dissertation. I am grateful to the IYF: Zimbabwe Works staff for allowing me to carry out this dissertation, and the PTS Participants and Trainers who contributed to the achievement of the objectives of this study. To my good friend Nothando, your attention to detail was invaluable. I would like to thank my family, my brothers Tawanda and Tendai. To my daughter Nokutenda, thank you for giving me a reason to push on. Finally to my husband Tafadzwa, I appreciate the support the patience and the push.
Abstract

Existing research shows that life skills are an important part of education and serve the purpose of complementing the hard and academic skills that young people get in university. This research met its crucial aim through an embedded mixed methodology research which used qualitative method research primarily with quantitative techniques allowing for description of the target sample population. This was a case study of the International Youth Foundation Passport to Success Pilot Program in two universities, The University of Zimbabwe and Women’s University in Africa. This research produced a number of key findings: that the Passport to success program can be adopted by Zimbabwean universities, but there exists potential and need to raise awareness on the PTS program and create demand for the key life skills benefits derived from the program. The pilot program was positively received and gained acceptance among young people as a refreshing yet educative intervention. The main conclusions drawn from this research were that PTS is replicable in the Zimbabwean context as a life skills program for tertiary institutions owing strengths derived from the highly structured format and teaching methodologies. There is room to further adapt the content to place emphasis on content which meets the life skills contextual needs of a young person in University.

Keywords: Life skills, Young people, Replicability
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<td>IYF:ZW</td>
<td>International Youth Foundation: Zimbabwe Works</td>
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<td>JAZ</td>
<td>Junior Achievement Zimbabwe</td>
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<td>M &amp; E</td>
<td>Monitoring and Evaluation</td>
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<td>PTS</td>
<td>Passport To Success</td>
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<td>PYD</td>
<td>Positive Youth Development</td>
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<td>TOT</td>
<td>Training Of Trainers</td>
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<td>UN</td>
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CHAPTER 1: Problem and its Setting

1.0 Introduction

In the world over, tertiary institutions are preparing young people for the socio economic positions they are to take. In Zimbabwe tertiary education is inclusive of 13 Universities, 9 public and 4 private with an estimated enrolment of over 50 thousand students at any given time Kanyenze, Kondo, Chitambara and Martens (2011). Tertiary level education prepares young people for their careers and adult occupation life by equipping them with the technical knowhow required to make it in life. Young people in these institutions, in addition to acquiring academic qualification, undergo the transition from being a child to an adult. This process continuously takes place within the home, community and academic and other similar institutions. According to the Ministry of Education Sports and Culture (2007:3) report, “the education sector is currently facing a number of challenges emerging from a highly competitive and integrated global economy and rapid technological and social changes which have brought about diversity and complexity.” It is thus apparent that the education system has its short comings in preparing an all rounded individual ready for the world and its many challenges.

Life skills training for youth thus is increasingly becoming important. A well prepared young person positively contributes to the overall development of the nation as they will occupy the future of strategic positions in Zimbabwe. The Nziramasanga commission of 1999 pointed out there is a disconnection between the key parameters of our education system and life skills can be seen complementing the process to ensure a well rounded and confident young person. There are a number of life skill programs targeting the tertiary level student, for example the Building Opportunities On Student Talent (BOOST) Program, and Passport To
Success (PTS) is one such life skills curriculum and the research intends to explore the Passport To Success project in Zimbabwe.

The PTS program targets young people in the age range 14 to 24 through experiential learning methods and aims to impart a wide range of skills to the young people so as to help them stay in school and acquire the education, professional skills, employment readiness and confidence they need to succeed in life and in the workplace, PTS Manual (2014). The program targets vulnerable youth who are in school but are at risk of dropping out, as well as those that are out of school, out of work, or working in dangerous environments.

The PTS curriculum focuses on widely endorsed life skills – such as self-confidence, responsibility and respect – to respond to the needs of youth, employers, youth-serving organizations, and other key stakeholders. According to the International Youth Foundation (IYF) the program over ten years has now developed an 80-module curriculum in 19 languages on Personal Development, Problem Solving, Healthy Lifestyles, Workplace Success, Entrepreneurship/Skills for Professional Growth and Community Service Learning. More than 80,000 young people have successfully completed the PTS program with over 3,300 trainers worldwide trained in experiential learning to transform their classrooms into more engaging learning environments.

The program is in 27 countries and Zimbabwe became its 28th when it launched a pilot program in Harare and Chitungwiza in 2013 through 3 partner organisations - The Boost Fellowship, Junior Achievement Zimbabwe and Young Africa. Nine trainers were trained to deliver PTS and in the pilot more than 200 youths have been trained in PTS with 40 percent being tertiary level students. This study seeks to explore PTS and its main components it
examines its approach to life skills and assesses the key strengths that aid in the delivery of life skills training to young people at university.

Young people are the future of any nation and the United Nations defines youth, as “those persons between the ages of 15 and 24 years.” Unemployment is the most pervasive challenges youths in Zimbabwe face because of the socio-economic and political collapse that characterized the past decade. The overall unemployment rate in Zimbabwe is very high although we have a highly literate nation and with an increasing number of young people attaining tertiary education. It is important that in addition to academic qualifications, young people attain soft skills such as communication skills, decision making skills, time and money management etc in order to help them cope.

This study explored PTS and assesses how it is fairing in Zimbabwean context and also ascertains which components of PTS can be attributed to its strengths and weaknesses. The study evaluated a life skills curriculum which has recorded success in over 27 countries and its relevance to the Zimbabwean situation using mixed methodology with primarily qualitative techniques with quantitative elements embedded into it. It was an evaluation of how PTS was received by the Zimbabwean tertiary level participants, so as to determine which key program components of PTS are its strengths and weaknesses and why. It also seeks to offer recommendations on how the PTS life skills curriculum can be adapted and replicated for Zimbabwe’s tertiary level youths. Having been rolled out successfully in a number of countries it was important to highlight which components of PTS are suitable for Zimbabwean young people. In addition, the study aims to gather enough insight to be able to offer recommendations on how best life skills training can be offered to tertiary level youths and the benefits that come with offering life skills to supplement academic learning.
This study looked at the various tenets of the education system as well as various academic insights on the concepts of life skills training. In Zimbabwe life skills are mostly offered by non-governmental organisations such as and are yet to be incorporated into the formal education systems. The aim of this study was to be able to inform and start dialogue toward incorporating more life skills training into the formal education system.

1.1 Problem Statement

One weakness of the current tertiary education system is that it does not emphasise the teaching and development of soft skills which are pertinent in adult life and the world of work. According to Burgess (1985, 27), “it has been argued that those who are most qualified are not necessarily the most productive.” He argues that not all the necessary skills needed in life and the work spaces are attained in the academic system. In delivering life skills training at tertiary level one notes the importance that life skills training can fill in giving young people soft skills that complement their academic qualification. These are key skills that are not in any of the educational curriculums but work every day in real life

1.2 Objectives

a) To assess how PTS has been received by the Zimbabwean University level participants and trainers;

b) To determine which key program components of PTS are its strengths and weaknesses; and

c) To offer recommendations on how the PTS life skills curriculum can be adapted and replicated for Zimbabwe’s tertiary level youths.
1.3 Research Questions

a) How was PTS received by the university level participants who were trained in PTS and the trainers delivering it?

b) How do the key program components of PTS contribute to the curriculum’s strengths and weaknesses?

c) How can PTS life skills be replicated and adapted for Zimbabwe university youths?

1.4 Definition of Terms

For purposes of the study definitions supplied below will apply to the following key terms

Youth: According to UN refers to those persons between the ages of 15 to 24 years of age this also applies to the term young person(s) thereof.

Life/Soft skills: As defined by the World Health Organization as “abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life.”

Tertiary Level Education: according to this study tertiary refers to University level.

1.5 Significance / Rationale of the Study

The study sought to explore the relevance and benefits of life skills training especially focusing on tertiary level young people. The PTS package has been rolled out in a number of countries but this study will try to highlight which components make it suitable for the context of the Zimbabwean young people. Additionally, the study was intended to offer recommendation on how best life skills training can be offered to tertiary level youths and the benefits that come with offering life skills to supplement academic learning.
Furthermore, the study explored the various tenets of the educational system, as well as provides academic insights on the concepts of life skills training. The intention is that this study can inform and start dialogue toward incorporating more life skills into the formal education system.

PTS is an international brand which has been incorporated in actual university and school curriculums. Its main areas of focus include:

- Personal Competencies: Managing strong emotions, assertiveness, self respect, responsibility goal setting, dealing with criticism etc,
- Problem solving and managing conflict.
- Healthy behaviours: Substance abuse, STI’s, HIV/AIDS, stress management etc.
- Work Preparedness: How to write a CV, preparing for interviews, being a team player, marketing yourself, worker harassment and abuse, Future money management and Time management etc.
- Entrepreneurship: Creative Thinking, Risk taking, Decision Making, Developing a support network, coping with failure, Creating a work team etc
- Community Service learning: Volunteerism, Selecting, Planning and conducting community projects etc.

This research aimed to look at the PTS product by exploring its main components and how PTS has been received in the Zimbabwean at 3 levels: the trainer, recipients and the administrating organisations. With the current Zimbabwean economic climate, particularly with the high unemployment rate, is very harsh to the young person, especially those at tertiary level who find themselves as part of huge statistics of the educated but unemployed. This study thus aimed to see if PTS has the potential to aid the young people through challenging times in the Zimbabwean context.
1.6 Assumptions

The main assumption of the study was that, participants of the pilot had not received any other life skills training before Passport To Success.

1.7 Limitations

Challenges faced included mostly time frame issues as the study was to be completed in the time given as dictated by academic requirement. The researcher managed to meet deadlines set because of the centrality of location of the three main categories of the study’s respondents who were all within Harare.

1.8 Scope of the study

The PTS pilot was done in two districts: Chitungwiza and Harare, because the International Youth Foundation wanted to closely monitor the project thus it was done in 2 of their 11 already existing project areas close to their headquarters. This study focused on the participants who were a part of the pilot and were at university at the time. Only one of the three partners, The BOOST Fellowship worked in universities and engaged students from The University of Zimbabwe and Women’s University in Africa. In 2013, they had three cohorts with an average of 20 participants in each group. The participants’ sample was obtained from this pool. Seven trainers: particularly those that handled the tertiary level participants were engaged to provide more insight. At the International Youth Foundation Mr. K Muswinu, the Employability Technical Specialist and the Monitoring and Evaluation Specialist, were key informants and were interviewed.
1.9 Ethical Considerations

Bloor and Wood (2006, 64) define Ethics as “guidelines or set of principles for good professional practice which serve to advise and steer researchers as they conduct their work.” In conducting research, it was inevitable that ethical problems would arise, but research should however be conducted by methods which are ethically justifiable. This research upheld ethical practices at all times by doing the following: Obtaining consensus from all participants of the study and any sensitive information obtained in the study was treated with confidentiality at all times.

According to Laws, Harper and Marcus (2003, 233), “having noble long term aims for research does not justify being careless about the way in which research is done.” It is important to protect the privacy and confidentiality of the respondents as well as ensuring that participation was given freely in this study.

1.10 Outline of Chapters

This research is organized as follows:

Chapter 1: This first chapter provides an introduction to the study and to the concept of life skills training in universities and tertiary institutions. It details the key questions and the overall aims and objectives as well as outlining the significance of the study. An overview of the whole research is given in the first chapter.

Chapter 2: Contains the literature review, which is a discussion of selected literature on the different perspectives of education and the role of life skills in society and in young people’s lives. It explores the theoretical framework from a Marxist and functionalist perspective to education as well as the concept of lifelong learning.
Chapter 3: Contains a detailed description of the research methodology used in the research, the data sources, data collection instruments and the justification of the methodology used.

Chapter 4: Discusses the data collected and provides an in-depth analysis of all the data collected from the interviews, questionnaires and content analysis.

Chapter 5: The researcher’s conclusions and recommendations are given in this chapter and they are based on the results that were obtained and outlined in chapter 4.

1.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter basically gives an introduction into the whole research. It gives and outlines the background of the study thus giving an overview of issues surrounding life skills, young people and education in Zimbabwe. A general introduction is given to the shortcoming of the education system and the importance of life skills training as well as introducing the PTS life skills which is understudy in this research. Chapter1 summarizes the significance of the research it scope which was the PTS pilot conducted in Harare by the International Youth Foundation. Also given in the first chapter were the limiting factors and challenges encountered during the carrying out of the study.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses major sociological perspectives to education so as to get an appreciation of the role of education in society from different viewpoints. Life skills training is a part of the education process and therefore it is important to understand the role of education in society as argued by different scholars. For the theoretical framework, the research discusses Functionalist and Marxist Perspectives to education as well as the concept of Lifelong learning and its view of what education offers an individual. The research also looked articles on young people, their development as well as their contribution to national development. The researcher also analysed various teaching strategies so as to get further understanding of the different approaches to learning particularly for young people. In understanding the role of education in society and to individuals, the relevance and contribution that life skills have in complementing education, the formal education system, particularly for university level students, can be established.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

2.2.1 Functionalist Perspective to Education

The functionalist point of view guided by Emile Durkheim and Talcott Parsons maintains that education is an important requirement for economic growth. In the book Education and Sociology, Durkheim (1956) defined education as, “the influence adults have on future generation to prepare them for social life.” He stated that, “the objective is to arouse and to indulge children physical, intellectual and moral states which are required of him or her by both the political society as a whole and the special role for which he or she is specifically
destined.” (Durkheim, 1956). This assertion influenced the ideas maintained by functionalists that education is necessary for economic growth and the progress of resources in an industrial society. Burgess (1990, 32) summarises the three functions of education according to functionalists as the “provision of skills demanded by increased technological and occupational requirements, selection that helps to allocate individuals to particular jobs and aids to consensus and to a cohesive society.”

French sociologist Emile Durkheim recognized the major purpose of education as that of passing on of society’s norms and values from generation to generation. Society’s continued existence supposedly is dependent on its members having a certain level of homogeneity. Education thus is seen perpetuating and reinforcing this homogeneity by instilling in children from the beginning the necessary similarities which are demanded by communal life. Without the ‘essential similarities’, collaboration, social harmony and in turn social life itself would not be achievable.

Education and especially the teaching of history were seen as providing the connection between the human beings and society. As the history of their society is brought alive to the younger generations they come to see themselves as part of something larger, something beyond themselves as individuals. A sense of commitment to the social group is in turn developed. This bringing together of a crowd of individuals into a collective whole, becomes important for all societies. It becomes the creation of social solidarity which is meant to give a commitment to society, a sense of belonging and a sense that the social unit is more important than the individual and education is seen as being very important for this process.

The functionalist view is thus one focusing on the needs of the social system; it aligns the contribution made by education to the upkeep of value consensus and social solidarity. The
Functionalist perspective looks at the functional relationships that exist and link education and other parts of the social system. It also involves an examination of the relationship between education and the economic system, how the parameters of this relationship help to integrate society as a whole. Some of Durkheim’s views can be seen present in quite a number of educational practices. An example would be for instance the existence of common educational curriculums across the world; this is seen as helping to instil shared norms and values into a people with varied backgrounds. Another example is how Durkheim’s position on school rules, he thought that school rules should be strictly imposed and penalties should reflect the significance of the harm done to the social group by the transgression, and it should be made clear to the offenders why they were being punished. Education systems even today use the incentives and punishment system through which the child supposedly learns what is right or wrong. Education is seen as firmly aiding children to avoid incorrect behaviour and promoted to adopt right ways of living and in turn learn to discipline themselves and thus control disruptive behaviour.

Durkheim also argued that through education people are taught specific skills which they will require for their upcoming occupations. This particular function of education is especially important in the industrial society with its increasingly intricate and specialized division labour. In industrial societies social solidarity becomes based on the interdependence of specialized skills. This is because the production of a single product requires the combination of skills, cooperation and social solidarity. The school according to Durkheim thus gives both general values necessary to for homogeneity and social survival as well as precise skills which offer the essential multiplicity for social collaboration.
Functionalists posit that it is not necessarily content of education that is important but it is seeing how education fits into society that really matters. Blackledge and Hunt (1995, 13) noted that “functionalists look at education as being social in nature and as a means to an end.” Durkheim insisted that education is defined by the society and not necessarily by the individuals who are receiving the education. The primary role of education thus according to functionalists is not to build up the individuals’ abilities and potential but actually to build up the abilities and skills that society requires. According to Blackledge and Hunt, Durkheim suggests a certain level of specialisation needs to be there in education and that education is meant to prepare and equip young people for the particular role they are destined for in society.

Durkheim’s views influenced number of modern sociologists and educationalists and contributed to their own lines of thinking. David Hargreaves for example criticized the modern comprehensive school from a Durkheim point of view and claimed that the contemporary school place overstressed and put too much emphasis on developing the individual. To him emphasis should be on the obligations, duties and responsibilities that an individual ought to have towards group life within the school. Hargreaves argued that many educational institutions fail to bring into being a sense of stateliness for working class pupils. He also noted that the failure in exams for instance, means one is incapable a developing a sense of belongingness. The students who fail may form subcultures which rebuff the ideals of the school and therefore of the wider society. Thus it is argued that more stress ought to be placed on the social roles, duties and tasks of the individuals within the school. So that one acquires dignity by attaining a sense of competence, of making a contribution to and of being valued by the group to which he or she belongs.”
This approach may explain why some people gain differently from the education system with some gaining more than others. A typical example is how antagonistic or even artistic students are constantly greatly punished for wanting to do something differently than is expected or the norm. They are seen as rebelling from the values and norms and the education system on the other hand wants to create unoriginal individuals and produce an obedient work force. Such a workforce lacks critical thinking and thus is easily dominated and manipulated by the employer because the “educated employee” cannot dissent. In addition to this school tends to structure the various subjects as disjointed or having little correlation between them. This creates a failure in students to have an all-inclusive view or understand the general purpose of the whole education it becomes a rite of passage so to speak. Also on the subject it is evident that some individuals excel in maths for example while others are weak in language and in the education system this means that they get segregated from others. This feeling of segregation may result in feelings of inadequacy within individuals and inferiority complex as they are measured against others regardless of one’s unique strengths or weaknesses.

According to Hargreaves by placing emphasis upon the social role of the individuals’ pupil with in school these problems can be solved and additionally by making a number of changes curriculums so as to create a sense of aptitude and belonging. He argues that students need to be allowed to choose the areas of study and be allowed to follow where they have a particular interest or ability as opposed to what is dictated by the needs of society. This allows all students to build up a sense of their own value, worth and importance. Another suggestion from Hargreaves is there ought to be obligatory parts of the curriculum like society studies to aid individuals to have a clear understanding of their role in society. Subject areas such as expressive arts, crafts and sports also need recognition according to Hargreaves as they are
seen playing an important part in society. To him by participating in putting on plays and taking part in team games and other sports for example students get to practise contributing to communal enterprises. It helps foster and develop a sense of allegiance to the school, and they discover how to value one another for the input each could make to the school.

Bernstein and Hargreaves as well as other Morden Durkheimians’ ideas also conceptualised the education system as problem solving establishment and entity. Blackledge and Hunt (1995, 64) noted that the concept was “in order for society to survive and develop there has to be an agreement on language and the basic values among members as well as a mechanism for acquiring the language and common values”. Functionalists categorize the mechanisms as institutions and these mechanisms acknowledged are, the family for solving the problem of giving society new members. Political institutions are seen as coordinating the activities of diverse sectors within society. The religious institutions solve the problem of maintaining the basic values and norms of society. Education thus is seen as the institution that solves the problem of training the young ones, it is a mechanism and agent to socialisation and selection, by assisting in the internalisation process of the societies’ culture norms and values by young people.

Talcott Parsons was also another influential functionalist author and he propounded a theory in which he linked together culture, social structure and personality. He is quoted in his essays “The system of Modern Societies” and “The School Classes as a Social System” where he notes that the education is an agency of socialisation. He sums up the functions of education as an agency of socialisation which results in progression in individuals and attainment of the commitment and capacities which are essential pre- requisites for their future role performance. Talcott Parsons writing in the late 1950s argued that following primary socialization within the family, the school becomes the next socializing agency. The
school, according to Parsons acts as a connection between the family and society as a whole in preparing children for their adult role. In the family, the child is judged and treated largely in terms of particularistic standards where parents treat the child as their particular child as opposed to judging her or him in terms of standards which can be used for to every individual. In the wider society on the other hand the individual is treated and judged on universalistic standards which are applied to all members, with no regard of their kinship ties or relations.

Within the family, the child’s status is recognized and is fixed by birth, in advanced industrial society, however one’s status in adult life has to be achieved for instance individuals achieve their occupational status it is not guaranteed. A child must thus move from the particularistic standards and ascribed status of the family to the universalistic standards and achieved status of adult society and the school prepares young people for this transition. The school establishes universalistic standards through which all pupils achieve their status. Their performance is evaluated against the benchmark of the school rules and their achievement is measured by how they perform in examinations. The same standards apply to all students regardless of attributed characteristics such as sex, race, family back ground or class of origin as the schools function on meritocratic values. Status is thus attained on the basis on the basis of merit and worth.

2.2.1.1 Criticism of the Functionalist Perspective

The functionalism approach is criticised that it neglects and underestimates issues of conflict and ideology as well as ignores the importance of the contents of education and other important issues in education. The approach is seen as assuming that there is general consensus in values in society. This is idealistic and critiques point out that in some instances sometimes terror or force is be used to impose order. It is not necessarily common culture
that is responsible for the cohesion and order. Another weakness identified is that functionalists fail to properly account for social change. Functionalists see change as coming from either something external happening outside society and forcing change e.g. war or that change is resulting from a failure in socialisation process on a huge scale. Homogeneity is thus not to be taken for granted and assumed as existing. The interrelatedness of institutions as explained by functionalists also mean that change in one institution can and should subsequently lead to change in all institutions. This contradicts however the assumption that society is a stable entity which is a key assumption in the functionalist perspective.

Regardless of their influence, there are a number of key shortcomings of the functionalist perspectives to education. There is a tendency to offer a description of an ideal state of affairs as opposed to an account of social reality. There is considerable evidence which contradicts or at least makes doubtful some of the assumptions. The assumption of a meritocratic social set-up where educational accomplishment and personal effort, and not necessarily one's social origins, always account for social success or failure is questionable.

Although there might be a clear relationship between educational achievement and social status or occupational success, it is essential to consider whether schooling reinforces or eradicates social inequalities already in existence. The impact of factors as wealth, control and reformation of jobs, and inherent rewards such as personal satisfaction with particular jobs or life situations is often overlooked in the measuring of social and educational success. While inequality is a multifaceted, changing experience, it also manifests in both overt and subtle ways. Opportunities for social progression may be constrained even one assumes that there is an open, fair, and meritorious process by which individuals are allocated to social stature.
Functionalist analysis also tends to allow too much for the extent to which social reforms can add to social change. This means in the process one risks ignoring or minimizing the implication of more deeply rooted power relations connected with class, gender, race, and related factors. By the late 1960s, the inconsistency between promised socio-economic opportunities and people's life experiences resulted in a rethinking of liberal assumptions among various educational participants and analysts. There is increasing awareness of the subordination of women and racial minorities for example. The emergence of the student protest movement, as well the persistence of poverty produced a fertile environment in which alternative perspectives in educational research can come about.

It is useful to think about the central assumption of structural functionalist analysis, the presumption that social stratification and inequity are necessary structural features of highly developed societies. This meant that the reproduction of society involves a supposed hierarchy of positions and the positions need to be filled with duly qualified and motivated people. It is this requirement according to functionalists which gives rise to the particular functions of schooling, including the responsibilities of sorting and socializing individuals and contributing to common values. Thus as long as the social structure appears to be effective efficiently, with no pressures to the system which might result in breakdown there is social cohesion. A few issues however can come about the kinds of standards and inequalities being fostered or about which groups, if any, are their major beneficiaries.

The assumptions on consensus and stratification in functionalist theory focus on the identification of mechanisms that will assure that the social reproduction progression operates effectively and efficiently. In the late 1950s and 1960s, theoretical reflection of the link between schooling and socio-economic needs was enhanced by policy concerns to create a
scientifically and technically refined workforce. Military production in World War II and the subsequent Cold War resulted in rapid expansion of industrial production and mass-marketed goods and services. These stimulated a mixture of trends, including the creation of new household consumer products, and relatively high wages and stable labour markets. The 'space race' between the Soviet Union and the United States also was a figurative rallying point about which new labour force requirements, motivated by science and technical knowledge, were to be needed. The promise of social and economic security fostered at the same time, growing emphasis on the family sphere and the development of closer ties between schools and family life and schools figured significantly in these transitions.

Durkheim’s views on education also are open to varied criticisms. Durkheim assumes that the norms and values transmitted by the education system are those of society as a whole, rather than those of a ruling elite or ruling class. Hargreaves’s suggests that it is clear that education succeeds in transmitting shared values, promoting self-discipline or cementing social solidarity. However Hargreaves shows more consciousness of the presence of a variety of cultures and values in society, and points to some of the shortcomings of contemporary education. However, Hargreaves’s proposals for changes in the curriculum are controversial as many modern changes in education seem intended to encourage individual competition and to train pupils for particular vocations. It could be argued that sport and community studies are not the best subjects to study as the training of a future labour force. Additionally Durkheim criticizes education based upon individual competition in an exam system; however other functionalists see competition as a vital aspect of modern education.

It is a weakness of the functionalists approach to assume that institutions come into existence to solve societal problems. This is defined by critics as being too deterministic a view on the connection between man and society, where society is seen as all powerful and moulds the
individual but in turn society and culture not shaped by individuals. It is actually two way and society both creates and is created by individuals. Functionalists put across a representation of a consent seeking individual which although it is to a certain extent true rules out the possibility that individuals can be their own person, this was never a consideration for functionalists. In education a functionalist analysis may be put to suggest assured functions for education and to denote certain relations between education and other parts of society. A causal relationship, however, of why these functions exist ought to be given in additionally terms of the aims of individual groups and the influence that they have to impose ideas. Functionalism however does provide a starting point in understanding education although there are gaps.

2.2.2 Marxist Approach to Education

Marxist scholars regarded education as supporting in the process of the reproduction of the capitalist system. Marxist analysis is of the view that what people do to keep alive or maintain themselves, is what in actuality matters and it is consequently economic activity or production in a wide sense that is primary. Bowles and Gintis argue that the educational system moulds the consciousness of future workers; schooling is thus seen as reproducing the social relations of production. Through the association between the school and class structure the education system helps integrate youth into the economic system. This resonates with the position that everything else that people do or that goes on is related or derived from the system of the means of production. The base is the economic structure and education fits into the superstructure together with other social institutions like family religion etc.

The economic base is seen as shaping the superstructure and for example a society’s educational system, type of family prevailing is a direct consequence of the nature of the economic system. An example is how feudalism shifted as a means of production to
capitalism so too did the political structure change from monarchies and aristocracy to liberal democratic forms of government and state. Societies also shifted from little provision of formal education to one where there is mass schooling becoming a central feature. Education thus according to the Marxist view helps to reproduce or maintain the capitalist economic system. Bowles and Gintis argue “that education cannot be understood independently of the society of which it is a part of and that education serves to perpetuate ad reproduce the capitalist system.”

There are theories of direct reproduction where education is seen as justifying and legitimates the class structure and inequality by nurturing beliefs that economic success depends fundamentally on the possession of aptitude and the appropriate skills and education. Secondly education is seen by Marxists as preparing young people for the world of class dominated and alienated work by creating those capacities and qualifications, ideas and beliefs which are appropriate for capitalist economies. The educational system thus is seen operating in a manner not completely through conscious effort of the teachers and administrators in their day to day action but through close correspondence among social relationships which direct personal interaction in the work place and social relationships in educational systems. Specifically one notes the relationships between administrators and teachers and students and their work imitate the hierarchical division of labour which prevail in the workplace. Marxists thus argues that it is the outline and structure of education as opposed to content where the process of socialisation takes place.

Blackledge and Hunt speak of “The hidden curriculum of the school” which is presented in four ways;
1) Students like workers have little power over their curriculum just like workers have little control over the content of their jobs

2) Education is seen as a means to an end rather than a means in itself. It is taken to avoid educational failure and unemployment and for the sake of reward like wages and academic qualifications

3) Division of labour at work is repeated in specialisation and compartmentalisation of knowledge and in unnecessary competition between students.

4) Different levels of education prepare people for different levels of occupational structures e.g. secondary is more of do as you are told compliance to school rules and in university students are expected to get on with their work unsupervised and to be self directing.

Milliband takes the view that education’s role in the reproduction of capitalism is a end result of the active attempt by society’s ruling class to maintain their position of dominance. Structuralist Marxists like Stuart Hall and Althusser argue that reproduction takes place not as an outcome of the actions of individuals but a result of the operation of economic forces.

There are growing concerns about the role that corporate interests are playing in aligning education more strongly with business and market priorities and this has stimulated and motivated a revival of critical analysis of education. However, fixation with economic reproduction within Marxist frameworks has often tended to over simplify the influence that capitalism, capitalists and dominant economic forces have in determining social life, and in so doing to undermine education's capacity to change and be changed through interaction among educators, students, community members, and other social forces. There is growing appreciation of the dual nature of education, it can be a force that can cultivate critical sensitivity and empower individuals to take control over aspects of their lives on one hand.
On the other hand, education can add to subordination and disempowerment of people as well. This has resulted in analysis coming to focus not only on what is wrong with schooling, as has been the common main theme of orthodox Marxism and political economy, but additionally to see also how education might facilitate individual and social transformation.

Marxist educational theory shares with neo-Weberian perspectives the evaluation that education systems within capitalist communities are incapable of fulfilling their autonomous potential because of the weighty pressure and influence of dominant social forces. Marxism, however, point the origin source of social unfairness to organization of class and economic production as opposed to competition between status groups. Karl Marx did not write much on formal education; however his theories and his method for analyzing capitalist society offer a basis for critical analysis.

Marx's analysis start with the principle that all societies come forward around the ways in which people meet their basic survival needs and that human beings progress socially, distinctively from other groups by as a direct result of our ability to labour. Marx refers to labour in a broad sense to the conscious action devoted to the getting of specific human needs. Marx's stresses how our labour comes to be separated through the procedures by which some gain power over our labouring activity and the products that are generated from it. Alienation is most intense in capitalist society, and can be distinguished from other types of societies and modes of production by the ways that capitalists are able to run and systematize work to get the most profit out of it.

Marx's analysis mostly centres attention on the structural mechanisms that drive the capitalist system and produce social class antagonisms however Marx also made observations on the contradictory nature of schooling. As with all institutions within capitalism, the education
system is seen as restraining human potential that is otherwise necessary for social progress. Schooling, on one hand when it is incorporated with work and other essential social activities, provides prospects through which people can develop both critical consciousness and meaningful skills in literacy and vocational practice. However school can also be organized to serve the capitalist agendas of profit and labour market discipline. When this happens schools fail to meet their potential and become more like “factories” rather than places for human fulfilment. Schooling, under capitalism, becomes a vehicle for the manufacture of a submissive workforce, and provides just enough knowledge and understanding to ensure a supply of workers ready for tedious repetitive jobs while pressing forward ideologies that serve capitalist interests.

In spite of the deadening effects of work and other social practices within capitalism, Marx's theory however, emphasizes potential for the revolutionary revolution within society. Public schooling, Marx challenges, would remain an essential part of communist society and by linking work and education, its endeavour would be to encourage personal and social development somewhat than to serve the bourgeois order Marx and Engels, (1965). Marx’s work, because of its political orientation, has had a major impact on educational traditions.

There were literacy campaigns and revolutionary movements, inspired by Marxism and by incorporating interpretations of his work to fit particular circumstances that have contributed to various kinds of educational reform in many parts of the world. The student protest movement for example in Western Europe and North America in the late 1960s also created an amenable atmosphere for Marxist analysis in the social sciences. Schooling began to be depicted as “an ideological state apparatus” (Althusser, 1971), or a form of cultural imperialism (Carnoy, 1974), that adds ideologically and materially to the continuation of essentially unequal class relations.
Harry Braverman offered a viewpoint which demonstrated the emergent Marxist critique of work and other social conditions under advanced capitalist society. Like other neo-Weberian analysis advanced by writers like Collins, Braverman disputes the popular liberal assessment that technological change has caused enhanced skill needs and more meaningful white-collar work opportunities. However, Braverman contends that capitalist command of overwork involves administrative strategies that produce escalating degradation and deskilling within practically all occupations. Despite its evident contribution to individual and social development, education, serves principally to organize and prepare students to adapt to the routines of a world dominated by monopoly capital.

Probably the most influential neo-Marxist study of schooling to appear in the wake of the 1960s challenges to political convention has been “Schooling in Capitalist America” by Samuel Bowles and Herbert Gintis, published in 1976. Bowles and Gintis make overt the connections between the capitalist economy and schooling starting with a critique of the failure of liberal educational reform to deliver on its promise of a more egalitarian and democratic society. They challenge, as well, conservative opinions that attribute education inequality to inherent differences in intelligence and ability. Bowles and Gintis argue, rather, that educational transformation can do little in itself to alleviate social inequality insofar as inequality is rooted in the class structure of capitalist society. They identify a correspondence principle that operates between educational reform and economic change and argue that capitalism as with totalitarian political systems, curb democratic participation in order to sustain material and ideological conditions to make profit and ensure a productive labour force.
Bowles and Gintis' contributions have advanced the understanding of educational structures and practices by indicating that schooling, at least in some way, is a central part of the logic that drives capitalist system and recreates systematic social inequalities. There is general agreement that schools contribute to social, ideological, and labour force reproduction with functionalists. Yet, there is considerable debate over what kinds of reproduction occur, how fair the system is, and who benefits from it. On either side of the discussion there is a tendency to belittle the complexities characteristic of educational realities.

Marxists however were seen as having shortcomings and placing an overemphasis on the importance of the economy to the effect of other factors. Weberian sociology on the other hand further attempts to link the micro and macro approaches to education by noting that what happens within classrooms must be linked to wider social processes. There is also the underlying view that there appears to be little room for the capacity if resistance in schools, because schools do not simply respond to the demands of the economic system rather it does have autonomy. The Marxist approach is seen as being a theory of economic determinism and does not full look at all the factors in society.

2.2.3 Lifelong Learning

Batho (1989, 19) quotes Professor Sampson who pointed out that “Education is not something of which one must acquire a certain quantity of and can then be relieved for ever...education is a preparation for life, not merely for a livelihood, for living not for a living.” The statement posits the basic idea in the concept of lifelong learning. Hyland (1999, 4) noted that there are four different conceptions to lifelong learning as “firstly the replenishment of human capital secondly the maintenance of cultural capital and the quality of life individuals and the collective the inculcation of democratic citizenship and lastly an emancipator conception aimed at fostering self-reflexive learners who can respond to change
in a rational manner.” This principle resonates with components of life skills learning which are defined by WHO as abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life.”

The concept of a learning society has been discussed by many scholars who generally believe that learning is an ever present and ever evolving process. Hyland (1999) discusses a type of learning society that was constructed by Ranson (1998) who attempted to show the link between learning and societal change and transformation. He came up distinct with characteristics which for him constitute a learning society. He noted that a learning society is a society which learns about itself and how its changing, a society which need to change the way it learns and a society in which all it members are learning. The key idea being learning and society cannot be separated and it should not be just for the young generations but for everyone throughout their entire lives.

Lifelong learning is considered as significant as it is seen as addressing the flaw of the “schooling model” which conceptualises education as an end in itself. There is also the problem of “diploma disease” where main concern is in ensuring the majority within a population have a qualification or certification of some sort. This is typically in a bid to gain future employment and this is very true of the Zimbabwean education sector. This is seen resulting in “chronic and wasteful qualification inflation” (Hyland, 1999). Lifelong learning thus is seen as supporting social inclusion, active citizenship, and personal development which in turn promote self-sustainability, as in contrast to competitiveness and employability.

In discussing India’s concept of education for life Singh and Rana (2009, 301) defined lifelong learning as “learning that continues throughout the lifespan of an individual inclusive
of formal and informal education.” To them with lifelong learning comes the facility for self-
learning as well as learning how to learn at any age. Learning is also seen including the
unconscious learning process without effort on the part of the learner as it is facilitated by the
community, peer groups and the home and family environments. Learning thus is seen to
occur within a wider space apart from just the formal education institutions.

In supporting the notion that learning should be a continuous process Cabal (1993, 161)
quotes Cropley that “youth studies but cannot act and the adult act but has no opportunity to
learn.” In other words learning is normally reserved for the youth days but it will be more of
theoretical rather than actual application of the knowledge to real life. In adult hood however
people are living and have to continuously learn new things in order to function in a n ever-
changing world thus learning cannot be restricted to merely youth. As Plato put it “To
educate oneself is whatever man must do without fail throughout his life and as far as his
strength permits him. To Cabal (1993, 162) this statement “reinforces the concept that people
continue their education and learning throughout their lives as their faculties are available.”

Veer (2006, 97) notes that “with lifelong education an individual learns step by step, every
moment, every day, every month, every year if given an opportunity.” He summarized the
main features of lifelong education as the following:

1. having a cradle to the grave approach educational process
2. it is self education
3. has no terminal age or end date
4. television and other mass media are also seen as important agencies in the education
   enterprise
5. computers and technology are expected to play a significant role in lifelong education
Believers of lifelong learning emphasise that learning is a process that carries on in one way or another throughout life, and that its intentions and structure must be tailored to the requirements of people at various stages in their development. Education is an important part of living and it is like all the institution of society with potential to educate which are considered important resources. Human beings continue learning and training themselves throughout their lives whether they do so in awareness or not. This happens through the influence of their surrounding environments and the different life experiences which go on to shape their behaviour, their ideas of and attitudes life, as well as the content of their knowledge. The notion of “lifelong learning” is rapidly attaining wide acceptance as a starting point for transforming education and training systems. The term originates from related terms such as “lifelong education,” “recurrent education,” “continuing education,” etc Tuijnman (1996) and in the 1960s; “lifelong education” was first used in the framework of adult education.

Different disciplines rarely agree on what learning is and how it occurs. Learning is something everyone does always even if they do not realise that they are doing it Tight (1996) and one is never too old to learn. There is however no common perception of how we learn, and there are a number and varying beliefs amongst psychologists and educators about what learning is. The definition of the term “lifelong learning” is thus still developing and is very much open to different interpretations. There is however a core of general and frequently occurring themes in most interpretations Tuijnman, (1994). These include, for instance, a strong belief in the inherent as opposed to the active value of education and
learning. There is also a common aspiration for universal access to learning opportunities, in spite of whatever age, gender, or employment status. Another common denominator is the acknowledgment of the significance of non formal learning in varied settings. Learning thus is not restricted only to classrooms, but can also happen informally at work, through talking to others, when watching television and playing games, and through nearly every other form of human activity.

Lifelong learning is about attaining and updating all kinds of abilities, interests, knowledge and qualifications from the pre-school years to post retirement. The aim is to promote the development of knowledge and abilities that then enable adaptation to the knowledge-based society and also recognising and valuing all forms of learning. Learning can no longer be separated and conceptualised into two, that is a place and time to acquire knowledge (school) and a place and time to apply knowledge (the workplace). The situation nowadays is students are flooded with more information than they can handle, and at the same time tomorrow’s workers will need to know far more than any individual can retain. Thus Lifelong learning is an essential investment for the future of our societies; it is a requirement rather than a possibility or a luxury to be considered. Lifelong learning thus needs to be viewed as more than just adult education and/or training, it need to be a mindset and a tradition for people to acquire an live by.

Lifelong Learning is closely associated to the way in which human beings develop in relation to their social and physical environment. It occurs throughout life, from start to finish. Nearly everything we do has been learned and is constantly being relearned (Rogers, 1996, 80). Seen the same vein, lifelong learning differs from more conservative approaches in the acknowledgment it gives to the multiplicity in means and methods of teaching. It stresses “learning to learn” and encourages in learners personal traits required for ensuring learning,
including the motivation and ability to engage in self-managed, independent learning (Tuijnman, 1996). The ideas about lifelong learning tend to sound like little more than enlightened common sense, however they do represent a design for the reformation of educational systems with revolutionary implications for introductory as well as adult education. Lifelong learning challenges the view that education is limited to what goes on in schools and it is limited to preparing children and young people for adulthood. It also suggests that society should formulate ample ways and resources to meet the educational needs of adults after leaving formal schooling. Perhaps the most far-reaching implications of lifelong education is that the formal educational system must be altered so that it is flexible enough to have room for individual options and to prepare young people to continue their education in a self-managed and adept manner.

Lifelong learning thus involves looking into new frameworks to learning necessitated by the intense and accelerating changes in the character of work and education. These changes include:

- an increasing predominance of “high-technology” jobs which have need of support for learning on demand because coverage of all concepts is impossible
- the predictability of change in the course of a professional lifetime, which necessitates lifelong learning
- The increasing and deepening division between the opportunities available to the educated and to the uneducated.
- Rapid economic and social changes, the rapid conversion to a knowledge-based society are all challenges which require a new approach to education and training.
- Information overload and the coming on of high-functionality systems, results in a climate of rapid technological change these pose new problems and challenges in education and training.
It is also evident that “more and more knowledge, especially advanced knowledge, is acquired well beyond the age of formal schooling, and in many circumstances through educational practices that do not centre on the traditional school” Illich (1971, 37). Learning needs to be looked at across the lifespan because “previous notions of a divided lifetime of education first followed by work are no longer plausible” Gardner (1991, 23). Professional activity has become so knowledge-intensive that learning has become an essential and irremovable part of adult work life.

The emerging knowledge society means an educated person has to be someone who is ready to regard learning as a lifetime process. According to Rogoff & Lave (1984, 16) “Learning should be part of living, a natural consequence of being alive and in touch with the world, and not a process separate from the rest of life”. Learners need, therefore, based on lifelong learning not just instruction but access to the world in order to apply and connect the knowledge in their head with the knowledge in the world and thus be able to play a meaningful part in it. School education and workplace learning need to be incorporated for this to happen. Common ideas put across in literature on lifelong learning express four distinct characteristics which transform ‘education and training’ into ‘lifelong learning’.

**Informal learning**

Lifelong learning encompasses formal and non-formal or informal types of education and training. Formal learning refers to the hierarchically structured school system that starts at primary school through to university. It also refers to structured school-like programs found in business for technical and professional training. Informal learning on the other hand describes a lifelong process through which individuals get attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from day to day experience and the influences and resources in one’s environment.
Self-motivated learning

There is a profound prominence on the need for individuals to take accountability for their own learning. Lifelong learners therefore, do become not defined by the type of education or training in which they are involved, but by the personal qualities that lead to such involvement.

Personal characteristics of individuals

Individuals who are most likely to participate in learning, either formally or informally throughout their lives, usually have acquired the necessary skills and attitudes for learning, especially literacy and numeracy skills at the same time having confidence to learn. Individuals need to have a sense of engagement with the education and training system as well as willingness and motivation to learn. It is also important to note that even though education and training may have economic rewards for individuals, it is acknowledged that economic incentives alone are not necessarily sufficient to encourage people to engage in education and training.

A variety of motivational obstacles need to be identified and tackled so that some individuals to partake in education and training. Some of these barriers are economic and can be remedied with financial assistance; others however are deterred from taking part in education and training by social and personal factors. Lifelong learning policies tend to endorse participation in learning for its own sake as opposed to learning as a means to a specific end for example employment. The goal of participation in learning thus seems to become more significant than the reason why. This can be seen “as an acknowledgment of the range of factors that motivate people to participate in formal and informal learning other than, or in addition to, instrumental goals” Watson (2003, 67).
Universal participation

Another distinctive characteristic of the lifelong learning literature is a commitment to universal involvement and participation in education and training. In promoting Lifelong learning for all, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) noted that “universal participation is necessary for meeting the economic demands of the 21st century.” The notion of universal participation includes both informal and formal learning and it is for all functions in life.

In pronouncing that universal participation in lifelong learning is essential for social cohesion in a time of rapid economic and social change, the Jacques Delors report proposed four characteristics of lifelong learners that form the “Pillars of a learning society”

1. Learning to do - attaining and relating skills, including life skills: train people for the types of occupations needed now and in the future including originality and adjustment of learning to suit future work settings
2. Learning to be - promoting ingenuity and personal accomplishment: education should contribute to a person’s complete growth
3. Learning to know - an approach to education that is flexible, significant and accomplished where one masters learning tools as opposed attainment of structured knowledge
4. Learning to exist together - by applying tolerance, thoughtfulness and mutual respect: peacefully resolving conflict, learning about other people and their cultures, encouragement of community potential, individual ability and competence, economic pliability, as well as social inclusion).

Lifelong learning thus can inspire resourcefulness, enterprise and openness in people thereby enable them to show flexibility in post-industrial civilization by improving skills to deal with insecurity, correspond across different communities as well as settle differences. The stress is
on learning how to learn and also the capability to continue learning for a life span so as to achieve the goal of a learning Society.

**Traditional Learning, Training and Lifelong Learning**

Traditional educational systems see the teacher is the sole source of knowledge, face challenges to equip people to work and live in a knowledge economy. Some of the competencies such a society requires include teamwork, problem solving, and motivation for lifelong learning. These qualities cannot be attained in a learning setting in which teachers state facts to learners who learn them only so that they can repeat them. A lifelong learning method must reach larger portions of the population, while also involving people and their diverse learning needs. It must be proficiency rather than focusing on age. Traditional institutional settings need to adopt, new curricula and new teaching methods in lifelong learning.

Efforts also need to be made to access learners who cannot enrol in traditional institutions and this can be done through for example online and distance programs. The lifelong learning model allows learners to acquire more of the new skills needed in the knowledge economy in addition to the more traditional academic skills. Learning new skills and attaining new knowledge does not need to be restricted to formal educational settings. Effective learning needs to be integrated into the work process. By integrating working and learning, people learn within the context of their work on real-world problems.

**Benefits of Lifelong Learning**

Many important socio-economic actors are advocating for the lifelong learning approach. The amplified pace of globalization and increasing technological change, the changing nature of work and the labour market, and the ageing of populations are all forces that make lifelong
learning necessary. There is increasing demand for skills whose threshold are rising as well as to meet frequent changes in the nature of the skills required. It has also been said that “lifelong learning’s core values of learning, exploring, and serving, coupled with benefits for the mind, body and spirit make it an incredibly powerful tool for personal transformation and enhancement” (Nordstrom, 2006, 45).

Nordstrom (2008), noted the benefits to lifelong learning as helping to develop natural abilities opening up the mind to create a curious and hungry mind as well as increasing the wisdom. Lifelong learning is seen as helping to make the world a better place by helping people to adapt to change and find meaning in their lives. Through lifelong learning individuals remain involved as active contributors to society. Individuals build relationships and make new friends and establish valuable relationships thus enriching life of self-fulfilment.

**Limitations of Lifelong Learning**

There is the need to carefully investigate possible limitations of the lifelong approach, as there are strengths and weaknesses of learning on demand. These weaknesses may include:

- the acquisition of certain crucial skills should not be postponed until they are needed because the time to learn them may be not obtainable or the environment may be too precarious for safe learning processes;
- Learning on demand is task driven and therefore may be limiting exposure to secluded facets of knowledge and may be providing only limited support for learning necessary principles.
- Learning on demand may be well suited for evolving addition of a knowledge base; it might not support significant reorganization, as the additional features learned take only in the locality of what learners already know.
Another main criticism of lifelong learning is the predominantly economic interpretation of the term. People are seen to want to learn to improve their economic circumstances.

2.2.4 Other scholars on Education
Siddiqui (2009, 122) explored education from Rousseau’s perspective whose opinion on education was that education should target the natural development of the inner faculties and power. Rousseau was a naturalist in his methodology of education with two principles governing the process of education from his own point of view firstly was learning through self-experience and not through book and second one was learning through doing he noted that “instead of shifting the child’s mind with his own knowledge, the educator’s task is to arouse the child’s curiosity so that the child is inspired to find out things for himself.”

Dr Maria Montessori was an Italian educator and physician who developed a philosophy of education, and wrote extensively on scientific pedagogy. To date, a number of public and private schools worldwide have adopted her methods. Her ideas were in revolt to existing teaching practice and treatment of problem children in the school system. And although criticised, some of her ideas have been taken on by educational sociologist and psychologists as being valid. Siddiqui, (2009, 152) gave particular reference to her two principles that is liberty in education and auto education. She believes learning should be left free to develop according to the rhythms of nature, as well as allowing learning to happen from own experience through trial and error. She was also a firm believer of training of the senses of children so as to maximise their ability to enjoy life.

In his books ‘School and Society’ and ‘Democracy and Education’, John Dewey attaches “great importance to the working of social consciousness which inspires an individual to achieve more and more educational eminence,” Omprakash (2011,8). The American
educationalist and philosopher John Dewey was one of the most influential proponents of the open-minded view of education. Dewey pointed out that it was the mission of education to support individuals to realise their full potential. He was of the idea that particularly schooling for all would help to cultivate the physical, emotional and spiritual talents of everyone, as well as their intellectual abilities. Dewey was opposed to the role learning facts in schools, and argued for progressive teaching methods people should learn by experience by doing things rather than being told. In this way they would not just gain understanding but would also build up the skills, habits and attitudes needed for them to solve a wide range of problems. Furthermore, individuals would develop the ability and motivation to think critically about the world around them. Dewey hoped that the education system he proposed would promote adaptability and open-mindedness, and individuals would be able to cooperate together as equals.

Sharma (2011) gives a dismal analogy of her perception of the education system by likening the school to a factory mass producing information which is later examined and labelled as qualifications. The right kind of education doesn’t mean ensuring everyone knows how to read and write but it should awaken of intelligence, education thus should not be seen as a matter of amassing information and knowledge from books which anyone can do. In defining the role of education she agrees with the functionalist perspective were children are sent to learn some technique by which the can eventually earn a livelihood however mastering of technical expertise does not enable one to understand themselves as an individual.

Dekker and Lemmer (1993, 247) stated that “the over emphasis on academic schooling in many parts of the world has led to the inadequate preparation of school leavers for the occupation world.” Society all over the world is continuously shifting swiftly and this makes
it hard to manage without persistently learning new things. In addition to this they noted that a lot of agencies whose principal mission is not education have already gone directly into the educational practice thus removing the monopoly from schools of education. The gap in education is life skills and the habits and mind-set that accompany these skills. These must be practiced throughout formal education so that learners have the opportunity to contribute significantly in lessons and gain from the learning experience. There is now prominence on the idea of life skills. The agreement is that education plays an important role in passing on culture from generation to generation. Sociological thinkers believe the curriculum to consist of knowledge and skills that the child needs the life now and also the future life as an adult. This concern is not just on the curriculum but also on the way learning is to be conducted “it is to be derived through actual experience rather than through formal lecture” Siddiqui (2009, 189).

2.3 Young People and a Development Context

Bajpai (2010, 01) notes that youth has emerged as a distant category in society due to their specific characteristics, needs, psychological traits and pattern of behaviour. This study is about young people and thus it is important to get an appreciation of youth as part of society and how their unique characteristics affect them in the education and learning process. The youth today are the citizens of tomorrow and they are the source of human resources of a nation and they have in them a lot of potential talent which need to be tapped right for the progress of any nation. Education is an important socialization process for the young people as the spent most of it in the different educational institution as well as the learning process that occurs within the wider contexts in their various environments.
2.3.1 Young Adults

Defining a young person involves recognising the broader policy environment and the views of other policy documents on youths. In Europe, for example, a number of countries define a young adult differently. A young adult is a person between 16 and 28 years in Poland. In Germany, a child is a person under age of 14, a young person is a person under age 27 and a young adult is a person over the age of 18 but under that age of 27. According to the South African National Youth Policy, a person is regarded as a youth or young adult if between the ages of 14 to 35 years. Young people in this age range need socio-economic and political assistance and support to reach their full potential. The definition of youth is broad, encompasses a significant part of one’s life. It should also be appreciated that this is a time in life when most young people are going through remarkable changes in their life conditions as they progress from childhood to adulthood.

It is also important to realise that not all young men and women are the same. Some are at school or training institutions, others are not, others are employed, and others are unemployed. There are young women in rural and urban setups, some young people and men live with their parents, and some do not. Other young adults are themselves parents, including single mothers. There are youth that are disabled whilst others have been the victims of abuse or mistreatment. This is a clear indication that the issues faced by males and females aged 14 to 24 years are likely to be quite different than those who are 28 to 35 years. This means that young people should not be treated as a homogeneous group but a diverse group with differing circumstances.
2.3.2 Positive Youth Development (PYD)

Positive Youth Development is a strengths foundation view of young people derived from ecological systems theory shares some theoretical room with the comparatively modern introduction of constructive psychology ideology. The theory puts forward that if young people have reciprocally favourable associations with institutions in society, they will most likely have a future distinctive with positive contributions to the individual and their communities. Through deliberate efforts of other youth, adults, communities, government agencies, and schools PYD seeks to offer chances for young people to augment their interests, skills, and abilities. The approach endeavours at understanding, cultivating and engaging young people in useful activities as opposed to trying to correct what normally termed disruptive behaviour that comes with being a young person.

Positive Youth Development sought to give an alternative to the pessimistic approaches of "traditional youth development" approaches. By addressing the positive progress of young as opposed to the negative problems this can facilitate their acceptance of healthy behaviours and aids in a healthy move into adulthood. The notion and practice of PYD developed from the discontent with a major view that undervalued the potential of young people by focusing on their shortcomings instead of their development potential. By capacitating young people with life skills one seeks to harness their potential to develop their abilities so they can make better informed decisions about their lives and be able manage life better.

2.4. Universities as Agents of Socialisation

As education has become universal, more and more people are exposed to abstract learning (of subjects like Maths, Science, History, Literature and so forth) as opposed to practical transmission of specific skills. In a modern society people have to be basically skilled, that is
reading writing and calculating and a general knowledge of their physical social or economic environment, but it is also important that they know how to learn, so that they can master to new technical forms of information. An advanced society also needs ‘pure research and insights with no immediate practical value to push out the boundaries of knowledge. Job opportunities today and careers have become dependent on the degrees and educational qualifications schools and universities not only broaden people’s minds or perspective but are expected to prepare new generations citizens for participation in economic life. Specialized forms of technical vocational and professional training often supplement student’s ‘liberal’ education and facilitate the transmission from schools to work. Internship or work experience schemes for example allow young people to develop specific knowledge applicable to their careers.

2.4.1 Higher Education Tomorrow
The coming century will be a century of pressure in every field and this will be put on institution of higher education to expand enrolment. Therefore the major drive is to create opportunities for a large number of youth to obtain relevant good quality higher education with and comprehensive and flexible approach. Unemployment and brain drain can wear away belief in higher education. Social sciences are less on demand in labour market on at least produces unbalanced number of graduates.

Today the idea of a life time job is difficult to conceptualise because of the ever increasing character of technological development. Continuous learning thus becomes a life time commitment. According to Jyothi (2010), universities have an obligation to society as it is the main agency for creation and dissemination of knowledge as well as custodians of its values.”

This statement is an overview of the role of universities in society. Understanding the university as an institution for the purposes of this study helps to put into perspective whether
they are fulfilling their mandate in preparing young people for life. It helps to also understand where, if life skills are needed can also come in to complement this role. UNESCO identified two main issues in its medium term plan of 1990 to 1995 on higher education in the world for universities as that of relevance and quality. Observations made were that the university system is isolated from society and rapid expansion in university education negatively affects the quality of courses and programs. A third issue noted was that scarcity in resources means they are concentrated on a small number of fields. Another key issue noted as previously pointed out by Lemmer and Dekker is that the University as a formal institution no longer has monopoly in the creation of knowledge.

Higher education has to be diversified so as to make it,

a) As centre of knowledge
b) As places of generation of organic intellectuals
c) Creation of human resource / manpower for productivity.
d) As places of professional training at the cross roads of learning throughout life and;
e) As partners in international cooperation.

The world is passing through ‘knowledge revolution’ and to take benefit from the global knowledge based economy. Universities however cannot be isolated from society because in pursuing their mission of training young people to respond to the needs of society taking into account the rapid development of knowledge and skills requires continuous reflection on structure and programs and the ability to adapt to new needs. Bawa (2011, 222) invokes a deeper responsibility for university, he feel “for progress of humanity modern. Universities are assigned the task to hand culture from generation to generation, develop knowledge criticism and renew and expand cultural heritage.” He views the university’s role to the individuals as to develop reason and potential for humans and lay the foundation for the
whole life. The mission for the university thus need not be confined to the economic and political systems. It is not just about productivity but universities are as Bawa points out (2011, 222) “spiritual forces that make independent criticisms of the negative trends in society with its new ideas and new culture and thus lead society forward.” This shows the complex nature of the role of universities as educational institutions and how they are responsible for much more than just academic qualifications.

Cabal (1993, 25) listed nine missions of a university by OECD as to:

1. Ensure general post-secondary education to the best grandaunts of secondary education
2. Develop research and culture.
3. Contribute to satisfy the labour needs of society in knowledge.
4. Provide high level teaching and specialised training
5. Reinforce the economy’s competitiveness and the plan of wealth especially engineering sciences and technology thereby strengthening ties between the University industry and business
6. Act as a filtering device for (despite the recent tendency of universities to open doors to adults they should select acceptable candidates based on intellectual capacities.
7. Joined to selection and degree giving university should offer the possibility for social mobility to good students and working class students
8. Serve as model to put certain national policies to practice so that equal opportunity and transmittal of culture and civic norms are guaranteed
9. The mission and function to prepare people capable of later carrying out the role of leaders in society

Jyothi (2010, 26) notes that “in order to realize the proclaimed aim as and objectives supposed to be achieved by universities it is important to come up with appropriate curricular content structure which takes into consideration the educational and occupational needs as well as the resources available.” Indeed the role of universities is complex and there are
different views and expectations as to what exactly the university package should have. Jyothi referred to a previous study by Parker (1986) that wanted to investigate the extent to which students reported that their university in Sierra Leone met both educational and professional needs effectively. A sample of graduates and final year students participated as well as lecturers and administrators. The findings showed that the students and graduates felt pessimistic about the university’s ability to meet educational and occupational need whilst the administrators were optimistic about the potential of the university system to meet the needs.

In conducting a similar study in India Jyothi’s own study had the following as part of his conclusions:

a) Participants felt there is need for more relevance to the social context

b) The curriculum needed enrichment as some of the curriculum content was outdated

c) There was a need for goal oriented education as the participants felt the importance of

I. Personal development of individuals in order to attain the good life

II. A social program in order to provide society with competent individuals and fostering in society the values needed for developing the good life

III. A component of national acting as the conscience of the nation.

The above conclusions can also be made for universities across the world. Education thus must be for more than mere cognitive and intellectual development rather provision of education must be for life skills. Singh and Rana (2009, 197), argued that “Education must ideally prepare students to face the challenges of life and for this it needs to be intimately linked with different life skills, the abilities for adaptive and positive behavior.” These skills enable individuals to deal effectively with demands and challenges of everyday life by developing generic skills related useful in a variety of areas. UNESCO 1996 in the Delor Commission report points out that “formal education systems tend to emphasize the
acquisition of knowledge to the detriment of other types of learning.” The commission noted that it is important to change this conception of education and make informed educational reforms and policy in education in relation to both contents and methods of learning.

2.5 Education and Training in Zimbabwe

Training and education in Zimbabwe has gone through a number of phases from the pre and post-independence era to date. Different policy measures were in the different phases have also been reflected in the education and training sector. Fagerling and Saha (1983, 139) point out that “important educational reforms always involve a political process with implications for the redistribution of power and of material resources.”

The colonial era had policies of racial discrimination in education and society and this caused glaring inequalities in the provision of education and training. Marxist approach to education can be seen here as education was an instrument for the ruling whites to maintain control over the black majority in Zimbabwe upon getting independence in 1980, government sought to address the imbalances and inequalities. The new policy saw the expansion of education service provision. The challenge however of the policy was, despite the increase in enrolment the system inherited the curriculum which was still British and academic in nature at this was at the expense of the expense of vocational technical skills. Expansion also put strain on human, financial and infrastructural resources as well as the teaching and learning resources. Most of the pupils from school post- independence did not have relevant practical training skills since the curriculum was mainly academic and theoretical.

The Memorandum of the Working Party of the Cabinet of September, 1985 tried to address this through emphasis on reform. The reforms saw change in the F1 (Academic and considered superior) and F2 (Mainly practical and was designed for the less gifted students)
into offering general education with pupils required to do at least two technical subject subjects in order to meet the developmental needs of the nation. One notes that this can be explained from a functionalist perspective as the government sought to use education to prepare individuals to fill in roles to meet the needs of society.

There however remained a mismatch between employment world and what was taught in schools and the President in 1998 commissioned Dr Nziramasanga to review the issues in education and training in Zimbabwe. The commission made a number of recommendations and proposed a paradigm shift from the examination driven curriculum to learning and develop desirable traits and competences (Nziramasanga 1999). This paradigm shift does not seem however to have taken place since the Nziramasanga Commission’s Report on Education and Training in 1999.

The economic situation in Zimbabwe has also seen education facing man resource challenges with student loans being removed giving yet another challenge to the tertiary level young person. With rising unemployment Zimbabwe is seen as “one of the top ten emigration countries in sub - Saharan Africa” Kanyenze et al 2011,328. With immigration come also different challenges like brain drain, illegal migration etc but these are the options that young people are faced with upon attaining qualification. The UNDP (2008) observed that loss of skills and deterioration in the country’s education infrastructure is the single most important problem that industry will face.

In light of this as Kanyenze et al (2011, 332) point out “in the context of globalisation, training has assumed greater importance to enhance national competitiveness and to improve the employability of job seekers. Training systems thus need to be able respond well to rapidly and ever changing demands and opportunities in society. This was recognised by a Sir
Phillip Magnus City and Guilds Secretary as back then as 1910 who quoted by Batho (1989, 67) “we recognise now that book learning in itself fails to afford and adequate mental training...the student must be trained in methods of discovery and the teacher has to stimulate in his pupils and not to assume it’s there.” This statement was true then as it is today. The World Bank (2006) acknowledges that people’s skills and capability and investment in education and training (human capital) are critical for growth and development. “The concept of human capital goes beyond knowledge and skills.... it also includes social skills such as team work, the ability to negotiate conflict and resist peer pressure” World Bank (2006, 72). Thus life skills are seen as bridging the gap and providing these skills which are normally found in the university curriculum but are quite important and relevant in the lives of young people.

There are problems that come with growing up and transitioning from behaving primarily as a child to assuming adult roles in the community. This includes taking on employment, participating in post-secondary education, maintaining a home, becoming involved in the community, and engaging in more complex personal and social relationships. With the change come challenges of varied nature. Below are some of the major challenges faced by a young person within the Zimbabwean context.

Unemployment remains an important constraint to growth and an important factor in addressing problems of social cohesion. Due to high rate of unemployment, the problems of unemployed young adults are becoming worse. Statistics show that about 47 percent of all young people under the age of 30 are unemployed. Unemployment has a huge psychological impact on young adults. The ability to secure a place in the labour market has long been a reflection of one’s potential failure to do so will mean one measures themselves negatively. It quite demotivating to young adults when they fail to find employment, particularly with high
the high literacy rates in the country. It is thus frustrating for young people to find themselves without occupation despite attaining educational qualifications. Due to lack of vocational and entrepreneurial skills, and limited funding self-employment is also a difficult endeavour.

Young people have been historically viewed as the healthy part of the population. This has led to their reproductive health needs being largely ignored by existing reproductive health services however if young people do have reproductive health challenges which, if left unattended, have a bearing on their future reproductive health status. Zimbabwe's population is relatively young with over 62% below 24 years according to the Inter-Censal Demographic Survey 2008 report. According to UNFPA 2011 “Young people face unprecedented challenges among them STIs including HIV, high levels of teenage pregnancies, unsafe abortions and limited access to sexual and reproductive health rights. The 2005/6 ZDHS reported a high rate of teenage pregnancies (21%), for the 15 to 19 age group. The adolescents fertility rate is higher in rural (120 per 1000 girls) than in urban (70 per 1000 girls) areas.” These statistics show that the young adult has challenges to face where it concern reproductive health.

Another challenge facing young adults has to do with the shortage of vocational and income-generating skills. Welbers (2002: 28) indicates that: “… education and training must help young people to acquire competences and skills”. According to Welbers (2002), these must enable them to adapt to rapid developments and uncertainties in their working life, as well as to exploit all the possibilities and future prospects in it. It will therefore be crucial to link the work in schools and training institutions more systematically and directly to the reality and evolution of the adult and working world outside them.
The term Life Skills Education, is being extensively used these days but it is often used interchangeably with livelihood skills even though the two terms are very different. Livelihoods skills are skills related to income generation in order to meet one's household and individual economic goals. These skills basically involve vocational skills, business management skills etc. Life skills on the other hand include all the dimensions of human life that is the economic, social or psychological etc, aspects.

As the World Health Organisation (WHO) in 1993 defined life skills these are "the abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with demands and challenges of everyday life.” UNICEF defines life skills as, "a behaviour change or behaviour development approach designed to address a balance of three areas: knowledge, attitude and skills." Life skills are thus are a large group of psycho-social and interpersonal skills, which can aid people, to in making informed decisions, communicate appropriately and effectively as well as develop coping and self-management skills that are meant to assist an individual to lead a healthy and productive life.

Cronin (1996, 54) defined life skills as “those skills or tasks that contribute to the successful, independent functioning of an individual in adulthood”. These skills according to Cronin can generally be grouped in five broad categories which are self-care and domestic living, recreation and leisure, communication and social skills, vocational skills, and other skills vital for community participation.

Life skills are seen as helping adolescents to move successfully from childhood to adulthood while developing healthy social and emotional skills. They also help in developing social competence and problem solving skills, as they seek to form their own identity define themselves as individuals. With life skills one will be able to weigh pros and cons in situations, thus the act as a mediator to problem behaviour. Life skills help to promote
positive social norms and this positive behaviour in turn impact the adolescent health choices, school, family and community relationships. Adolescents who have access to life skills are able to differentiate between hearing and listening and this in turn ensures less development misconceptions or miscommunications on issues such as drugs, alcoholism which are major issues for young people and thus this may help delays the onset of the abuse of tobacco, alcohol etc. Life skills overall promote the development of positive self-esteem and teach anger control. Life skills are thus a cluster of personality traits, social graces, facility with language, personal habits, friendliness, and optimism that mark people to varying degrees.

The PTS program targets young people in the age range 14 to 24 through experiential learning methods and aims to impart range of skills to the young people “that will help them stay in school and acquire the education, professional skills, employment readiness and confidence they need to succeed in life and in the workplace,” PTS Manual 2014, The program targets vulnerable youth who are in school but at risk of dropping out, as well as those that are out of school, out of work, or working in dangerous environments. The Passport to Success curriculum places a focus on widely endorsed life skills – such as self-confidence, responsibility and respect – to respond to the needs of youth, employers, youth-serving organizations, and other key stakeholders.

According to the International Youth Foundation (IYF) the program over ten years has now developed an 80-module curriculum in 19 languages on, Personal Development, Problem Solving, Healthy Lifestyles, Workplace Success, Entrepreneurship/Skills for Professional Growth and Community Service Learning. More than 80,000 young people have successfully completed PTS program with over 3,300 trainers worldwide trained in experiential learning to transform their classrooms into more engaging learning environments.
The program is in 27 countries with and Zimbabwe became its 28th country as it launched a pilot program in Harare and Chitungwiza in 2013 through 3 partner organisations The Boost Fellowship, JAZ and Young Africa. Nine trainers were trained to deliver PTS and in the pilot more than 200 youths have been trained in PTS and 40 percent were tertiary level students. This study thus seeks to explore PTS and its main components and assess its approach to life skills and see if it has key strengths that aid in the delivery of life skills training to young people at university.

2.6 Understanding Teaching Methods and strategies

While talking about young adults as a target group, it is necessary to highlight forms of learning which could be appropriate to this group, for example situated or informal learning, learning in groups. Theorists have come up with many ways interpreting learning. Learning has been defined as a procedure or the practice of acquirement of information and skills. It is assumed that learning is ‘fundamentally a social phenomenon reflecting our own deeply social nature, being capable of knowing’ (Wenger, 1998, 03). Situated learning involves the lived experiences that take place in the day to day life and youth learn so much through this kind of learning. Informal learning is regarded as learning taking place without established barriers and is determined by the individual’s response to one’s setting. Learning can occur in an informal settings and the environment plays an essential part in the learning process. Young adults do also learn in groups and they also learn from one another.

The curriculum exists according to Singh and Rana (2009, 02) to “provide the learning experience with a guide to stimulate growth and development of the appropriate psychological outcomes... For learning to take place a teacher must be aware of how pupils learn and how the particular method he uses affects the pupils learning.” They are stressing the importance of various learning strategies and how they are responsible for the learning
process. This is an important dimension in this study as it seeks to get an appreciation of various teaching strategies and also see how they are employed in the PTS curriculum. Singh and Rana (2009, 3) point out that “current researches conclusively support the principles that the best way to assist individuals to acquire appreciations, attitudes knowledge and understanding...is through school practices which epitomize democratic procedures.” There is strong emphasis on participation of learners in the process and a shift in the teaching methods in order to attain the various learning outcomes. The table below shows various outcomes of the learning process from inputs and different strategies.

Table 2.1 Teaching Strategies and Outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inputs</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>The main outcomes of the learning experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text books</td>
<td>Lectures</td>
<td>Information of a detailed and factual nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computers</td>
<td>Demonstration</td>
<td>General principles and concepts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labs</td>
<td>Quiz</td>
<td>Understanding meanings, definitions and general concepts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audio visual aids</td>
<td>Questioning</td>
<td>Skills emphasizing mental activities habits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audio aids</td>
<td>Fieldtrips</td>
<td>Interest, Attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual aids</td>
<td>Individualized instruction</td>
<td>Understanding of logic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Computer assisted instruction</td>
<td>Demand for verification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Concept mapping</td>
<td>Interest in learning and understanding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Singh and Rana (2009, 4)

Teaching strategies are varied and some are more effective than others because group of learners is full of heterogeneous individuals and no single strategy is most effective with all students discussed below are some of the more common teaching strategies that are used:
Lecture Method: it is often criticized as a strategy but is used extensively and widely. It is efficient in conveying large quantities of information in short periods of time.

Case Analysis: this is a modified lecture discussion technique allowing students to enter into the process of enquiry. It involves giving learners data and having them draw conclusions from it. It allows participation and research by the students.

Demonstration: showing something to another person or to a group. It provides an opportunity to participate in group problem solving activities.

Laboratory: this strategy provides apparatus to use and illustrating a technique and performing an experiment, it gives more concrete experience of the learning.

Reports Projects and research Reports emphasize specific areas and involves some writing. The success of this method is determined by the levels to which the student gets involved.

Field trips this is used to ensure participation for students to realize what they are expected to accomplish and how to reach their goals. It gives an opportunity to apply text book knowledge in an interpretation of local and real life situations and phenomenon. It also allows participants to observe and study that which cannot be brought to the classroom.

2.6.1 PTS Learning Approach and Methodology

Short Lecture: During a lecture the learners are passive recipients of information or explanations. For some this is exactly what they need to learn effectively. Others learn quickly and to others learning is lost. Consequently keeping lectures short will most likely benefit all learners.

Large and Small Group Discussions: When participating in large group discussions, learners can be passive recipients of information or actively involved. Small group discussions will
appeal to those who want to be more actively involved in exchanging information, examining an issue, or debating a topic.

**Role Playing:** Role playing is a proven instructional strategy for practicing skills and or trying out new approaches to a situation. All types of learners benefit from this strategy. Auditory and visual learners take information as they observe and listen, kinaesthetic learners benefit by being a part of the role play.

**Demonstration of Skill being taught:** The visual and auditory learners benefit most from demonstrations of the skills taught in the lessons. They hear and see the skill implemented effectively assimilate a model of how the skill should be done.

**Use of Visual Aids:** For auditory and kinaesthetic learners, creating charts or recording ideas can seem tedious. However for visual learners it is essential in order for them to grasp the concepts being taught or a series of steps or elements in a skill.

**Educational Games:** Games can appeal to all types of learners depending on the structure of the game. Games often add fun to a learning situation and can increase motivation through either competition or team cooperation. It is easy to use games without thinking carefully about the link between the game and learning. Using games as an instructional strategy requires that this link is clear.

**Personal Reflection:** Personal reflection on information or skills learned is essential to helping learners apply what has been learned in their daily lives. Personal reflection can and should be done in various ways to appeal to all learners. Verbal sharing will appeal to the auditory learners. Writing or creating pictures will help the visual learners. Kinaesthetic learners will benefit from active reflection, such as using a skill with a friend. A blend of these methods is critical to capture this essential part of the learning process.
2.6.2 Toward A Shift From Teaching To Learning

Bawa 2011 notes that there has to be a shift from teaching to learning. To Bawa (2011, 67) “shifting from teaching to learning can create a more interactive and engaging environment... The teacher will change from a knowledge transmitter to facilitator, knowledge guide, navigator as well as a co learner.” There is emphasis on the importance of having students taking greater responsibility for their own learning, the move form passive recipients of information to active participants.

Table 2.2 Comparison Teacher and Learner Centered Environments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teacher Centered learning environments</th>
<th>Learner centered environments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Classroom activity</td>
<td>Teacher centered didactic</td>
<td>Learner centered interactive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher role</td>
<td>Fact teller, always an expert</td>
<td>Collaborator and sometimes learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional emphasis</td>
<td>Fact memorization</td>
<td>Relationships enquiry and invention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept of knowledge</td>
<td>Accumulation of facts, quantity</td>
<td>Transformation of facts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstration of success</td>
<td>Norm referenced</td>
<td>Quality of understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>Multiple choice items</td>
<td>Criterion referenced, portfolios ad performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of technology</td>
<td>Drill and practice</td>
<td>Communication and access, collaboration and expression</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.7 Life Skills and Education

Life skills aim at elimination and negation of the gap between the content of education and the living experience of students. According to Singh and Rana (2009, 319) “ideally education ought to prepare students to face the challenges of life.” Life skills cultivate self directed learning and self motivated learning which help students and young people gain and attain certain generic skills related to a variety of issues. The aim of providing life skills thus is to foster ‘knowledge based performance.’ This means that when performances translates
itself into action it becomes a skill and when that particular skill improves and enhances the quality of life it then becomes a life skill and these should have three main characteristics, quality, relevance and functionality.

The life skills approach should be performance oriented based on action and behaviour modification. Singh and Rana identify certain skills as what they call “critical skills” which the term as being core skills these are as follows:

- Psychosocial skills
- Communication skills
- Self-learning skills
- Healthful living skills
- Observational skills
- Problem solving and decision making skills
- Cooperation and team work related skills

2.7.1 Adolescence Education

Another key component as highlighted above as a core life skill is on healthful living. Rout (2011, 78) picks on key objectives of the provision o adolescence education as “to provide authentic information on physical, physiological, psychological, socio-cultural and interpersonal issues of health in order to help them develop proper understanding of the process of growing up.” It is important to encourage healthy attitudes in young people towards sex and responsible sexual behaviour and to foster an understanding of HIV/AIDS causes, implications and consequences as well as how to prevent it. It is also important to know and understand the causes and consequences of drug abuse and the many was to preventing it as well as the skills to say no to drugs.
The three areas of importance in adolescence education thus become Understanding growing up, HIV/AIDS and Drug abuse. Life skills instruction addresses key domains in life especially with careful attention to how and where skills are taught. Practitioners must make sure that the surroundings and technique utilized in life skills training are not only effective in terms of instruction, but that they also improve community membership and eventually add to the quality of life. Employers and educators often complain about shortages of in soft skills among graduates from tertiary education institutions.

### 2.8 Chapter summary

A theoretical exploration of functionalism, Marxism and lifelong learning and their views on the role of education was done in this chapter. Functionalists see education as aiding consensus in society for the common good. The Marxists believe that education is an agent of class discrimination and continued repression of the lower classes. Lifelong learning approaches education from the individuals’ perspectives to conceptualising a society where learning is ever present and always on going. By also looking at the situation in Zimbabwe, one notes that there are gaps in the education sector in terms of meeting the developmental needs of the nation. The discussion above stresses the key point that education is as dynamic a process as is society. It is important that education fully meets the needs of the young people so as to fully prepare them for life and adulthood. The chapter also looks at the developmental need of young people and the role of universities in meeting these needs. Discussed also were the various teaching strategies and how they contribute to the delivery of information and how they aid in the delivery of life skills.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the research methodology, sampling procedure and research instruments that were used to collect data as well as the procedures for the collection of the data. An overview of the research approach adopted is given as well as identifying the epistemology and theoretical perspectives that guided this research. A case study research strategy was used and gave the researcher the ability to investigate the phenomenon of life skills training at university level as implemented in the PTS pilot as opposed to a blanket approach to life skills training.

The research used embedded mixed methodology approach and as such, it primarily employed qualitative research methods whilst integrating very limited quantitative aspects. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, 25) note that “mixed research addresses both the “what” and the “how” and “why” research questions. Data was collected using mixed research methods through partially structured questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, and content analysis was also used. The chapter then covers issues on validity, reliability and triangulation.

3.2 Research design

Schindler (2003) defines research design as constituting the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. They say this blueprint includes experiments, interviews, observations and analysis of records. Research design aids the researcher in the allocation of the limited resources presenting critical choices and in influencing whether the plan and organization of investigation has been so envisioned as to get answers to research questions. The plan is the overall design or program of the study. Riley (2000, 184) notes that “some
standard in choosing methods comes from the type and quantity of data necessary, the resources, time money and facilities available as well as aims and objectives and personal preference”; all the factors that determine research strategy and design. A structure is the framework, of the relations among variables of a study. For the purposes of this case study, the researcher used the mixed approach.

The distinction between qualitative and quantitative research is predominantly a methodological question. The choice of a particular methodology is generally based on its appropriateness to answer the research questions. Denzin and Lincoln (1998, 58) affirm that “qualitative investigation emphasises the process of finding out how the social meaning is created and emphasises the relationship between the investigator and the topic studied.” Quantitative research, on the other hand, is based on the measurement and the examination of fundamental relationships linking variables.

Snape and Spencer (2003) point out that qualitative research is an interpretative strategy focusing on understanding the meaning people assign to the phenomena they experience in social environments and setting. They sum up key elements which distinguish the qualitative approach as the approach which offers a deeper appreciation of the social world additionally it is founded on a normally a small scale sample. They also noted that qualitative research uses interactive data collection methods, for example interviews. This means that it enables new subjects and ideas to be explored.

In light of the above opinions for and against both qualitative and quantitative methodologies the researcher adopted a qualitative approach to the study. The rationale being the researcher needed to comprehend the phenomenological lived experiences of the individuals involved in the PTS Life skills program. The limited quantitative research aspect was in section A of the
questionnaire which had closed questions to allow a quantitative description of the respondent’s demography while also getting an appreciation of the respondents from that perspective. The research was thus an embedded research technique. The approach enabled the researcher to get an understanding of the different perspectives to life skills from the target groups as well as be able to focus on different relationships and processes within the PTS pilot program.

The use of qualitative approach was adopted largely to achieve the overall intentions of the study. The qualitative approach assisted me to get a deeper understanding of the idea of life skills, education and youth development being studied. I was enabled to examine issues in the research question while getting a rich representation on the real circumstances surrounding PTS life skills training. As Gray (2004, 19) showed, “qualitative research is known as being highly-contextual and data is gathered in normal actual life situations.” Qualitative research thus answers both how and why questions in research as opposed to giving a brief view regarding the phenomenon investigated.” Selection of methods was dependent on which ones would more effectively meet the study’s objectives and aims.

3.2.1 Inductive versus deductive research approach

It is imperative also to categorize the research approach and highlight whether it is inductive or deductive. Saunders et al. (2003) distinguish these two types of the research design. The deductive approach tests a theory, and the researcher comes up with a theory or hypotheses and then designs a research strategy to test the theory. The second one, the inductive the researcher starts with collecting data in an attempt to develop a theory. The approach is known as building a theory. It is important to show clearly the approach is being used in one’s study. Marshall (1997) established the theoretical use of the two terms as when researchers’ first start to open up any original lines of investigation there are no useful
theories existing from which to deduce suggestions for testing. Information and understanding has to start with collecting evidence and then trying to discover some order in them and this is induction. Deduction on the other hand is a technique where knowledge is developed in more mature fields of analysis. It thus involves going a stage further than the existing theory; therefore data is then collected to test it”.

The current study was conducted through using an inductive research design. Saunders et al. (2003) observed that this approach gives the chance to have a better account of what is going on. The process involved gathering the data from a number of sources and by employing a number of sources of evidence: semi-structured interviews, questionnaires and document analysis in an attempt to get a full understanding of the life skills training experience.

In this research the secondary sources of data used, involved essentially reviewing previous research, records, reports and documents on life skills, training education and young people. Primary data was collected by interviewing the PTS life skills trainers, international youth foundation and participant questionnaires and document analysis of the PTS curriculum manual.

3.2.2. Theoretical approach

It is also vital to distinguish the research approach beyond just qualitative and quantitative approaches, and this is done by exploration of the theoretical and epistemological perspectives. Researchers cannot assert to be objectivist and constructionist at the one time. For this study, the views, beliefs and thoughts on life skills were reached by following a research string of constructionism consequently interpretivism conduct. Crotty (1998), noted that epistemology explains how we know what we know and it’s a way of understanding knowledge. Maynard (1994) observed that epistemology is focuses on offering a
philosophical grounding for choosing what kinds of knowledge are possible and how to ensure that they are adequate and legitimate. Epistemology thus is about understanding how we come to know the world and as well as understanding what relationship between the inquirer and the known is.

The stance of this research is a constructivist epistemological stance and thereby involved engaging with the social world of education and training. The study aimed to understand and construct the reality from the standpoint of the different stakeholders who experienced and lived the phenomenon of life skills training under PTS because constructionists see reality as essentially a social construct. With constructionism information exists in the mind of individuals and the task of the researcher is to understand, reconstruct, analyse and critique participants’ views in a way that leads to coming up with significant findings and outcomes. This epistemology discards the objectivists’ standpoint of knowledge and implies that both the subject and the object are actively involved in the creation of the meaning. The result is people tend to construct meaning in diverse ways even when looking at the same phenomenon. The aim of the researcher becomes to understand and reconstruct people’s beliefs by trying to reach a common agreement of the different.

It is imperative for interpretivist to find out the biased meanings or realities which motivate people’s actions so as to understand and make sense of these actions in a way that is meaningful. By adopting an interpretivism paradigm, I sought to understand the social world of life skills training and engage key informants by gathering in-depth information regarding life skills issues in tertiary institution. From the data collected, the researcher sought to make interpretations to serve the overall purpose of the research which was intended get further appreciations on life skills training for students at university levels.
The phenomenological approach thus in turn focuses on examining how human beings experience the phenomenon, in terms of perception how they describe it as well as make sense of it. In order to get to such understanding, the researcher needs to get in-depth information from people who have directly experienced the phenomenon or who lived with the phenomenon (Patton, 2002). In light of this the issues of life skills were treated as a phenomenon and investigated from different perspectives, including those of: trainers, participants and administrators’.

The phenomenon of PTS was investigated in a direct way using a number of qualitative research methods to investigate and appreciate people’s experiences concerning the issues being investigated. Instruments used to achieve this were semi-structured interviews, questionnaires and document analysis. Using such qualitative methods enabled the researcher to interrelate successfully with the respondents and get in-depth views from diverse angles regarding life skills training at university level. The researcher then endeavoured to figure out the meaning of such views and discover the common perspectives from which a conclusion and recommendations could be made to contribute to life skills literature.

3.3 Research Strategy

Crotty (1998, 3) defined research methodology as “The strategy, plan of action, process or design, lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes”. The type of the research methodology is thus affected by the theoretical perspective of the researcher as well the ways in which the data intends to be used whether inductive or deductive. This study undertook a case study as a research methodology to reach the overall aim of the research.
3.3.1 Case study – research strategy
Robson (2002, 178) defined case study as: “A strategy for undertaking research which involves an investigation of a particular present phenomenon within its real life environment using numerous sources of verification.” A case study research strategy to explore PTS for a number of reasons. Case studies have a characteristic advantage over other research strategies when “how” or “why” questions are being posed to discover a current phenomenon and when the researcher has little or no control over the events (Yin, 2003).

Using a case study approach was on the whole useful in informing the casual relationships between the phenomenon and the circumstance in which it occurs. In addition, the case study meant the researcher was able to use various sources of data as well as a variety of research methods to look at the research questions which, in turn, advanced the validation of data.

3.4 Population sample and sampling techniques
This study’s target populations include the university level participants who were trained in PTS in the piloting project, the trainers who received the PTS training of trainers and the program administrators in the Harare International Youth Foundation offices. According to Rubin et al (2003, 18) “a target population is an aggregation of all the elements in the sampling frame and it must be defined in terms of elements and sampling units.” In this study, selection of a sample was conducted for the student participants received the self-administered questionnaire. All the 9 trainers of PTS were interviewed and 2 individuals from the administrators (International Youth Foundation) participated in the interviews.

A total population of 80 students received PTS training in the pilot program 85 tertiary level participants and they were trained at two institution the Women’s Universities in Africa and the University of Zimbabwe. The sample selected was taken from the two participating
universities by using a non-probability sampling approach. In order to obtain the sample the researcher applied a quota sampling strategy and with a target of 30 respondents for the questionnaire the aim was to have at least half of the respondents form each of the two institutions trained. Mikkelsen (2005, 193) notes that “it is becoming normal practice in qualitative research in development to let sample selection be determined by informational requirement.”

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

The tools used to collect primary data included self administered questionnaires and interviews. This research used questionnaires sent via email to student participants. A semi-structured interview guide was used for the trainers and administrators who were interviewed.

3.5.1 Semi – structured interviews

Interviews have three categories and these are structured, unstructured and semi-structured and a Kyale (1996, 14) put it “an interview is literally an inter-change of views between two persons conversing about a theme of mutual interest.” For the trainer and administrators interviews, I selected the semi-structured interview which is perhaps the most widespread type used in qualitative research. This meant that I had established beforehand a set of questions (refer to interview guides appendices B, C and D, on the specific issues relating to my research questions and objectives but I was able to develop conversation on new issues that were not originally part of the interview with the interviewees.

Qualitative interviews are useful research instruments in getting deep insights on how people experience, feel and interpret the social world. There was a lot of flexibility which allowed the researcher to add or remove questions from the guide as each interview was conducted depending on the flow of conversation and it was not necessary to follow a specific order of questions.
The semi-structured interview gave the researcher the chance to ‘probe’ for more detailed information by asking the respondent to give more clarification to his/her answer. This is important when one adopt a phenomenological approach as was taken in this study because a major concern is on understanding the meanings that the respondents attribute to various phenomena.

The interviews were conducted in the space of one week and I set up appointments with the administrators for one day having had prior discussions over the phone and via email. The administrators also being the coordinators of the PTS programme had granted permission before hand for me to conduct the study through email. At the beginning of each interview, I confirmed my name, position, institution to the interviewee and then explained the aim of the research so as to familiarise the interviewee with the research topic. This brief introduction was followed by asking the interviewee about his/her position and tasks as a way of collecting more detail about him/her and at the same time creating a good atmosphere to conduct the interview and make easy the interaction with the interviewee.

Most of the questions asked were open-ended in nature. The questions were created based on varied sources, including my background on the topic studied. All respondents showed evidence of diverse experience in the research topic. All interviews took place within the interviewees’ organisation and lasted between 15-50 minutes. To remember the conversation, all interviews were recorded with consent of each participant. Also, hand-written notes of the interviewees’ responses were taken during the interview. I assured all interviewees about the confidentiality of the information given.
3.5.2 Self-administered questionnaires

The researcher used a semi structured, questionnaire to draw information from the student participants. The questionnaire (refer to appendix A) had three sections with Section A having structured questions. This enables respondents to reply in a uniform manner and get data on the profile of the respondent. Section B had open ended questions while the last section had cases response scenarios which were meant to elicit level of application of concepts from participants. Panneerslvam (2005, 43) defined a questionnaire as a systematic compilation of questions that are directed to a sample of population from which relevant information is desired. In order to make allowance for non-response the researcher emailed to questionnaire to all participants so as to be able to make a selection of the 30 targeted responses.

The use of the questionnaire was cost effective in comparison with face to face interviews as I had targeted 30 respondents. In this study, it was also time saving as I was able to send the questionnaire via email and get the responses via email without incurring travel cost. The questionnaires also removed the researcher bias as the respondents were left to complete it on his or her own time and he or she can choose whether or not to answer a question. The questionnaires allowed contact with inaccessible respondents who had studies and some were on attachment and thus could not have made time to meet the researcher.

Interviewer bias was also eliminated and respondents answered to even the sensitive issues. Because there was no interviewer intervention for probing or explanation I had to assume that all participants understood all the questions clearly. There the risk is that I had no control over who actually answered the questions. Additionally some of the terminology might seem as jargon especially and there was no one to further explain and might lead to misinformed responses.
3.5.3 Document analysis
In this study document analysis was done on the PTS curriculum manual. The aim thus is to
analyse and see how the curriculum aims at guiding trainers in their deliver of PTS. This will
also be compared with interview responses to see if the instructional objective of the
curriculum is transferred uniformly to the trainers and also the respondents.

A document is any material that gives information about the investigated phenomenon and
exists autonomously from the researcher’s actions. It is usually produced for specific reasons
other than those of the research. It can however be used by the researcher for cognitive
purposes, Corbetta (2003). Yin (2003, 87) stated that “For case studies, the main essential use
of documents is to substantiate and add to evidence from the other sources”. The documents
in this research I studied the PTS Manual to get more insight on the structuring of the life
skills program.

Corbetta (2003) recognized that there are a number of advantages of the documents over
other research methods. Documentary analysis is significant in qualitative research it offers
data revealing what people writing them thought about others and the world around them. It
is a non-reactive technique because the information available in a document is not subject to
a possible distortion which might come from the interaction between the researcher and the
respondent. Document analysis is also quite cost-effective as the information has already
been produced (Denscombe, 1998). Documents on the other hand do have some
shortcomings in terms of the accuracy and completeness of the data (Patton, 2002).

In the present study, the document critically analysed was the PTS manual. This method
enabled me to underscore compare and contrast data in the documents and from the
interviews and questionnaires. Themes were developed to help focus on the main issues to be
obtained from the document. The issues identified in analysing these documents were then
combined with the findings obtained from other methods so as to understand all conditions related to PTS.

### 3.6 Data Analysis Procedure

Yin (2003) emphasises that data has to be precisely presented in a “user friendly” manner for it to be of use. It is thus not satisfactory to just collect and record data but it has to be presented in a manner that will be understood by the users. It is very important to effectively communicate the research findings to users of the information. In this research tables, charts and text will be used properly to summarise and represent data. Additionally data on its own cannot be viewed as useful information, it is thus important to analyse and interpret the data for a research is truly to be helpful. A qualitative discussion will be given for each concept addressed by the research.

Gray (2004) identified content analysis and grounded theory as the two main ways to analyse qualitative data. Content analysis tries to make out specific categories and standards of selection before the process of analysis begins. With grounded theory the second method, no criteria are set in advance. The criteria and themes come out throughout the course of data collection and analysis. It can be acknowledged that grounded theory is an inductive approach while content analysis on the other hand is more deductive. Strauss and Corbin (1999) defined grounded theory as a theory that is revealed, built on and conditionally established through systematic data collection as well as analysis of data on the phenomenon.

Using grounded theory in analysis of data involves three steps: Open coding, where data is categorised into themes or units. The second stage is axial coding and the researcher then identifies relationships between the categories. The last stage is selective coding, where the
main categories are incorporated to come up with a theory. The constant comparative method also represents an important approach for analysing qualitative data.

3.7 Validity

Hammersley (1987, 69) asserted that “an account is well-founded or accurate if it represents precisely those characteristics of the phenomena, that it is supposed to illustrate, clarify or theorise”. Validity focuses on two main issues, that is if the instruments of measurement are accurate and also if the instruments are measuring what they actually want to measure. There are also two separate dimensions to the notion of validity, which are internal and external validity. With internal validity the researcher make sure they investigate what they claim to be investigating.

On the other hand external validity concerns itself with the degree to which generalisation of the research findings can be done to a wider population. The use of multiple methods for investigating one issue substantiates the findings of the research. The validity of the data therefore increases. In this research, validity was attained by using multiple methods to examine the issue from many angles thereby reinforcing the validity of the findings. Furthermore the researcher made sure that all questions asked in the interviews and questionnaires were related to the research’s aim and objectives as well as covering all the essential aspects of the topic.

3.8 Reliability

Reliability of research ensures that a researcher has done their research to such an extent that the results established can be replicated by any repeated tests. Benwell and Stokoe (2003) state that despite the fact that there a number of works on narrative analysis there isn’t an agreed way of going about the analysis of narrative data. This has been seen as a negative
thing because the non-availability of a standardized formula of analysis means one can apply any approach in their analysis.

Marshall and Rossman (1999) challenged that the total replication of qualitative studies is not very realistic especially because situations are likely to change. Phenomenological research thus may be hard to replicate as it depends normally on unstructured data collection techniques. In this study the following measures were taken to improve the reliability

- Recording of interviews so as to give more reliable evidence and avoid errors which might happen if the researcher tried to recall the discussion.
- All the questions were worded clearly if there was any confusion the question would be repeated in order to allow the interviewee to comprehend.
- All interviewees were given the chance to describe their own beliefs and thoughts freely without any interference either that might create bias in the interviewee’s response.

It is acknowledged that conditions present in this research might be changed when replicating the current study but various procedures adopted increase the probability of replicating the present study.

### 3.9 Triangulation

Triangulation is a tactic that can be used to reinforce the confidence of the research findings. Triangulation can help to reduce or possibly eliminate personal and methodological biases and increase the probability of generalising the findings of a study as the data is gathered from different angles and by different methods. Decrop (1999, 159) emphasized that “using various methods paves the way for more plausible and credible data”. In light of this, in this research, data and methodological triangulations was achieved through data collection from a number of sources and by using several methods, which were semi-structured interviews, questionnaires and document analysis. Using multiple methods is thus an effective strategy to surmount most of the weaknesses of the different methods used.
3.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter discusses the research design, the population representative sample and sampling techniques as well as the data collection procedures. The data collection procedure was examined, the data collection instruments were described, and reliability and validity were also tested. The study’s theoretical approach had followed a string of constructionism that interpretivism phenomenology. An embedded qualitative approach was used to reach the overall aim and objectives of the study as it is characterised by its ability to provide a deeper understanding of the phenomenon being examined. Using case study research strategy enabled the researcher to explore PTS from different angles by using multiple sources of evidence, including: semi-structured interviews, questionnaires and document analysis. Data obtained throughout the interviews were analysed using the constant comparative method which yielded from the grounded theory approach. The chapter finally looks at the validity, reliability and triangulation issues. An in depth outline of the data collection procedures is also given. The chapter thus gave an overview of the boundaries of the case study research and justifies the sampling strategies and the research methods used for collecting the data.
Chapter Four: Data presentation, analysis and discussion

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this research was to assess the contribution of life skills to youth development in Zimbabwean universities, focusing on the PTS pilot. This chapter discusses the findings from the data collection process conducted through semi-structured interviews, questionnaires and document analysis. The main reason for analysing data is to find meaning and this is achieved by systematically arranging data and presenting the information. It has to be arranged so that someone can make comparisons, contrasts and gain insights which can be illustrated from the presentation (Burns, 2000).

The data analysis done showed the data collected for each objective, and drew general conclusions based on participants’ responses. Also in this chapter is a discussion on the relationships between literature and findings of this particular research. Focus was on identifying the reception of the PTS life skills program in Zimbabwe. The process of data analysis involves making sense out of the text as well as image data. This means one has to prepare the data so that one can get deeper into understanding the data. This allows someone to be able to make interpretations of the larger meaning of the data (Creswell, 2003). Qualitative data is usually in the form of words and the words are thus read for their meaning. The meanings then are synthesised so that one can interpret them and come up with conclusions and recommendations.

4.2 General overview the PTS program study

During data collection, the key program elements of PTS were identified, the methods employed in the training process by organisations carrying out the training as well as the role of the International Youth Foundation as the coordinators of the program. The aim was to
see what place life skills training has in the Zimbabwean universities context and also get an appreciation of the strength and weaknesses of PTS as a life skills program. Life skills are meant to empower young people who are as Mamombe (2001, 42) described as a source of hope for the future and who he notes “with organisation are capable of bringing about essential transformation.”

Having established earlier during the literature review that there is a life skills training gap within the Zimbabwean academic context, this is an important process as PTS is seen trying to fill this gap. This is especially important as young people are very energetic and tend to extend and dramatise their view and opinions. That is why as Mamombe (2001) put it they are usually at the centre and forefront in various revolutions. The challenge however is they don’t really have specialised expertise or even a common perspectives so it is important to ensure that they have a type of education that can help them channel their energies productively.

PTS is an international brand thus it is important to assess its suitability for the Zimbabwean context and get an appreciation of how, if it is to be replicated, it can be done most effectively and most efficiently. Accordingly, data was collected through the use of questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and document analysis, and the findings are presented in this chapter. A total of 80 questionnaires were sent out to all tertiary level participants and a total of 47 responses were received and selection of 30 questionnaires was made. 8 trainers were interviewed the other trainer was otherwise occupied at work at the time of scheduling the interviews. 2 members of staff from the International Youth Foundation were also interviewed.
4.3 Data Presentation

4.3.1 Demographic profile of respondents

The first section helped to get an appreciation of the profile of the young people who received the training. It took on a quantitative approach to offering the description of the participants. This quantitative description was embedded in the primarily qualitative study. Understanding the participants gives a general overview of the youths that received the training. The different characteristics help to be able to note what kind of youth received the training and this can also be related to the reception that had to PTS.

Gender Distribution

The gender distribution by location shows that the life skills training was received by more males than females. At UZ, the gender difference was larger than at WUA. This is also reflective of the profiles of the two institutions in terms of gender distribution. This is supported by the independent study the IYF conducted using the CD –RISC scores on resiliency which showed a lower resiliency score for women at the baseline stage and higher score at exit survey stage. This reflected significant improvement on the female participants resiliency score which measures resiliency defined by IYF as: “The ability of an individual to adapt within a context of significant adversity.”

Gender is an important factor in any intervention because “young women face more complex problems than young men due to their socio economic conditions relating to their education and access to income and opportunities” (Kotze, 2010, 43). It is thus a positive attribute of PTS that it has been proven to significantly foster positive change for the young women who took part in the pilot program.
**Number of lessons attended**

Zimbabwe Works participants need to attend at least 80 percent of the PTS curriculum to be considered effectively trained in the curriculum. This is effectively means at least 32 lessons have to be attended. The figure below shows that the majority of the participants met the minimum target number of lesson, however some did not manage to do so. This is discussed later as issues of scheduling were also brought up by respondents as one of the factors that caused challenges in attendance. One participant had attended all the 40 sessions. It is important to also consider what would happen to the young people who will not be able to meet the set quota of lessons despite having attended some of the lessons. PTS’ effectiveness will hinge on its ability to be an inclusive program which can respond to the characteristics of young people particularly as mobility is one such characteristic of young people.

**Level of study of participants**

Based on the questionnaire responses one notes that most of the participants were in their first and second year of study. Level of study is an important variable as it will determine which lessons to place emphasis on. For example participants in their first year are more concerned with skills to help them adapt to university life issues on peer pressure, substance abuse, communication relationship building etc. Those close to going for attachment and already attached would appreciate the employability topics like interview skills, CV writing, how to be a good employee, teamwork e.tc as would those in their final year.

**Participant Age Distribution**

Age is important particularly as PTS’ main target is specified as age group of 14 to 24. The age ranges displayed were from 19 up to 27 for the PTS participants target group. It is important to note that there are participants who received the training beyond the age of 24
but still indicated they benefitted immensely from the training thus showing never too late to get life skills training.

Mode Age of participants = 21

\[
\text{Mean} = \frac{\text{Total sum of Ages}}{30} = \frac{639}{30} = 21.3
\]

Based on the above calculations one notes that the most frequently appearing age (the mode) is 21 and the mean which is the average age range of the participants, is also 21.3. The conclusion is that 21 is the average age range that the participants received the PTS intervention. Age is an important component in life skills. And the general consensus is the earlier the better. Some respondents in section B highlighted that they would have preferred to receive the training at Ordinary level before they made important decision like subject combinations at Advanced level as they felt they would have made different choices with different outcomes to date.

**Ratings on usefulness and significance of PTS training**

Below is a frequency distribution table displaying the frequency of various responses to the usefulness of PTS as rated by Each entry in the table represents the frequency or count of the occurrences of values from the respondents and the table summarizes the distribution of values in the sample. It is a univariate frequency table meaning it is representing a single variable by depicting the frequency of each response to question 9.
Rating the usefulness of PTS training

Table 4.1 Section A question 9 Frequency rating table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Degree of Usefulness</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Very Useful</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Useful</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Not very useful</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Not useful</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Useless</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On measures of centrality:

a) Mode rank which is the ranking with the highest frequency is: 2 (Useful)

b) The arithmetic mean of the ungrouped data is

$$\frac{1(10) + 2(19) + 3(1)}{30} = 1.5 \text{ (rounded off)}$$

Mean rank: 2 Useful

c) Median which is the middle value of the data is also ranking 2 (Useful)

Based on the above statistical measures of centrality, the majority of the participants ranked the Usefulness of PTS on two which is the second rating. None of the participants completely ruled out PTS as useless. Rating of the extent to which PTS has made significant impact in respondents’ lives.

Table 4.2 Section A Question 10 Frequency rating table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Degree of significance</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Quite a lot</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>A lot</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>A little</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
On measures of centrality:

a) Mode rank which is the ranking with the highest frequency is: 2 (a lot)

b) The arithmetic mean of the ungrouped data is

\[
\frac{1(2) + 2(27) + 3(1)}{30} = 1.5 \text{ (rounded off)}
\]

Mean rank: 2 (A lot)

c) Median which is the middle value of the data is also ranking 2 (A lot)

Based on the above statistical measures of centrality the majority of the participants ranked the significance of PTS on two which is the second rating meaning they found it as a lot significant.

4.3.2 Recurring themes on PTS

Relevance

All the respondents indicated yes to the issue of relevance of the PTS training. Reasons given why they felt so included that they felt it gives lessons on how to be good citizen and responsible person. They felt they learnt many new things about life and they got equipped with life skills that help the individual to develop personally. One respondent noted that “the training made me realise the potential I have and how I can execute my duties while respecting and tolerating others.” Relevance of PTS could be noted from a content perspective as different participants recorded emphasis on different content areas.

For some it was appreciation on the relevance of the entrepreneurship component one respondent noted that “Am now a business minded person and all that I plan to do I succeed.” For others PTS assisted in organisation skills as well as planning and goal setting for success. There was a lot of positivity reflected in the participant’s response and they highlighted
different courses an indication that the packaging of PTS content appeals to a diverse audience “It taught me about anger management, conflict management issues and techniques that I did add to my personal life skills tool box”.

The Respondents reflected consensus on the relevance of the life skills training that they received. An interesting point raised by some of the participants is that before encountering PTS they were not even aware of the skills deficiency. It thus should be a policy issue to ensure that the education system addresses this deficiency as highlighted in the Nziramasanga commission. As Singh and Rana (2009, 1) pointed out “The Education System of any nation is a mirror though which can be seen the image of a nation being shaped.” Soft skills need to be accorded just as much importance as hard (technical and professional) skills because education has always been and will continue to be the potential cause of transformation and change in society.

**Appreciation of PTS**

The respondents indicated that the appreciated the content from the discussed topics. They felt the learning part was relevant to day to day life. Another point of note was they appreciated being able to meet many people and learning how to socialise. Due to the interactive nature of PTS they got an opportunity to know new people and form relationships. Some topics mentioned the most were;

- Marketing self and Goal setting: According to one respondent “What I appreciated mostly about PTS was the lessons on personal marketing and the life plan. I was a shy individual and the lesson on marketing oneself got me to come out of my shell. It had never come across to me that one had to have a life plan and the lesson helped me to plan ahead.” This resonates with Dekker and Lemmer’s (1993) position that there is
an overemphasis on academic schooling at the expense of other life skills which in turn means the school leavers are inadequately prepared for the occupation of the world.

- Conflict resolution because “every day one gets in a conflict either within or with another person”

For some it was the realisation that they were poor in the areas taught and they did even realise it that made them appreciate PTS all the more. Apart from the information that was shared the learning environment which had high levels of group interaction made the experience worthwhile. They appreciated the way the training was conducted. Interacting with other students and being able to share experiences with peer owing to the learning environment facilitated by PTS meant the participants felt they developed a network that gave them support from people who share the same goals in life. The community service element was very outstanding in the participants responses they felt the experience gave them a different perspective to life. It was a significant experience to be able to make a difference in one’s community as well as being able to assist others with little resources available. It was also important to understand what the participants did not appreciate about PTS. In response, the following issues were raised:

(a). Scheduling. Some felt when the PTS was done they were very busy while for others the fact that PTS classes are sometimes on holiday to them meant PTS took time to rest and do other things from them. Some topics: one topic highlighted is on STI’s and HIV to the respondents although it’s an area of concern they felt it has been overdone and there is need of novel ways to convey it. Another topic raised by one respondent was on respect she felt “we were taught these things about respect since kindergarten and I did not really see the point in repeating them to people”.

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Appreciation thus can be seen coming on from a number of areas including the content, the learning environment, the teaching style as well as being able to interact with others and new people. As Nelson et al (2009) note, if the skills and attitudes of students seeking employment are unsatisfactory then the implications have far reaching impact on a nation’s future. It is thus important to come up with relevant and useful content and be able to package the information so that its uptake is smooth and that learning takes place. Participants were asked to assess what benefits they felt they got PTS training which they felt they could apply in their life. The responses were grouped according to the PTS life skills categories.

Table 4.3: Perceived benefits of PTS by recipients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PTS Life skill category</th>
<th>Participants responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Personal competencies           | Communicate in an assertive way not aggressive  
|                                 | To accommodate and appreciate the efforts of other people.  
|                                 | It added to my personal competences  
|                                 | For me the life plan has become an integral part of my life and I’m currently looking at developing a 20 year life plan.  
|                                 | Planning  
| Problem Solving and conflict management | I got some life skills which enhanced my life as well as motivation  
|                                 | Conflict resolution,  
| Healthy Behaviours              | pressure and avoidance of alcohol and drug abuse.  
| Effective work habits           | I learnt time management  
|                                 | I was able to be groomed to be a good ambassador of myself i.e. personal branding.  
|                                 | The secret of team work  
|                                 | Professional people skills and tackling everyday situations in an objective way  
|                                 | Interview techniques and sell well as personal presentation skills  
|                                 | the CV writing skills, issues of etiquette,  
|                                 | and time management  
|                                 | Interview techniques and sell well as personal presentation skills  
|                                 | Budgeting and using finance  
|                                 | CV writing skills and handling interviews, turning every situation in your favour  
|                                 | It came to me when I was about to face a series of job interviews and it gave me the necessary skills  
| Entrepreneurship                | Thinking outside the box and entrepreneurial skills  
| Service learning                | Project planning and execution given limited resources. How to become successful with limited resources  
|                                 | Through group interaction, I benefitted from relationships that we created among the participants through the community services I got the ability to get into other people shoes and get to experience and feel their side of the story as such help them understanding what little help can mean to them  

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As seen above the participants felt they derived a variety of benefits from PTS and these can be grouped according to the 6 categories of life skills offered by PTS which they can apply to their life. One notes that there is particular regard for the Effective Work Habits category from the responses. This can be attributed to the level that there are in life and they feel the training is particularly important to the next stage in life. Singh and Rana (2009) point out that the aim of providing life skills is so that it offers improvement for the individuals. They also point out that life skills need to be about “knowledge based behaviour action and performance.” It is thus reflected above that participants felt they could really apply what they had learnt in their lives which is important because it is only when they can transform the knowledge into action by applying it and it enhances their life that they would have attained life skills.

(b). The Learning Environment: Responses showed the enjoyed the training and this was attributed to factors like the training was done in a friendly manner. Participants noted that they because of the way they were taught. Other felt the friendly PTS staff created a conducive learning environment. The fact that PTS allowed participants to connect with a lot of different people also gave them appreciation for the program.

According to the respondents the facilitators were realistic and gave the audience great opportunity to participate and they were very interactive. One felt that they enjoyed because of mostly the natural flow of group dynamics and sharing of life stories among participants, though refreshments could have added more fun to the session. PTS was termed learner friendly, interactive and fun. The sessions were open and free and they were not formal lectures but more of discussions which allowed full participation and realistic examples thus enhancing the learning experience. They indicated a balance between being fun and educative.
From the responses of the participants key factors that made the PTS learning environment are:

- Facilitators (friendly open and free)
- teaching method (interactive, informal)
- natural flow of group dynamics
- fun yet educative
- participation
- realistic examples
- interacting with different people

The key characteristics of PTS can be seen reflected in the responses of the participants. As noted in the document analysis of the PTS manual PTS is meant to be “fun yet educative” as the respondents put it. Bond (1984) notes “that the association of learning and fun mean that the learning will be taken with enthusiasm.” PTS uses highly interactive activities and game which games in particular are associated with fun and friendship. The use of these teaching strategies means that young people get vital information in a different way. The strategies have left a mark on the respondents thus reflecting their effectiveness

(c) Peer relevance: Young people regard the opinions of their peers highly and by asking “Would you recommend PTS training to your friends and colleagues why or why not” The researcher wanted to gauge if participants regarded PTS highly enough to recommend it to their friends and reasons why. This also gave further insight on hoe respondents perceive PTS especially in light of their friend’s context seeing as peers usually are a big influence. Participants indicated that they would recommend the training to their friend and for a number of reasons. They felt their friends might benefit from the skills which they
themselves had acquired because if it was helpful to them therefore it could also be helpful to their friends.

PTS was a platform where one can learn a lot of life principles in a flexible way and in an impactful manner also and it gave necessary life tools and it’s potentially a life changing training so they would recommend it. One participant said “Yes most of my friends are not business minded or formal in their methods. They lack in various areas and they do not know it.” Other reasons included that it’s an eye opening experience and it would help my friends to utilise the opportunity and make strategic plan to achieve their goal. Another respondent indicated that they would recommend because what is learnt in PTS is not found in the curriculum at university. The respondents managed to pick what they felt were shortcoming in their friends as well as the shortcoming of their academic environments which they felt could be addressed by PTS training.

(d). Timing Appropriateness of Life skills intervention: Life skills training interventions take place a different stages in life and respondents were asked their feeling on the appropriate of the PTS at the stage that that they received it (university), if they had an option to receive it earlier or later which stage they would choose. Most of the participants felt they could have benefitted more by receiving it earlier. None of the respondents indicated that they would take PTS at a later stage. Those who picked earlier noted the following periods:

- during university orientation period
- “in my first year of university as it would have helped me in making sound foundations earlier”
- O and A level students because the life skills attained from PTS could go a long way in shaping their lives as they grow up.
- Yes at ordinary level it would have helped me make a wiser choice in my advanced level subject combination choice.
• Yes at ordinary level it would have helped me make a wiser choice in my advanced level subject combination choice.

• “I would have loved to receive it during ordinary level because I believe this is when I started shaping my life. PTS would have been more relevant especially considering the skills it imparted.”

Others felt it was appropriate and noted that,

• “It was relevant at university because at university many of us will be the next employees and employers and will need skills on how to deal with life but it must also being received earlier so that one can be equipped for life obstacles earlier.”

• “Yes it was relevant but it is also good to give it to High School students”

This question was especially important because it also impacts the wide question on just how early do life skills need to be incorporated into the formal education system. It is evident that if we are to properly equip young people the life skills menu has to be spread across all ages. By the time they reach university some major decisions would have already been made which impact of the life of the young person and their future. However the relevance of life skills at university is still there but there is need for contextualisation of life skills based on age.

(e) Areas of Improvement: Respondents were asked if they saw any areas of change through the question “If you something could be done differently with PTS what would it be and why?” Suggestions on areas of improvement included:

Training venue: Logistically, If the training could be done at a camp to avoid inconveniences and to improve the attention. Just including refreshments only

Scheduling: The timetable suggestion was offerings PTS lessons during school days not on holidays

Speakers: Adding one or two speakers that can come and motivate the participants or impart small life tips or talk about their life journeys in order to help the participants to see that indeed good life skills can make life easier and more successful.

Support start-ups: To assist those interested in entrepreneurship
Content: PTS should not be a crash course where all topics, from personal competences budgeting to health issues. There should be different levels of the curriculum which are taught to different age segments

Practical exercises: More practicals in the training sessions to enable more realistic strategies and approaches

(f). Participants Personal Assessment of PTS: Asked to describe the PTS experience in their own words and its place their life participants respondent with a lot of positive an enthusiastic and positive descriptions of PTS. Helpful, game changer, eye opener, awesome, important, worthwhile, it’s now a part of my life and life changing; were some of the descriptions given.

Below are some distinct direct quotes from the respondents.

- “It was a roller coaster ride, intriguing, insightful, educative, at times humorous, brought good connections and above all brought a smile and change to my life.”
- “I learnt that no matter how difficult life situations can be you just need the right ways to deal with them.”
- “PTS removed scales from my eyes and removed my brains from the box and conscientised me on most of the things needed as a young entrepreneur. It was truly my passport to success.”
- “Life changing experience which have equipped me with the relevant skills to meet up with daily life situations which we confront and experience but in a positive and more progressive attitude”

(g). Application of concepts: Section C of the questionnaires wanted to gauge how the respondents would respond/react or deal with the following cases. The aim is to see if participants are applying concepts learnt in PTS. They were given two scenarios for the PTS manual.
| Scenario A: A more popular student teases you about your clothes and the area where you live  
(PTS Manual: Problem Solving and Conflict Management  
Topic: Reducing Intimidation and Bullying) | **Recommended Response from manual.** | **Typical Participant responses** |
|---|---|---|
| **Scenario A:**  
A more popular student teases you about your clothes and the area where you live  
(PTS Manual: Problem Solving and Conflict Management  
Topic: Reducing Intimidation and Bullying) | **Four way To respond to an intimidator:**  
Tell intimidator to stop  
ignore the intimidator  
leave the area  
tell someone in authority  
Additional reactions  
stay calm  
ask support from others | I would face him or her and explain that there is more to life than the current state of affairs and that life changes and one day I would be better off through hardworking and dedication  
I would walk away from the scenario, if there are a lot of people and when he/she is alone I will confront them and tell them politely to stop it, if it hurt my feelings.  
I would walk away and approach him/her when there is no crowd if there was a crowd. If there is no crowd I would sit him/her down and understand why he/she behaves like that  
I understand that the person is trying to get to me so I just leave him alone.  
I would flash them with a smile and point out that it is said that clothing and location “petty things” really affect them that much they have to say something.  
If in the presence of people I would simply walk away and approach him when he or she is alone and tell him or her that I don’t really like what he does to me because there is nothing I can do to change what I am but definitely I will change what I will become. |

| Scenario B: There has been a lot of petty vandalism in your community that has really affected the morale in the area. You have an idea who is doing it and want to solve the problem.  
(PTS Manual: Problem Solving and Conflict Management  
Topic: Solving problems) | **Steps to problem solving**  
State the problem  
Think of many ways to solve problem  
Evaluate the idea  
Choose your solutions  
Do it  
Evaluate | I would confront that person and negotiate with him to stop the acts as well seeking external help  
I would confront the person and tell him/her that what they are doing is wrong and they should stop doing that. If they don’t stop I will report to the authorities.  
Invite them for a discussion and act as if you are not aware its him and suggest ways with them on how to curb the problem  
I approach the person politely and try talking him out of that behaviour. If the approach fails I report him o the police  
I would approach them and study them, find the motivation or reason behind their actions thus nipping the problem in the bud, it might be a cry for help or attention psycho social analysis would be the first vital step.  
I would simply report to the relevant authorities.  
I would approach them and warn them that what they are doing is wrong |
From the comparison of the recommended response with the participants' response, one notes an above average application of the taught concepts from the participant. Also, reflected is confidence and a respect for self in the responses. There is also a positive attitude, especially in scenario A, and an indication that even if things are not well now, they will get better through hard work. They show responsibility for their lives and are not necessarily affected by negative circumstances. This also correlates positively with the finding of the IYF independent study report (2014, 7) that, “the evidence suggests that overall, the most effective program in increasing youth resiliency is the Passport-to-Success Program. It should be noted that the Passport-to-Success Program is a Life-Skills course. Therefore, it can be said that life-skills courses have the greatest effect in producing youth with high resiliency.”

**PTS in the Zimbabwean context**

According to the Coordinator, PTS started in March 2013 with 4 partners: the BOOST Fellowship, JAZ, YA, Restless Development, with twelve trainers, although only three participants implemented the pilot with restless development and its three trainers not taking part. PTS gave a structured approach to delivering 6 life skills components and it directs and guides facilitators through the steps so that everyone knows what needs to be done. The process started by identifying partners with a life skills component in their programming for funding of the PTS program. Thereafter, from the partners, they invited applications for trainers from the partner organizations, and they were 18 applicants which were narrowed to twelve successful participants based on four main characteristics.

**PTS Trainer Profile**

1. Work Experience.
2. Confidence of facilitator
3. Aspirations and motivations if the person is motivated to be a trainer and
4. At least 2yrs working with young people
After selection trainers went through a 3 day Training of Trainers (TOT) where they were introduced to PTS training methods and practical exercises on delivering PTS as well as reporting monitoring and evaluation steps and procedures. The trainers have since also had refresher training after about 3 months. The IYF offers follow up by IYF officers in lessons, trainer evaluation coaching and assistance once training commences. PTS is a 6 category is all encompassing of issues needed by young people. It well structured and offers curriculum guidance to those who are offering it. The way it is delivered is informal opposed to lecture method in which participants found the involvement is very refreshing. Its group selection techniques are very important as well as the practical exercises.

PTS internationally is an 80 module/courses curriculum with each session taking up an hour. The partners helped to identify key sessions for the Zimbabwean context and the selection process left the Zimbabwe PTS curriculum with 40 courses. Within the 80 there are core courses which are compulsory and a country can add on other and for Zimbabwe the selection process came up with come up with the forty courses. The selection process entailed looking at what is missing from what we have already have for example HIV information extensively available but there is less information on entrepreneurship and work readiness. Another contributing factor was to ensure that the pilot needed not be too long. To date after revision the Zimbabwean version has 42. In the 80 module curriculum some of the topics are split for example making money make sense 1 and 2. In Zimbabwe looking at literacy levels no need for all of them it was evident that there is no need for all of them. Identification of the actual participants is done by partners as they know their target populations more buy IYF gives guidance on age and monitoring and evaluation.
There have been positives in the pilot of PTS. IYF Zimbabwe Works managed to introduce PTS in fewer 10 months while in other countries it takes around 18 months. Total numbers to date should be reaching 400 whilst in other countries like in Nigeria they manage 100 participants per year. There was a gender balance in the introduction. Another key issue is for civic engagement in some ways other countries don’t do it from the onset but in Zimbabwe the service learning component as incorporated right from the start. From the independent study evaluation there is an average of 70 percent improved life skills.

**Challenges in the piloting of PTS**

**Facilitation**

There were challenges noted in the PTS Pilot. To begin with facilitation by trainers was not at the same high standard level that was expected with some partners’ facilitators lagging behind. Ultimately there were also differences in treatment of certain topics by the facilitators for example e.g. one saying I did stress management in 2 hrs another did it in one hour so there were differences. There were notable differences in the levels of engagement of participants by different from facilitators. There was thus emphasis on the need to ensure that facilitators have a common understanding of the topics. In light of the IYF is considering adding two days for content in addition to the current tot of 3 days so that trainers get more appreciation of topic especially if the facilitator to face vocal participants. Trainers also noted that there is a need for a lot of preparation for the lessons.

**Funding**

There have been budgetary constraints that have limited expansion beyond the numbers of the current partners who started with PTS. The program like most donor funded is experiencing the Donor market’s fatigue in Zimbabwe however partners are allowed to take
up PTS at that organisational level and seek their own funding. Additionally PTS training can also take place with other organisations that are licensed partners sourcing their own funding and just getting technical support.

**Application**

At university level the facilitator has to be clear that the content does not in any way supplement what they are learning in school in terms of academic content. It is meant to be applied in daily life.

**Structuring**

The fact that it is not structured as part of the academic studies, it is regarded as past time and not accorded that much seriousness by the university level participants.

**PTS at University level**

For university level there has to be a slightly different approach to the level of training it is important to harness their knowledge during the training session. For most of these young people given their level of maturity and exposure to topics like gender, the facilitator needs to give them more time to discuss and apply. The facilitator needs to be on top of their game so that the facilitators do not get bogged down. The facilitator doesn’t have to get into the technicalities and help them get the knowledge and going an enabling opportunity to share knowledge so that they are able to apply. With PTS you find facilitators also learning from the process.

There is also need for relevance of what you give to which kind of young person e.g. those nearing graduation work readiness because that’s where they have immediacy of concern. To the first years on the other hand teaching them how to adapt to university life is of key importance. According to the PTS coordinator PTS has been developed in different versions
depending on the target skills, for example PTS for prisoners is different as different emphasis than for young mother likewise for university students. However there are some key lessons that apply across board no matter what situation the young people is in especially n personal competences and problem solving.

**Replicability of the Project**

The administrators felt there was huge potential for replication of the project to young people key learning points however are firstly has to target and make allowance for the different levels and characteristics of young people. PTS needs to be conceptualised and contextualised e.g. young working people, high school etc. Trainer development is also needed that is to get a core group of master trainers to build capacity of trainers, train, and coach and mentor others. There is need to develop a pool of resources online for e.g. an online portal for a community of practice so trainers can continuously share and improve themselves. PTS has to develop itself as a brand PTS so that it can be recognised and become a go to life skills program with certification recognised by market employees. The achievement of PTS need to be shared with a wider audience so that they raise awareness because you find the young people trained in life skills performed better in the work place. The civic engagement activities component is not very cultural seeing as the role of extend family so it gets in young people to do good in their communities.

For future it’s important to source funding so that more organisations can take on PTS. This can also be tied in with removing costs like for example removing the incentives like t-shirts so that PTS can go further. For tertiary level in particular if life skills are integrated with curriculum discussion for example through the office of the dean of students and become a part of the university structure it can benefit more young people. The replicability of the
project is very possible but the costs need to be looked at and the university the model would help if the lecturers are capacitated so that it is housed within the university.

**Monitoring and evaluation**

PTS used a pre and post-test Monitoring and Evaluation procedure using the Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC) that measures the resilience as a result of the life skills training. CD-RISC was started by IYF for the Zimbabwe program, but it’s a standard tool used to measure resilience and it has also been used in South Africa and USA. The results from the Zimbabwe program gave scientific evidence backing to justify the qualitative claims towards PTS. Analysis showed that PTS beneficiaries were scoring higher compared to other life skills interventions. Those who didn’t do life skills scored lower that those who had life skills in the overall IYF Zimbabwe Works project. PTS as a program had success stories and compiling testimonies from young people showed PTS is a unique program based on the testimonies. Even those who got 2 to 3 weeks training had high levels of confidence; there was high impact and enthusiasm.

The baseline is administered before training and an analysis is done to get the various disaggregations’ so as to see how resilience varies. Once they have completed training participants are given about a month before administering the exit survey with the same tool to measure if there is change. We see that there are young people who record positive change, no change and negative change. The negative change was noted that when they completed in the initial they were not educated in the soft skills and at exit stage there was more of a critical self analysis. Comparison was also done on the average participant scores as well. It was noted that women had greater improvement in terms of average scores. So for all partners women had lower resilience compared to men but at the exit survey there wasn’t a
significant difference between males and females which meant women had a greater change. As they were lower at the beginning so their gain is more in terms of improvement PTS can thus be used as a tool for women empowerment.

PTS’ Strengths are that it has a coordinated holistic approach to life skills compared to some single themed interventions. It looks at different things a young person needs to be successful. A drawback is the training time frame 3 weeks to a month with young people looking for different opportunities is a challenge. However for institutionalised youth it’s easier as compared to out of school and open market youth whose completion rate becomes very low and record high attrition rates.

The IYF Zimbabwe Works program used hard indicators like how many young people were employed after interventions or managed to start up their own enterprises. However it would be insightful to track soft indicators as well because if people are in school it takes time to measure in hard indicators thus measure on soft indicators like CD-RISC shows level of resilience at baseline and exit survey, increase in knowledge base and outcome indicators as opposed to has someone gotten a job. A coordinated approach to life skills has more benefit as compared to a silo approach and looking at one component only.

PTS Trainers Personal Experience

Trainers were asked to share what their PTS experience and they indicated that. Training has opened up avenues personally and to the students as well. The informal setting allows for more participation and contributions from participants it was different from the lecture style which they were getting in their academic studies. PTS gave new ways of disseminating information role plays discussion. They viewed the training is a building block career wise or
personally. According to the trainers, PTS is more practical while others feel that life skills are more of theory, it’s more about application of the concepts and how the information is disseminated, is different. It touches topics separately not as one component and offers basic skills e.g. lesson and the method of delivery is very different.

There is a disparity in literacy levels and unemployment in Zimbabwe. Young people need hands on experience and need to fill the life skills gap. The school curriculum archaic and doesn’t address what they can do it’s about passing an exam. PTS gives necessary guidance even in personal life it teaches key skill like assertiveness, team work decision making, confidence building, self-esteem which help one create a personal brand in life. Key topics like gender and stereotypes important and HIV/AIDS are very relevant to young people.

Recruitment of participants was done through advertising at WUA and UZ as well as identifying other students to market the program. For participants who showed interested a briefing session was held to explain what it entails and the benefits and they were asked to sign up. Guidelines were given from IYF and participants filled in baseline forms. The next step was coming up with a program timetable with the participants considering that they had their own lessons. The lessons were scheduled during lectures and during their semester breaks and holidays. As part of their sessions they had to do community project and after completion they graduated in a ceremony and received certificates which they can use.

Benefits of PTS professionally and personally to the trainers highlighted included that PTS is very interactive helps strengthen training and facilitation skills although the preparation time of PTS is very strenuous. They felt they gained vast training skills and they also learn as they
deliver to the participants. The TOT aided on how to deliver the program but trainers felt it was rushed and there should be more time to enhance the quality.

Strength and Weaknesses
A major strength identified by trainers is it is a well compartmented a complete package. Implementation is child and learner centred and it can apply to both old and young people. It is highly participatory and there is room for questions and debate. There is practical enhancement though skills development and participants get to know that they do not live in a vacuum but need to build relationships. The methodology is fun and it is also a one stop shop. With Enjoyed you see change in the students from lesson to lesson and seeing students taking up leadership positions and attributing they will be attributing it to PTS as they gain confidence. And with each group the experience is different even if the topic may be the same there are different learning points.

Weaknesses included issues to do with time constraints scheduling as well as preparation time. University level participants initially may think the topics are weak and they are sceptical but they realise as they go on that they need the training. Challenges also are some of the lessons are sensitive, some of the topics are being learnt in school and the facilitator has to control the lessons as they might want to apply what they learn at school. The trick is not to undermine what they know but being able to teach them what they need to know. PTS needs to be incorporated in the school curriculum because the young people might not even be aware of the gap and they feel they don’t need them. If incorporated also PTS benefits everyone not just a select few.
4:6 Key programme elements

The following were identified as the key components of the PTS manual

- An 80 module/course curriculum and Zimbabwe uses 42 of the courses.
- Trainers guide – a resource used by trainers explaining how to deliver PTS lessons in a consistent high standard way.
- Trainee handbooks used by students as they go through PTS
- Comprehensive training of trainee and master trainer programmes meant to equip trainers in multiday interactive workshops with skills and confidence needed to deliver “experiential student centred”
- Coaching- offered by professionals in Zimbabwe its IYF technical specialists who guide and support trainers.
- Tracking and performance measurements tools on pre and post-tests
- in behaviour and skills attained, Teachers student and Trainer assessments

Table 4.4. PTS instructional strategies and target learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional Strategy</th>
<th>Auditory learner: Learns best by hearing information</th>
<th>Visual Learner: Learns by seeing words/pictures</th>
<th>Kinaesthetic: Learns by being actively involved with skill being taught</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Short Lecture</td>
<td>X</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Large and small group</td>
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<td>discussions</td>
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<td>Role playing</td>
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<td>Demonstration of skills</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Use of visual Aids</td>
<td>X</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Educational games</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Personal reflection</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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</table>

Adapted from PTS Manual 2014

PTS identifies and targets all these learners.

4.6.1 Lesson design

PTS lessons are designed into two sections. The first section has information needed for each lesson it states the learning objectives of participants are stated. There is a definition of the
key terms of each lesson. This first section also covers a lesson preview which a snapshot of the lesson in chronological listing information and activities to be covered. Materials needed are listed as well as all the tasks to be completed before teaching. If there is a prerequisite lesson it is stated as well as well as the estimated time of the lesson. Section two of the lesson design covers the actual lesson delivery in and components. It has four main components:

a) Generating interest – an introduction to the lesson

b) Information to share: Information and concepts are to be presented in various methods

c) Group activity: Constitutes the bulk of the lesson and participants practice the concepts.

d) Personal application: Usually reflection where participants consider what they have learnt so they can see the relevance

Order of lessons: sequencing of the lesson is not preset but the first and last lessons are set and Pre requisite lessons are taught first

Lesson time: all lessons are 60 minutes

Adapting lessons: The trainers were appropriate may adapt certain case studies role plays, names or locations if they are not culturally acceptable or contextually appropriate. Any changes need to be reflected in the session plan form.

The participants’ handbook: the students can be complete it during or after class. Depending on the literacy level there is the option of using pictures to complete.

Group members: PTS is designed for an average of 20-25 so that the groups are not too big that some participants may not get the opportunity to share or too small that there is lack of diversity of opinions.
**Trainer role:** presents, facilitates, demonstrates participants in discussion, role model, manager and evaluator.

The PTS manual is a very detailed and takes trainers through the various steps of the lesson. It gives uniformity and structure to the training and ensures standardised delivery as it guides each step of the lesson. The PTS manual seems to reinforce Bawa (2011) opinion that a shift from teaching to learning creates a more interactive and engaging environment and ensures that students become active participants in their learning as opposed to passive recipients. Singh and Rana (2009) emphasise that it is important to realise that any classroom is full of heterogeneous individuals and the PTS manual takes this into consideration by guiding trainers to use multiple teaching strategies so that learning takes place for any type of learner.

**4.7 Chapter Summary**

Chapter four discussed the data from the questionnaire, semi structured interviews and the document analysis carried out. It gave the demographic profile of questionnaire respondents in terms of gender, age level of study and the number of PTS lessons received. Common themes from the questionnaire data included relevance of PTS, application of concepts appreciation, perceived benefits and the learning environment as experienced by the participants. Also discussed were issues of peer relevance, timing and appropriateness of the life skills intervention, areas of improvement as well as an overall personal assessment of the PTS program. A concept application scenario was also presented showing a comparison of the participants’ responses and recommended responses from the PTS manual. This was meant to assess the application of concepts learnt by participant. The data from the interviews of the PTS administrators and trainers was also presented. The data details the personal experiences and explored topical concept like trainer profile participant and trainer
recruitment. PTS in the Zimbabwean context was also discussed as well as challenges faced in the pilot program and the PTS experience at university level. Interviewees also gave recommendations on program improvement and replicability. The M and E procedures are outlined the pre and post-test CD-RISC analysis process and its implications and various program strengths and weaknesses. Lastly the document analysis of the PTS curriculum shed light on the key program components, instructional strategy and target learners, lesson design which structures and controls the implementation of the program.
Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 discusses the main outcomes of the study of the PTS pilot study conducted. In this chapter there is a summary of the research investigation, major findings, and implications of the findings, conclusions and positive recommendations on the PTS program and life skills training at tertiary institutions. This study aims at bringing about awareness of the life skills component in university education its relevance as well as practical recommendations on the development and growth of the life skills program for young people at university institutions.

5.2 Summary

This research aimed to look at the PTS product by exploring its main components and how PTS has been received in the Zimbabwean at 3 levels: the trainer, recipients and the administrating organisations. With the current Zimbabwean economic climate, particularly with the high unemployment rate, is very harsh to the young person, especially those at tertiary level who find themselves as part of huge statistics of the educated but unemployed. This study thus aimed to see if PTS has the potential to aid the young people through challenging times in the Zimbabwean context by evaluating the reception of PTS was by the Zimbabwean tertiary level participants. An assessment of the key program components was done and the study explored the relevance and benefits of life skills training especially focusing on tertiary level young people.

Osler 1994 noted that education should be student centred and stresses on the participation of the learner. The concept is seen as having been drawn from the Brazilian Educator Paolo Freire. Education should be seen equipping students skills that they are most likely to need in their communities. Young people need to have enquiry skills and skills that give learners the
ability to understand and interpret and use information from a variety of sources as well as apply them. Young people need to be able to understand and test the skills out in society and this is the key component in life skills training.

Consequently policy development and educational practice should be seen being built around these aspects of new understanding on the nature of mind. It should reflect an appreciation that education and knowledge has outgrown the traditional categorisation of schools and universities and the awareness that learning and assessment are fundamentally social processes. Education as a result needs to aim at improving the quality of life of an individual. The dimension of a higher quality of life should be all encompassing to involve an improved psycho physical, ethical, economic and occupational as well as a spiritual dimensions if it is to bring an evolved quality of internal peace calmness and genuine happiness.

5.3 Findings

- Generally from the research conducted, there exists a huge need for life skills training for young people in the Zimbabwean context and at tertiary level.

- Passport To Success is a possible alternative to the life skills training gap although it needs further mechanisms to ensure it suits the Zimbabwean context. There is a lot of positive feedback and enthusiasm surrounding PTS that gives it so much potential.

- Cost of life skills is an important determining factor affecting the adoption in Zimbabwean institutions.

- The structuring of the life skills program has great effect on its reception and the general consensus is for it to be success there needs to be incorporation into the formal education system.
The first research question was aimed at assessing how PTS was received by the university level participants who were trained in PTS and the trainers delivering PTS. It was noted that PTS was received with a lot of enthusiasm and positively by both the trainers and the students. Both categories indicated that they got huge rewards for the PTS experience. As Singh and Rana (2009) noted life skills aim at eliminating the gap between the content of education and the experience of living. It should be noted that they suggested areas of improvement that would serve to better the life skills experience. University student felt the intervention helped them improve in different aspect of life. There was emphasis on their appreciation of work readiness skills and entrepreneurship skills which can probably be attributed to the fact that the workplace is the next stage after they complete studies and they felt better prepared after going through the life skills program.

An assessment of the key program components of PTS and how they contribute to the overall curriculum’s strengths and weaknesses was also done in response to research question number two. It was identified that the key program components of PTS firstly its 80 module/course curriculum of which the Zimbabwean version has 42 of the courses. The content in the course covers the critical life skills identified in chapter two that are needed by young people. It has a holistic approach as it covers psychosocial skills, communication skills, self learning, healthful living skills, problem solving and decision making skills, cooperation and team work skills. The approach is seen as holistic as compared to trying to do interventions which focus a selection of the components. It is however important to assess the needs of the target group in delivery of content so as to know which areas to emphasise on.

The Trainers guide is another key component which is a resource used by trainers which guides the delivery of PTS lessons in a consistent manner. It offers structure in life skills
training and encourages interactive and experiential teaching methods which were described as refreshing and assisting in the delivery of key lessons. The role of trainer in the learning process is key and Bawa (2011) points out that “the role of the teacher has to change from a knowledge transmitter to facilitator, knowledge guide, navigator as well as a co learner.” The trainers guide also emphasizes on various instructional methods which is important as no single strategy is effective with all learners.

Another component identified was the trainee handbooks used by students as they go through PTS. The trainee hand book also enhances student participation and application of concepts and as Rousseau noted learning should be through self experience and through doing. It gives the student an opportunity to reflect on the major highlights of the lesson after it has been completed. The effectiveness of this tool is also on the trainers making follow-ups to see if participants are completing their hand books. In addition to this there are comprehensive training of trainer and master trainer programmes meant to equip trainers in multiday interactive workshops with skills and confidence needed to deliver “experiential student centred learning.” This component of PTS in the Zimbabwean situation needs further strengthening as the TOT need to go further and build capacity of trainers. There is need to note that trainers are as different as their students and thus need constant training to build their skills. The consensus is the training needs to go beyond the three days. The master trainer component has not yet started in Zimbabwe.

Coaching is also another component offered by professionals in Zimbabwe its IYF technical specialists who guide and support trainers. The coaching offered by the IYF technical specialist has been a key tool as trainers and their organisations have more confidence as they have guidance every step of the way. It is however important to build the base for coaches if
the program is to grow. Lastly there are tracking and performance measurements tools on pre and post-tests in behaviour and skills attained Teachers student and Trainer assessments. The tracking and performance measurement tools are important as they give indications of program performance efficiency and effectiveness. However for PTS there needs to be measurement beyond just resilience as measured by the pre and post-test, an also include soft indicators in program evaluation.

Given the noted positives of the PTS intervention this study also looked into how the PTS life skills can be replicated and adapted for Zimbabwe university youths. In response to research question 3 it was noted that some adjustments in terms of scheduling of the program so that it does not disrupt the schedules of participant. Another area of improvement would be working on building the capacity of trainers so that delivery is a done on uniform standards. PTS’ Holistic approach is both a negative and positive because it means everyone gets everything on the menu even if it might not be as relevant. It is important to look at contextualising the information to the target group and level of study.

5.4 Recommendations
Based on the findings discussed above the following recommendations are given so as t improve the implementation of PTS in university institutions. The recommendations would improve the smooth flow of PTS activities as well as improve the program’s strength in the Zimbabwean context:

- Adapting Putting PTS as a part of the curriculum: by integrating life skill into university curriculum it is afforded seriousness by students. This will also help in the creation of an appropriate timetable
- Creating awareness and demand to students, university officials and industry for life skills qualification so curriculum can be tailored to meet these needs.
• The Zimbabwean PTS manual needs to go further and be adapted for the different stages in university life and the trainers need to be capacitated to put emphasis on relevant content to the level of study
• There is need to explore further the benefits PTS can offer particularly making gender based interventions towards women empowerment
• There is need to increase the capacity by having more trainers, master trainers and coaches. Another approach is to capacitate lectures or university staff to be able to offer soft skills in house. This will go a long way especially in mitigating the costs of the program.

5.6 Conclusion

The thesis’ aim was to study the concept of life skills training at university level through a case study of the PTS life skills intervention by the International Youth Foundation conducted at two institutions. Data collected confirmed the relevance and importance of life skills at university level in the Zimbabwean context. This study noted that PTS has the potential to aid the young people through challenging times in the Zimbabwean context. An assessment of the PTS reception by the Zimbabwean tertiary level participants, the key program components of PTS, its strengths and weaknesses enabled the researcher to offer recommendations on how the PTS life skills curriculum can be adapted and replicated for Zimbabwe’s tertiary level youths. It is important to realise that investing in life skills in young people will give them the grounding and foundation they need to perform as responsible adults. It is also important to realise that soft skill and hard skills complement each other and the education given needs to reflect this balance.
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Assistance Letter  
28/08/14  
Att: Employability Technical Specialist  
International Youth Foundation: Zimbabwe Works  
Suite No.  
Arundel Village Harare  

Dear Mr. Muswinu  

RE: REQUEST FOR ASSISTANCE FOR MASTERS DISSERTATION RESEARCH ON LIFE SKILLS FOR YOUTHS AT TERTIARY LEVEL  

I am kindly requesting for assistance as I conduct my dissertation study in fulfilment of the academic requirement of the Midlands State University Master's in Development Studies level 2:1. My proposed study focuses on life skills training for young people at university level and their importance to the youth development. Thus am requesting permission and assistance as I am particularly interested in the Passport to Success project.  

There a number of life skills program being offered at that level for young people. Having both experience in life skills programs at that level as well as participated in the piloting of the International Youth Foundation Life skills project in Zimbabwe I feel there is a lot to be learnt in terms of offering life skills training from Passport to Success (PTS). PTS’ main areas of focus include key skills that are not in any of the educational curriculums but however are required every day in real life. It is my hope that through this research I can get an appreciation of the PTS product by exploring its main component and how it has been received in the Zimbabwean at 3 levels the trainer, recipients and yourselves as the administrating organization. The current Zimbabwean economic climate particularly with high unemployment rate is very harsh to the young person especially those at tertiary level who find themselves as part of huge statistics of the educated but unemployed. PTS has the potential to aid these young people through challenging times.  

In light of this I would greatly appreciate your assistance and guidance as I conduct my research.  

Kind Regards  

Chipo Muchabaiwa
Appendix A: Questionnaire

I am conducting an analysis of life skills training at tertiary education level and I would appreciate if you would take a few moments to complete this questionnaire on your experiences with Passport To Success Life skills training. The information you give will be used for the purposes of this study and will be treated with confidentiality

Thank you in advance for your cooperation

Kind Regards

Chipo Muchabaiwa: Masters of Arts in Development Studies 2:1

Instructions:

1. This questionnaire has 3 section please complete all three sections, it is important to have complete data.

2. Please respond objectively and honestly.
Section A: Please give information as you were when you received the PTS Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Participant Response</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Gender</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Date of Birth</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Age (when you received training)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>4. Academic Institution:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Level of Study</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6. When did you attend PTS training</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Where did you attend PTS training</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. In terms of percentage how much of PTS training did you attend</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. How would you rate the usefulness of Passport To Success Training</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. To what extent would you say PTS has made significant impact in your life</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Section B:

1. Do you think the PTS training you received was relevant and why

2. What did you appreciate the most about PTS and why?

3. What did you appreciate the least and why?

4. What benefits did you feel you got from PTS training?

5. Do you think there is anything from PTS that you can apply in your life if yes what in particular?

6. Did you enjoy your training sessions if yes, why and if no, why not?
7. Would you recommend PTS training to your friends and colleagues why or why not

8. Was PTS relevant at the stage that you received it (university), if you had an option to receive it earlier of later which stage you do so and why?

9. If something could be done differently with PTS what would it be and why?

10. In your own words how would you describe your PTS experience and its place in your life?
Section C: Please outline how you would respond/react or deal with the following cases

Scenario A:
A more popular student teases you about your clothes and the area where you live

Your Response:

Scenario B:
There has been a lot of petty vandalism in your community that has really affected the morale in the area. You have an idea who is doing it and want to solve the problem.

Your Response:
Appendix B

Interview Guide: PTS International Youth Foundation Employability Technical Specialist

1. Personal Experience
   a) Can you share what your PTS experience in your capacity as the main coordinator has been to date.
   b) What are the main procedures for PTS as done by IYF?
   c) Are there any differences and similarities with other countries
   d) What are some challenges that you have encountered in the piloting of PTS by IYF in Zimbabwe?
   e) To date how many participants have been trained at tertiary level?
   f) What personal insights can you share on training of PTS participants in Universities
   g) What do you see as the main strengths and weaknesses of PTS and why?

2. Assessment of PTS
   a) Based on the procedures outlined above how has the PTS project fared in Zimbabwe based on your indicators as an organisation.
   b) In particular reference to tertiary level participants how can you assess the PTS piloting in the Zimbabwean context in terms of project objectives and outputs and outcomes?
   c) What were/are some of the key learning point that you have gotten from the PTS pilot?
   d) In terms of replicability how do you think it can be achieved for tertiary level participants?

3. Recommendations
   a) How do you think PTS has been adapted for the Zimbabwean context so far and can anything further be done to ensure it suit the Zimbabwean context?

4. Additional information
   a) What are the future plans for PTS training for Tertiary level participation in terms of relevance, suitability as a target group, value addition to their lives for young people in university?
Appendix C

Interview Guide: PTS International Youth Foundation Monitoring & Evaluation Specialist

5. Personal Experience
   a) Can you share what your PTS experience in your capacity as M & E specialist has been to date
   b) What are the main M& E procedures for PTS as done by IYF?
   c) What are some challenges that you have encountered in the piloting of PTS by IYF in Zimbabwe?
   d) To date how many participants have been trained at tertiary level?
   e) What personal insights can you share on training of PTS participants in Universities
   f) What do you see as the main strengths and weaknesses of PTS and why?

6. Assessment of PTS
   a) Based on the procedures outlined above what were the key monitoring tools used for PTS.
   b) In particular reference to tertiary level participants how can you assess the PTS piloting in the Zimbabwean context in terms of project objectives and outputs and outcomes?
   c) What were/are some of the key learning points that you have gotten from the PTS pilot?
   d) In terms of replicability how do you think it can be achieved for tertiary level participants?

7. Recommendations
   a) How do you think PTS has been adapted for the Zimbabwean context so far and can anything further be done to ensure it suit the Zimbabwean context?

8. Additional information
   a) What are the future plans for PTS training for Tertiary level.
   b) How would you rate participation in terms of relevance, suitability as a target group, value addition to their lives for young people in university?
Appendix D

INTERVIEW GUIDE: PTS TRAINERS

9. Trainer personal Experience
   a) Can you share what your PTS experience as a trainer has been to date
   b) How many participants to date have you trained
   c) What are the main procedures of training recruitment of participants, scheduling sessions, monitoring and evaluation?
   d) What challenges have you have encountered
   e) Did you have any prior experiences with life skills training: highlight any differences and similarities
   f) What do you appreciate the most and the least about being a PTS trainer and why?
   g) What benefits did you feel you got from PTS professionally and personally training?

10. Trainer Assessment of PTS
    a) Do you think the PTS TOT you received was relevant and adequate preparation and why.
    b) What do you see as the main strengths and weaknesses of PTS and why?
    c) Do you think PTS that you can apply in young people’s lives at tertiary level and why?
    d) Do you enjoy your training sessions if yes, why and if no, why not?
    e) How relevant do you think PTS is to the Zimbabwean context
    f) In terms of replicability how do you think this can be achieved for tertiary level participants?

11. Trainers recommendations
    a) Would you recommend PTS training to your colleagues why or why not?
    b) If you something could be done differently with PTS what would it be and why?
    c) How do you think PTS has been adapted for the Zimbabwean context so far and can anything further be done to ensure it suit the Zimbabwean context?
    d) What would you recommend learning from PTS life skills for other Life skills and vice versa

12. Additional information
    a) What is your personal opinion on PTS training for Tertiary level participation in terms of relevance, suitability as a target group, value addition to their lives for young people in university