UNIVERSITY OF BOTSWANA
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK

THE LIVED EXPERIENCES OF UNEMPLOYED GRADUATE YOUTH: AN
EMPIRICAL STUDY IN BULAWAYO, ZIMBABWE.

Research Project submitted to the University of Botswana in partial fulfilment of a Master’s
degree in Social Work.

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2019
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ABSTRACT

The main focus of the study was to interrogate the lived experiences of unemployed graduate youth in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. The objectives of the study were to examine the socio-economic factors affecting unemployed graduates, to assess the psychological challenges that affect unemployed graduates, and to explore measures that might assist unemployed graduates.

The study adopted a cross-sectional qualitative research approach in which a combination of exploratory and descriptive research designs were used. A total of 20 unemployed graduate youth from the Faculty of Social Sciences at the University of Zimbabwe, Midlands state university, Lupane State University, Solusi University and the National University of Science and Technology were sampled. In-depth interviews were used to gather data and graduates were drawn using purposive and snowball sampling methods.

The findings of the study revealed that unemployment had a negative socio-economic effect on graduate youth. Unemployment had an effect on the family stability, intimate partner relationships, underemployment, crime, and migration. Based on the findings of the study it can be concluded that there is a strong relationship between graduate youth unemployment and mental health. Services and programmes to assist unemployed graduate youth were suggested.

The dissertation recommends that the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education in Zimbabwe must consider establishing a records database of all graduates in Zimbabwe. The Ministry of Youth Development, Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment in Zimbabwe should offer grants and loans to graduates who want to start cash generating businesses. Future research should be conducted assessing the failing youth policies and programmes in Zimbabwe. It is recommended that a research be done on exploration of self-employment as an employment creation strategy for graduates in Zimbabwe.
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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ILO  International Labour Organization
ZIMSTAT  Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency
RBZ  Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe
NANGO  National Association of Non-Governmental Organizations
FTLRP  Fast Track Land Reform Programme
IMF  International Monetary Fund
NGOs  Non-Governmental Organizations
NUST  National University of Science and Technology
U.Z  University of Zimbabwe
A.C.E.T  African Center for Economic Transformation
NASWZ  National Association of Social workers Zimbabwe
ZIMASSET  Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation
ZIMPREST  Zimbabwe Programme for Economic and Social Transformation
ZIYEN  Zimbabwe Youth Employment Network
ZEDS  Zimbabwe Economic Development Strategy
STERM  Short Term Economic Recovery Programme
BNIP  Botswana Internship Programme
MEPF  Macro–Economic Policy Framework
YES  Youth Employment Scheme
IDM  Inter- American Development Bank
CEDA  Citizen Entrepreneurship Development Agency
CMPP  Cuban Medical Professional Parole
RRC  Rural Reconstruction Centre
SMES  Small Medium Enterprises
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background of the study

It is generally agreed that graduates with high education qualifications have an added advantage in the world of work. However, Moleke (2006) argues that such a privilege is no longer enjoyed by most graduates. According to the international Labour Organisation (ILO, 2017) worldwide youth aged 15-24 years had an unemployment rate of 12.8 percent in 2016 which is slightly higher than the 12.7 percent of 2015. Furthermore, the number of unemployed young people increased slightly between 2015 and 2016 from 69.4 to 69.6 million (ILO, 2017), meaning that the problem of youth employment which encompasses graduates is a world-wide problem. The global challenge of youth unemployment, according to Werner et al. (2013), is exemplified in Spain where there are about one million unemployed people aged between 15 and 24, whilst there were more than 5.2 million young people unemployed in the 27 European Union member states by the end of 2012.

In Asia nearly 40 million youth that is 12 per cent of the youth labour force were unemployed in 2015. The youth unemployment rate was estimated at around 12.9 per cent in South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific, 11.7 per cent in Eastern Asia and 10.7 per cent in Southern Asia. Young people remain nearly four times more likely to be unemployed than their adult counterparts, and as much as 5.4 times in South-Eastern Asia. Such differences point to a lack of decent jobs, in addition to skills mismatches and other challenges experienced during the transition from school to work (ILO, 2012).

In Africa there has been an aggressive rise of public and privately funded tertiary institutions meant to enhance the competence and quality of educated manpower (Ajufo, 2013). However, despite this development a mismatch between jobs created and graduates available for work is prevalent, as numbers of graduates exceed jobs available in the labour market. This problem has caused unemployed graduates to turn to anti-social activities such as crime, commercial sex work, suicide and domestic violence (Samuel et al, 2012). According to Uwem and Ndem (2012), graduate youth unemployment and underemployment in Africa impose heavy social and economic costs, which result not only in lost economic growth, but also in erosion of the tax base, increased welfare costs, and unused investment in education and training.
Zimbabwe had the highest unemployment rate in the world at 90 percent in 2012 (ILO, 2012). According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF, 2013) the overall unemployment rate in Zimbabwe is over 95 percent, with youth unemployment being pegged at over 70 percent. Controversially the official rate of unemployment in Zimbabwe stands at 10.8 percent (Chinjekure, 2013). It is estimated that 300,000 students graduate annually at the 16 universities and many technical colleges in Zimbabwe (Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, 2015). Due to the collapse of the economy and closure of industries in the city of Bulawayo which was the main employer of graduates, only 7 percent of graduates are absorbed in the formal employment market, impacting negatively on the livelihood of the 83 percent unemployed graduates who are left behind (Moyo, 2016).

Even though there are debates about the success and failure of the Fast Track Land reform programme (FTLRP) of 2000, some scholars highlight the negative economic and social effects of the initiative to Zimbabweans especially the youth. The government of Zimbabwe introduced the FTLRP in July 2000 with an objective of acquiring land from white commercial farmers for redistribution to poor and middle-income landless black Zimbabweans (Matondi, 2012). Critics of the programme state that the redistribution of the land resulted in the collapse of the agriculture industry which was the major contributor of the economy. The failure of the land reform programme coincided with the rapid economic decline and hyperinflation which substantially impacted the employment sector in the country (Derman, 2006). There was closure of industries, firms and non-governmental organization which were the major employers of the citizens. Most of these industries were never re opened and the agriculture sector is still struggling (Ngwenya, 2014).

According to the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe (RBZ, 2005), the high unemployment rate has led to an increase in the crime rate in Zimbabwe’s urban areas such as Harare, Bulawayo, Mutare and Chitungwiza. A measurable number of youth have also been involved in petty thievery as they lack meaningful forms of livelihood. In addition, the Zimbabwe national statistics agency ZimStat (2014) shows that drug and alcohol abuse is highest at the age range of 25-29 years which is relatively the age of graduates. Drug and alcohol abuse is relatively high among graduates who are idle and frustrated about the failure to find jobs to support their families. The effects of high youth unemployment include youth engaging in promiscuity leading to prostitution where they end up contracting HIV and other sexually transmitted infections that can be detrimental to their health, (The Zimbabwe Economic Policy Analysis and Research Unit Report of
2013). According to this report, the economy fails to create jobs for the youths which has resulted in graduates leaving Zimbabwe and seeking greener pastures in neighbouring countries such as South Africa and Botswana. Educated youth migrate to neighbouring countries to do manual jobs at restaurants and security and construction companies in order to survive (Mpofu et al, 2016).

1.1 Statement of the Problem
Graduate unemployment is not a problem unique to Zimbabwe. The problem exists in both emerging and developed countries making it a universal phenomenon. In South Korea, a country with a very high university enrolment rate, the number of economically inactive graduates is over 3 million (Economist Intelligence Unit, 2013). In Singapore, also a highly developed country the graduate unemployment rate was reported to be 3.6 per cent in 2013 against the average unemployment rate of around 2 per cent. The Economist Intelligence Unit (2013) estimates that nearly 5 out of every 10 graduates in Bangladesh are unemployed against 3 out of 10 in India and Pakistan.

It is reported that almost half of the 10 million graduates of the over 668 universities in Africa annually, do not penetrate the labour market (African Center for Economic Transformation (A.C.E.T), 2016). In Nigeria the unemployment rate is as high as 23.1 percent for those with undergraduate degrees. In South Africa the rate of university graduates unemployment is 5.9 per cent whilst the youth unemployment rate across age groups of 25 to 29 years is 41.6 per cent in Ghana and 15.7 per cent in Kenya. It has been estimated that, on average, it takes a university graduate five years to secure a job in Kenya indicating the impact of unemployment on graduates in Africa (The British Institute of Education, 2014).

There are discrepancies in unemployment trends in Zimbabwe as no reliable, verified, regular surveys of employment and unemployment are conducted (Chiumia, 2014). According to the Zimbabwe Statistics Labour Survey of 2012, the unemployment rate was pegged at 10.7 percent; this low percentage was attributed to the norm worldwide which classified anyone who had worked for at least an hour for cash or in kind in the week preceding the survey as adjudged employed. The secretary general of the Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Unions, stated that the unemployment rate in 2012 was between 80 and 90 percent. In 2013, the late former president of the opposition party, the Movement for Democratic Change, Morgan Tsvangirai, was quoted as saying Zimbabwe’s unemployment rate of 85 percent is a ticking time bomb (NANGO, 2011).
However, the overall unemployment rate in Zimbabwe is apparently over 95 percent, with youth unemployment being pegged at over 70 percent (IMF, 2013). This figure is corroborated by the Zimbabwe National Association of Non-Governmental Organizations (NANGO, 2011). Thus, clearly, due to the discrepancies in the figures of unemployment and employment in Zimbabwe mainly caused by a lack of regular surveys and a reliable primary data source, there is no reliable unemployment rate (Chiumia, 2014). This study adopted an estimate of over 95 percent as the reference for unemployment in the country (NANGO, 2011: IMF, 2013).

Zimbabwe’s total population was 13 061 239 as of 2015 (Migration Thematic report). The population is dominated by young people with 77 per cent of children and youth being below 35 years of age. Youth aged 15-34 years number 4 702 046 which constitutes 36 per cent of the national population and those aged between 15 -24 years are 20 per cent of the national population (Zimstat, 2012). A country with 36 per cent of youth, a declining economy, and a high unemployment rate estimated at over 95 percent is a ticking time bomb for a youth bulge influenced by social ills such as crime, commercial sex work, domestic violence, social uprising, and family instabilities (IMF, 2013). It is estimated that 300, 000 students graduate annually at the 16 universities and extensive technical colleges in Zimbabwe (Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, 2015). Only 7 per cent of the graduates are absorbed into the labour market (Moyo, 2016). This has led to graduates battling to cope with the socio-economic and psychological challenges of unemployment.

According to ILO (2009:13) youth unemployment in Zimbabwe is further worsened by the fact that there is a mismatch between the academic curricula and the industry needs. Formal economy only absorbs 20 000 to 30 000 of the 200 000 to 300 000 school leavers per year. Faced with the prospect of severe poverty, many graduates are desperate to take up any job even if they are overqualified for it (ILO, 2009). Zhangazha (2012) noted that, due to lack of jobs, some accountancy graduates resorted to driving taxis and working at fast food outlets, something they never imagined while still at university. Some graduates are opting for self-help projects such as cross border trading and exchanging foreign currency at the parallel market. As such, there is no relationship between level of education and the nature of employment. Besides the fact that the formal sector is drastically declining, the government of Zimbabwe has frozen recruitment of new employees into the public sector. This has adversely affected the capacity of the country to absorb job seekers (Zhangazha, 2012). According to the Migration Thematic Report (2015)
an estimated 558,303 people, which is 4.3 per cent of the 2012 census population, migrated out of Zimbabwe between 2002 and 2012 which consisted a majority of graduates. Furthermore, the Zimbabwe Informal Employment index stood at 80 percent in 2004, rising 84.2 percent in 2011, and dramatically to 94.5 percent in 2014, which shows that a majority of citizens, especially graduates, are not formally employed (Labour Force and Child Labour Survey, 2014).

The Zimbabwe Government has taken action and introduced various programmes aimed at combating youth unemployment. Policies include: the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) of the 1990s; the Zimbabwe Programme for Economic and Social Transformation (ZIMPREST) (1996-2000); The Millennium Economic Recovery Programme (MERP) (2002); The National Economic Revival Programme (NERP, 2003); The Macro–Economic Policy Framework (MEPF) (2005-2006); The National Economic Development Priority Programme (NEDPP 2007); The Zimbabwe Economic Development Strategy (ZEDS, 2008)(aborted at conception); the Short Term Economic Recovery Programme (STERM) (1 and 2, 2009-2012); and the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZIMASSET) (2013-2017) (Mpofu, 2013). However, despite all these policies and programmes youth unemployment has continued to rise due to policy reversals and inadequate funding and poor planning, implementation, and monitoring (Nsingo, 2014). At over 90% unemployment rate, Zimbabwe probably has one of the largest unemployment rate in the world.

Most research studies in Zimbabwe have been concerned with the causes of high unemployment rates, youth unemployment, and solutions for unemployment. This is indicated by studies such as the following: The effects of the educated youth unemployment nexus in Zimbabwe by Bhebhe et al (2011), Youth unemployment and peri urbanity in Zimbabwe: a snapshot of lessons in Hatcliffe by Chirisa et al, (2010), Youth and unemployment in Zimbabwe by Chingarande et al (2013), An investigation into the causes of unemployment among youths in Harare by Bhebhe et al (2016) and The challenge of graduate unemployment: a case of university graduates in the city of Mutare, Zimbabwe by Mwenje (2016).

All these studies show a gap in knowledge as they fail to investigate the socio–economic and psychological impact of unemployment on graduates of universities and colleges. This gap in knowledge has brought about questioning as to the socio-economic factors affecting unemployed graduates in Bulawayo. Questions include: how does the lack of unemployment affect the psychological functioning of
graduates in Bulawayo, what can be done to assist the graduates to cope with unemployment in Bulawayo. Therefore there is need for a study to be conducted so as to address these questions.

Furthermore, the methodologies in most of the studies on youth unemployment used secondary data which tends to be inadequate in explaining the effects of graduate unemployment. The study sought to fill this gap in knowledge by using primary data. The studies tend to fail to explain how graduates manage their lives soon after graduation. In addition this was an exploratory study on the impact of unemployment on graduates in Bulawayo as no study known to the researcher has been conducted focusing on the city of Bulawayo. The study therefore focused mainly on the lived experiences of youth residing on the de-industrialized city of Bulawayo, which has been neglected by most researchers.

1.2 Research Questions
1. What are the socio-economic factors that affect unemployed graduates in Bulawayo?
2. How does unemployment affect the psychological functioning of graduates in Bulawayo?
3. What can be done to assist graduates to cope with unemployment in Bulawayo?

1.2.1 Research Aim and Objectives

1.2.2 General Aim Objective of the Study
To interrogate the lived experiences of unemployed graduate youth in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe.

1.2.3 Specific objectives
1. To examine the socio-economic factors affecting unemployed graduates in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe.
2. To assess the psychological challenges that affect unemployed graduates in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe.
3. To explore measures that might be put in place to assist unemployed graduates in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe.

1.3. Significance of the Study
The study is likely to have implications for practice, research, and policy.

1.3.1 Policy Implications
The long term effects of graduate unemployment can have an effect on the individual, family, society, and the country at large (Kwinika, 2014). Therefore, the recommendations from the study might assist the various ministries of the government such as the Ministry of Youth, Ministry of Local Government,
Ministry of Health and International Relations which all have direct and indirect contact with the impact of graduate unemployment in policy formation and programme development. The policy may focus on programmes and service provision for unemployed graduates. The study might assist the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Zimbabwe Education with policy measures that help to track down and follow up graduates after they exited tertiary institutions. The study results are likely to assist the public and private sectors with job creation strategies for graduates. The study results might help the government to design sustainable policies programmes and which support unemployed graduates.

1.3.2 Practice Implications
The study is likely is benefit the social work profession in a number of ways. The study might enable the National Association of Social Workers Zimbabwe (NASWZ) to advocate for policies and programmes that cater for the marginalised graduates. The advocacy efforts may be directed at the Ministry of Youth, Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment and the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education of Zimbabwe as there is a need to create a database which tracks graduates and also introduce a compulsory entrepreneurship curriculum at universities to promote self-employment. The findings of this study are likely to be beneficial to social workers working in hospitals. The social workers design and implement programmes for people surviving depression, bipolar disorder and survivors of drug and substance abuse to name a few which may include unemployed graduates.

1.3.2 Research Implications
Most research studies focus on the theme causes and reasons for high unemployment of youths and graduates. These studies show a gap in knowledge as they fail to investigate the socio–economic and psychological impact of unemployment on graduates of universities and colleges. Therefore the results of the study might contribute to more knowledge on unemployed graduates not only in Zimbabwe but in Africa in general. The study will also add to the existing body of knowledge on unemployed graduates in the world which is limited since most research only captures the problems of unemployed youth neglecting the problems of university and college graduates. The results might enable researchers to conduct comparative global and continental research based on the findings. The study may also raise more questions and expose gaps that will require further investigation involving multi-disciplinary approaches and methodologies on unemployed graduates.

1.4 Definition of Terms
Unemployed: Those members of the labour force (ages 15 -64) who are not working but are looking for work or who intend to set up their own business (World Bank, 2013:33).
Barker (1999: 165) defines the unemployed person as one who is without work, is currently available for work, and is seeking or wanting to work.

**Underemployed:** refers to individuals who have no choice but to accept employment associated with a level below their qualification or experience (Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1994).

**Unemployment rate** is defined as the number of unemployed persons taken as a percentage of the economically active population, which includes both the employed and the unemployed.

**Educated youth/ graduate:** A person who has successfully completed a degree at a University or college and has received a certificate to demonstrate this (Collins English dictionary, 2017).

**Youth:** Every person between the ages of 15 and 35 years, (African Youth Charter 2005; Zimbabwe Revised National Youth Policy, 2013).

### 1.5 Reflexivity (Researcher’s Positionality)

Reflexivity is essential in qualitative research as it increases credibility of the final research report (Dowling, 2006). According to Hertz (1997) reflexivity is “achieved through the researcher’s abilities in detachment, internal dialogue and constant scrutiny of the processes which construct and question his/her interpretations of field experiences”. Hence in qualitative research, the researcher’s own biases and feelings, age, gender, language, and cultural background might impact the research process.

For this study, the researcher is a young graduate which might have a negative impact on the research process. In this situation, the researcher might be more biased towards unemployed youth graduates than analytical. However, the researcher will minimize this possibility through exploration of the literature review on the subject matter in order to unlearn the preconceived ideas on the subject. For this research, the researcher will maintain his objectivity by allowing reality to be interpreted as experienced by the participants. Probing for more explanations during the interviews with the participants will enable which the researcher view the situation from the perspective of the participants.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
Several studies have been conducted around the world indicating that university and technical college graduates encounter problems of coping with unemployment upon graduation from school. The problematic challenges of unemployed educated youth are discussed by a number of researchers (Bhebhe et al, 2015; Chirisa et al, 2010, Chingarande et al; 2013) where consistent results often depict unemployed graduates as a vulnerable group. Furthermore, the phenomenon of youth unemployment has long existed at global, African, and Zimbabwean level. It is important to note that there is a gap in literature as few studies have been conducted on the impact of unemployment on graduates or educated youth (Manso, 2012). Therefore, the majority of the literature in this chapter will target unemployed youth in general with the assumption that once graduates fail to find employment they integrate and join the uneducated youth (Bhebhe et al, 2015). When university graduates are not productively engaged they become street youth (Mkandawire, 1996). The review will address youth employment through a global, sub Saharan African and Zimbabwean review.

2.2 SOCIO–ECONOMIC FACTORS AFFECTING UNEMPLOYED GRADUATES
Youth unemployment have proved to have a negative socio-economic impact on graduates. Youth unemployment can cause social uprisings and violence, high rates of crime, emigration of educated youth to neighbouring countries, domestic violence, drug and alcohol abuse, instability of the family structure, and government loss on economic development.

2.2.1 Social uprisings and violence
Youth unemployment can entice social uprising and violence within a state. Several studies show that youth unemployment and underemployment are a great risk to the social, economic, and political harmony of nations (Urdal, 2012). This view is supported by a growing body of literature on the causes of political instability and conflicts (Collier et al 2002, Miguel et al 2004). There is a strong relationship between political instability and economic performance in both developed and developing countries especially where the population is dominated by young people commonly referred to as youth bulges (Idris, 2016).

The 27 October 2005 Paris outburst of the youth versus the police in Clichy-sous-Bois was triggered by the electrocution of three young men belonging to an ethnic minority group. The death of the youth incited
a three week riot in the Parisian suburbs and major French cities of thousands of youth from poorer areas who confronted the police, set fire to local buildings and ignited hundreds of motor vehicles (Waddington et al, 2013). It is in this light that the protest was spearheaded by the youths, showing how easy youths can rise up against social injustice (Gendrot, 2013).

Similarly, the 15M movement formed online in 2011 by Spanish youth was a protest against the two-party political system, the corruption of political and economic elites, in Madrid. It must be observed that the 15M anti-austerity movement in Spain was an aftermath reaction to the 2008 global financial meltdown because, at that time, the Spanish economy was in crisis. The national housing and property projects were on the decline, the Spanish construction industry had collapsed, banks needed rescue measures, government finances produced increased deficits, and economic growth decreased (Minder, 2011). These protests show how unemployed youth can rise against socio-economic and political injustices in a state (Hughes, 2011).

Urdal (2006), in a study of youth bulges and political violence found that a majority of the participants who were idle youths were at risk of causing an outbreak of violence. According to Urdal (2006) when youth represent more than 35 percent of the adult population the risk of armed conflict is 150 percent higher. This youth bulge has proven to be true for most developing countries in Africa such as Nigeria, South Africa, Egypt, and Tunisia where social uprisings are high (Campos, 2000). Similarly Collier (2000) suggests that a large youth influx may be targeted for recruitment by the rebels as they are cheap labour. In a landmark study of unemployment and political instability in Nigeria it was discovered that, if young people were left idle with no alternative but unemployment and poverty, they were more likely to join a rebellion as an alternative way of generating income (Collier, 2000).

Interestingly Chigunta (2002) in studies of African countries where civil wars had erupted, showed that war provides a solution for unemployed youths as guns bring money, prestige, respect, and power which they did not enjoy during the absence of war. The author further notes that unemployed youths provide an important pool for recruitment into rebel armies across Africa. Okafor (2011) states that in Nigeria, unemployed youths have become political weapons at the mercy of politicians. In addition, Sommers (2007) describes how many of the thousands of urban youth who rioted in Liberia in 2004 were frustrated unemployed ex-combatants. Sommers further argues that a fundamental problem is that mainstream youth
employment approaches in West Africa focused on rural areas and the formal sector, but were unlikely to succeed as youth were increasingly concentrating in cities and in the informal sector.

In a study, carried out by Awogbenle (2010) on the problem of youth unemployment, the findings deduce that large numbers of youths who are unemployed are capable of downplaying democracy as they are a serious threat if engaged by the political class including opposition politicians in rowdy activities. The author further argues that widespread poverty, possibility of uprisings, protests, and prevalence of crime caused state agencies such as the police and the army to spend millions of dollars in maintaining law and order.

Furthermore, unemployed youths can become political thugs and blood-thirsty hoodlums at the disposal of the politicians. When a large influx of youths is unemployed, their quest to survive may make them willing machinery in the hands of ambitious politicians for anti-social and clandestine political activities. The utilization of the unemployed youths to perpetuate ethno-religious clashes in the present democratic dispensation in Africa are well documented. (Schraeder, 2000; Tordoff and Young, 2005). The 2001 Tanzania/Zanzibar opposition massacre killings, where the government security forces violently supressed mainly youth dominated political demonstrations in protest against the results of the October 2000 elections shows how youths can be used as pawns by politicians (Human Rights Watch, 2002). Similarly, following the announcement of a majority vote in favour of the Zanu PF leader in the July 2018 Zimbabwe elections, around 150 opposition party supporters, mainly young men, mobilised a protest which resulted in armed forces suppressing a growing angry crowd by teargas, helicopters and opening fire, killing at least three protesters (Sengupta,2018).

However, contrary to the views of a majority of scholars, Omlo (2010) observes that unemployment is sometimes beneficiant to politicians. This view is supported by Chigunta (2002) who states that, when a majority of young people are unemployed, it creates a system of youth dependency on the state; hence there is a great deal of loyalty by young citizens who become easy to rule. This claim is supported by Diraditsile’s (2017) research on “Challenges to social policies: A critical analysis of youth intervention programmes in Botswana”, who argues that a majority of youth intervention programmes such as the Botswana National Internship Programme (BNIP) and the Botswana National Service Programme (BNSP) which preceded the 2009 and 2014 general elections were solely introduced to perpetuate political hegemony among young people in order to enhance the political survival of the ruling Botswana Democratic Party.According to the African Economic Outlook (2012), Botswana is faced with the
challenge of a high unemployment rate of 17.6 percent, a poverty level of 20.7 percent and high income inequality. Thus remedial youth intervention programs fail to create the much needed employment because they are designed to create dependency (Diraditsile, 2017).

On 31st of July 2014 in Zimbabwe, exactly one year after the ruling party, Zanu PF’s victory at the 2013 elections, unemployed youths defied the deployment of police with water canon trucks and staged a demonstration demanding the government to deliver on the 2 million jobs promised in 2013. (Nleya, 2014). The interim, National Youth chairman of the Movement of Democratic Change Costa Machingauta was quoted as saying:

‘The youths of Zimbabwe will not keep quiet any more. They said they will give us 2 million jobs, so we are saying give us the promised jobs, we want a healthy living. The only solution we must provide is action. If the South Africans can do it, what can fail us? The time is now. No one will liberate us. They were young like us, oppressed like us. The time is now no one will liberate us. Mugabe stole our hope and we are angry” (Nleya 2014).

In addition, the 2014 outbreak of protests was followed by 2016 graduates’ uprisings in Harare mainly demanding economic change and job creation, validating the relationship between unemployment and social uprising (Mpofu et al, 2016). This claim is supported by Azeng et al’s (2013) research on the effects of youth unemployment on political stability, where data from 24 developing countries in five different regions was sampled from 1980 to 2010. The results suggested that political instability occurs particularly in countries where youth unemployment, as well as social inequalities and corruption, are high. Hamauswa et al (2012) concur with this view noting that it is inequality and joblessness that sparked the revolutions in North Africa and the Middle East that came to be known as the 'Arab spring'. Distante (2011) correctly observed that protests in Tunisia were sparked by a 26 year old college unemployed graduate street vendor, Tarek Mohamed Bouazizi who immolated himself in front of the governor’s offices in the Tunisian town of Sidi Bouzid in December 2010. Bouazizi’s suicide was a protest against the Tunisian government practice of confiscating goods for sale meant to maintain the livelihood of unemployed graduates who had resorted to joining the informal sector. His suicide resonated with the majority of the unemployed youth who wanted reform in the country (The Globalist, 2011).
Similarly, in Zimbabwe a majority of unemployed graduates are street vendors, who often face harassment from the police and other law officers as they are considered to be illegal. In January 2018, the Minister of Local Government issued a directive warning illegal street vendors and unregistered taxi owners to evacuate the streets within 48 hours or face the wrath of the army and police and this caused a protest (Mbanje, 2018).

The increased risk of political violence is often associated with an expanding population of higher educated youth who are facing limited opportunities to obtain elite political and economic positions. The current level of unemployment among Zimbabwean youths is likely to increase the gap between the rich and the poor which may cause social uprising (Mpofu et al, 2016). According to a report by Choruma (2017) entitled, ‘Corruption stalls Zimbabwe’s economic agenda” the country is among the world’s top 25 most corrupt in the world. These unprecedented levels of corruption are a breeding ground for youth influenced social uprising (Nyoni, 2017).

However, much of the body of literature which focuses on youth unemployment and social uprisings fails to justify why unemployment does not impact negatively on all youths. The literature fails to recognise some graduates who have made a success of their difficult situations especially in the informal sector (Kuwaza, 2016).

In a report by Mawere, (2014) many unemployed Zimbabweans, including university graduates, have turned to vending, selling all sorts of wares while some enterprising individuals have joined the real estate business. The agents charge varying amounts of fees to home seekers ranging from US$5 to US$100. They insist on payment first before the home seekers can see the available houses. The Zimbabwe Poverty Reduction Forum Trust (2014) report noted that many Zimbabweans especially university graduates were now opting for informal trade.

Similarly, Adjei (2015) attributes family as an influencing factor in career choice of students. A study by Ashiboe-Mensah (2017) on Ghanaian tertiary graduates perception of entrepreneurship education on employment opportunities posits that unemployed graduates who start their own businesses are influenced by their family background of entrepreneurship. Out of the sample size of 325 students, seventy-three percent of the respondents who started a business had an influence from a mother or father. Wang and Wong (2004, concur with this notion based on Singapore business experience where entrepreneurial
interest of students is based on family business experience and educational level. This may explain why some unemployed graduates desist from social uprisings and turn to business.

2.2.2 Crime
Many studies in Europe, Asia, and Africa have shown a relationship between unemployment and an increase in crime (Kovacheva, 2014; Tauova, 2014). In a study on the influence of population growth, and unemployment on the crime situation in the cities of Astana and Almaty in Kazakhstan Karipova et al (2016) deduced that youth unemployment was directly related to criminal activity.

However, significant by Higgins (2007) in a study of youth in Sweden, deduced that unemployment may be a smaller problem for the youth in Sweden because it typically is of shorter duration. Moreover, youth may simply switch jobs more often because they are seeking the right job, therefore, the higher unemployment rates which are observed are mainly search unemployment and not particularly harmful because the jobs are available. Interestingly Higgins (2007) suggests that youth unemployment has been found to be associated with drug use, an observation with which Pouget (2009) concurs.

In Nigeria unemployed idle youths in the streets are called “Area Boys” Yaniska, kwanta (Somavia, 2012). Youth unemployment in that country has led to anti-social behaviours such as the emergence of street children, involvement of youth in crime, armed conflict, militancy in the Niger Delta, and the birth of the Boko Haram crisis. Youth unemployment and poverty have led to increased prostitution among young women, as well as exposure to HIV and AIDS (Curtain, 2000; Chingunta, 2002; Okojie, 2003 Alabi et al 2012).

Similarly a study by Chistiana (2012) on the influence of youth unemployment on the crime rate in Lagos Island Local Government area of Lagos state, Nigeria found that unemployment in the state is 63.4 percent and crime is prevalent among the unemployed youth in the area. This is corroborated by Ajufo, (2013), who argues that in Africa, youth unemployment is a major problem that gives rise to criminal tendencies and threatens the social-economic peace and stability of the continent. The study reveals that the most common strategy that has been adopted by the youth to cope with unemployment in the state is internet fraud. In addition, the results of the study reveals that internet crime is so rampant among the youth that they have formed a group called the “G Boys” to which they take pride in affiliation. Significantly different findings were highlighted by Breetzke’s (2010) socio- structural analysis of crime
in the city of Tshwane in South Africa where it emerged that the high youth crime rate in the city was caused by social disorganization, as well as the disaffected youth and the measure of African immigration.

Interestingly, Ajayi’s (2014), study in Nigeria which examines the relationship between unemployment and criminal behaviour observed that unemployment is one of the major factors that accounts for the criminality of the unemployed graduates. There is a positive relationship between graduates’ unemployment and criminal behaviour. Furthermore, the study showed that the nature of criminal behavior found among unemployed graduates in Ado Ekiti was usually organized crime, such as armed robbery, kidnapping, internet fraud and cheque forgery. Unemployed graduates’ carried out their operations with more precision arising from their intellectual ability and some of the unemployed female graduates took to prostitution. This notion is supported by Mungule (2012) in a study of the perceptions of young unemployed graduates in Lusaka, Zambia, where it emerged that youth were involved in illegal acts of writing assignments and reports for students in various colleges and universities to earn money that they could use for their personal needs. In Botswana, a frustrated information technology intern hacked into the Tlokweng Sub District council computer system causing it to malfunction after the organization had failed to hire him permanently upon finishing his internship programme showing how unemployment and crime might be linked (Serite, 2018).

The unemployment and underemployment status of youth is shown by the idleness known as “kucheza-cheza” among young people in Zambia or “park shopping” ‘in South Africa (Chigunta, 2002). In Zimbabwe, a study conducted by the Ministry of Youth Development in 2011 on unemployment, revealed that the effects of high youth unemployment included youth engaging in drug abuse, violence, crime and promiscuity leading to prostitution where they end up contracting HIV and AIDS and other sexually transmitted infections that can be detrimental to their health. In addition, the study reveals that the main cause of unemployment was the incompatibility between the curriculum and the needs of industry in changing times. As a result graduates’ skills are less relevant to the needs of the communities and the nation at large.

Kakwagh et al (2010) state that, to survive on the street with no legitimate means of earning a living, young people tend to live by their wits and acquire criminal values. Many, therefore, survive on the street by stealing, pick-pocketing, prostitution and other criminal activities. This has been the case in Zimbabwe
where there has been an increase in youth dominated crime in urban areas of Matebeleland and Mashonaland (Marjoke, 2014).

2.2.3 Family instability

Youth unemployment has been known to cause instability within families. The diminished rate of return to education (RORE) which manifests when families discover that all the wealth they poured into educating their children at high cost came to nothing is rather worrisome and breeds stressful moments for the family. Fending for the educated youth is no mean task for most African families. The educated youth feel dejected to be cause of more suffering to the family yet they possess high qualifications. When few resources are used to cater for a large number of family members, poverty escalates leaving the families in a cycle of poverty (Bhebhe et al, 2015). This is supported by Mungule’s (2012) study of “the perceptions of young unemployed graduates in Lusaka Zambia”, where one of the respondents when asked about the prospects of finding a job as a graduate, and was quoted as saying:

“\textit{You know, finding a job as a man will make me stable. It will define me as a man, yes I just need it so that I become independent, you know, staying with parents or guardians. There is a certain stage when a man just feels uncomfortable you know, being under one roof with someone taking care of you, it just pains (Vinchi).}”

This statement shows how graduate unemployment causes a disconnection among families; it further highlights the distress that unemployed graduates encounter when they are at family homes contributing nothing towards the financial status of the family. Mkandawire (1996) came to a similar conclusion when studying the language of protest deployed by unemployed graduates in Zimbabwe. He observed that graduates start viewing adults who were strict with them during their school days as liars, who used to lie to them that if they became educated they would be guaranteed a better future. In most instances, graduate youth, if not productively engaged, become street youth.

In a study by Baldry (2013) in South Africa, it was found that graduates of low socio-economic status had difficulty accessing resources and showed the highest prevalence of unemployment. The common job search techniques, like internet access, newspapers for job advert, calling or visiting labour market
networks, and mailing, all required money which neither the graduate nor the family members had. Kingdon (2005) explained that, poor graduates became discouraged job seekers due to inability to effectively search for jobs. The fact that the unemployed graduate is a dependent and has to constantly beg for transport money from an already ailing family members caused a strain on family stability.

Furthermore, Uwem and Ndém, (2012), are of the view that graduate unemployment is more severe because the traditional African culture of being “your brother’s keeper has been eroded by the new culture of individualism. The traditional African culture accommodates all family members as bonded associates and kinsmen especially those who were struggling in life. However, due to modernism, African culture has broken down the social mechanisms of self-help, community effort, which the African governments have not been able to replace with viable social security networks as in developed countries. Many poor, unemployed are suffering in silence.

2.2.4 HIV and AIDS

The world HIV prevalence rate among females aged 15-24 years from 2011-2016 was 4 percent whilst the female prevalence rate during the same period was 3 per cent (World Bank, 2016). According to the World Bank (2016) report on the prevalence rate of HIV in Zimbabwe, there has always been a higher rate among female youths compared to their male counterparts.

Studies have shown a strong link between unemployment and prevalence of HIV. An estimate of 1500 youth were diagnosed with HIV infection in the United States in 2011, representing 21 percent of an estimated 50,199 people diagnosed during that year. Seventy-eight percent of these diagnoses occurred in those aged 20 to 24. The highest number and population rate of HIV diagnoses of any age group is 36.3 percent (CDC, 2014).

In 2016 the prevalence rate among females aged 15-24 years in Zimbabwe was 5.7 per cent whilst for males it was 2.8 per cent; in the previous year (2015) the HIV prevalence rate was 6.2 percent compared to the 3 per cent of males aged 15-24 years. This shows that unemployed graduates in Zimbabwe who mostly fall in the age group of 15-24 are at risk of contracting the virus. Cases of HIV and AIDS are more prominent in educated female youth who turn to prostitution in an attempt to earn a living. It is reported
that parents are psychologically affected when all that they expected from their girl child was a good job, marriage, and a good life which is not achieved. In such instances, they put pressure on graduate females to make ends meet, hence resorting to prostitution which has a lucrative market in Zimbabwe (Bhebhe et al, 2015). Mungule’s 2012 study of the perceptions of young unemployed graduates in Lusaka, Zambia deduced that unemployed graduates, in order to survive, resorted to commercial sex work risking their lives to contracting HIV.

2.2.5 Underemployment
There is a relationship between graduate unemployment and underemployment in both developed and developing countries. Green (2013) examined the 2012 United Kingdom survey data to determine the extent of qualification mismatch with the job as reported by the respondents. The survey revealed higher rates of over qualification for youth aged 20 to 24 years. Similarly, Mosca et al (2011) considered graduate underemployment in the United Kingdom, and the results reveal that a quarter of graduate employed were involved in non-graduate jobs 3-5 years after graduation. In Australia, Fleming et al (2008) found that 34.36 percent of the employed were over-educated, with a majority being young adults having formal qualifications but limited work experience. Walling (2010) and Cam (2014) found that underemployment was typically higher for women than men in the United Kingdom, but varied across demographics and work-related factors.

Interestingly, Wilkens (2006) similarly found underemployment to be more prevalent among females. In contrast, an interdisciplinary view of underemployment in Canada during 1997–2011 was taken by Reynolds (2012) who examined involuntary part-time, over-qualification, involuntary temporary work, low-wage employment, and unemployment. It was found that the youth (15 to 24 years) experienced a greater likelihood of labour underutilization through temporary work and minimum wages (Reynolds, 2012:11).

Moleke’s (2005) primary survey on the labour market outcomes of 2600 university graduates from 1990–1998 in South Africa discovered that 16 per cent of the graduates were underemployed. The graduates worked as administrators, operators or trainees jobs that did not necessarily require a bachelor’s degree. In this study underemployment was found to be relatively higher for graduates coming from the field of Economic and Management Sciences, followed by Humanities and Arts. Nonetheless, underemployment
reduced over time, as 93 percent of the respondents reported that only entry-level or lower-level ability was required in their first job but this dropped to 75 per cent in their current job. This result suggests that upward labour mobility took place, because some graduates who were originally underemployed later found work that better matched their education/skills better. Also, the graduates initially had low wages and preferred to be underemployed rather than unemployed; but over time, some of them searched for a better job and became fully employed (Moleke, 2005:23).

Zimbabwean graduates are reported to engage in vending, car washing, car watching, gold panning, selling second-hand clothing, and cross border trading (Murinda, 2014). In addition, the Zimbabwe informal sector is dominated by youth. A survey by Vendors Initiative for Social and Economic Transformation (2016) established that, 15 percent of vendors had post graduate qualifications while 75 percent had never been employed. Furthermore, Zhangazha (2012) noted that, due to lack of jobs, graduates in accounting have found themselves driving taxis and working at fast food outlets, something they never imagined while still at university. Some graduates had opted for self-help projects such as cross border trading and exchanging foreign currency at the parallel market. As such, there was no relationship between level of education and the nature of employment.

2.2.6 Marriage
Studies had shown that unemployment caused youth to delay or cancel plans to marry because such plans came with added responsibilities. This observation was supported by Bentolila and Ichino (2000), who revealed that 91 percent of the employed leave their homes to set up their households, only 25 percent of the unemployed moved out to new places to set up their own households. Aghatise (2002) states that being unemployed reduces the attractiveness of wanting to leave home and start a family opting to stay with parents. This is true of the educated youth in Zimbabwe as most of them, upon graduating, stay idle at their homes and become dependent on their families (Bhebhe et al 2015).

Unemployment of graduates leads to a decision by males not to marry impacting heavily on their female counterparts because if most of their male age mates are no longer marrying, the educated females change focus and target married men thereby causing disharmony in families. In Bulawayo, according to, the Zim stat (2012) females seem to enter into marriage unions at much younger ages than males. Around 48
percent of the population was currently married. In addition, educated female unemployed youths are prone to abuse by rich older men who take advantage of their poverty.

2.2.7 Commercial sex work

Many studies had shown a linkage between unemployment and commercial sex work. According to Segunjobi (2007) when people cannot earn an income from legal, legitimate, and socially acceptable work/means, they turn to illegal activities such as commercial sex work which is illegal in most African countries.

Globally, Whitaker et al, ‘s (2011) study on “youth unemployment and commercial sex work studies in Dublin, Ireland”, found from the 35 qualitative interviews with commercial sex workers, that the average age at which commercial sex workers entered sex work was 19 years. For most, entry into sex work was through friendship or family networks, and work was conducted on the streets. The findings also revealed that entry into the sex trade was influenced by lack of employment. Even though some of the participants had educational qualification; they failed to secure jobs which led them to resorting to commercial sex work to earn a living.

Similarly, Gymarmathy et al (2010), reporting on a survey in St Petersburg, Russia, suggested that, of the 535 participants, 61 percent were age 30 or above; 35 percent were female, 54 percent had at least a high school education. Forty one percent were single and 49 percent lived with their parents. Two people reported being homeless. Altogether 42 percent reported making 8,000 Rubles (about USD 300) or less per month; 15 percent reported working full time and 25 percent part time, and 60 percent reported being unemployed. This shows that the majority of commercial sex workers are unemployed educated youth. In addition both studies concur that unemployed young commercial sex workers, through desperation and stigma as a result of the type of services they provide, end up abusing drugs and alcohol to cope with the demands of the job (Gymarmathy; 2010, Whitaker 2011).

In a study of male commercial sex workers in Bogota, Columbia, Bianchi et al (2014), discovered that participants ranged in age from 20 to 46, with a mean age of 28 years. The average amount of time that they had been in Bogota’ was approximately 4 years. A majority lived in neighborhoods classified by the government as occupying one of the two lowest socio economics strata; most typically they resided in rented apartments or boarding houses. Although all participants had engaged in some type of sex work, half reported that they were currently doing sex work. Moreover, 10 of the 26 listed sex work as their
primary source of income. Prior to displacement, all participants except one came from low socioeconomic backgrounds, as is common in rural areas of Colombia. This means that commercial sex work in Columbia, unlike in many African countries is legal and can be a secondary job used to supplement the primary job source of income.

However, the Ethiopia Health Development Report (1996) findings strongly link youth unemployment, commercial sex work and HIV and AIDS. In a study in the area of Nazareth 23 percent of the men and 34 percent of the women, who were commercial sex workers, had more than one sexual partner in their sexual life, and 28 percent of the men had visited commercial sex workers. In this report women were found to be likely to have ever used a condom than men. However, men who had visited commercial sex workers were more likely to have used a condoms. In a different study, young female sex workers in Kumasi, Ghana”, one-third of participants started sex work before age 15 challenging studies which linked youth unemployment and commercial sex work (Onyango et al,2015).

In Zimbabwe, due to the economic collapse, many youths have joined the commercial sex work industry (Ncube, 1989). Mugaise (2001) reports that commercial sex workers drop out of school or fail to continue with education making sex work the only profession at their disposal. Commercial sex work often comes with shame and guilt and societies become concerned when brilliant brains join the industry. However, the trade might not the workers initial choice of work but that of a social system that exposes vulnerable women and the girl-child. The closure of industries in Bulawayo has made young women resort to illicit deals as a way of generating income.

2.2.8 Migration
Social problems and the rise of difficult economic conditions lead to increasing levels of youth emigration to other cities and countries (International Journal of Economics and Finance, 2014). Globally, sub-Saharan and Zimbabwean studies show that the high rate of youth unemployment acts as a push factor for youths to migrate and seek greener pastures in other countries.

Sharma’s (2012) study of the migration of school teachers from India discovered that the major cause of emigration of teachers was due to dissatisfaction with working conditions in their native countries and improved economic and professional opportunities abroad. The study deduced various reasons and destinations for emigration by the teachers, such as rampant corruption, social problems, low salaries,
better standards of living abroad, and professional development. Similarly a report by Tucker et al (2012) in Mexico about the migration of unemployed youths from Mexico to the United States of America shows that the main reason for the emigration was financial need and the lack of employment opportunities in Mexico. One of the male migrants summarised the push factor for migration as follows:

“The problem is that here you cannot do anything, buy a house or anything, but there in the U.S. you can. Why? Because . . . here you go to work a whole day and they give you 100 pesos [$10], which is what you would make over there in 1 hour”

Interestingly a majority of the educated teachers and migrant youth from Mexico did not intend returning to India even when their contracts expired. This shows that youth unemployment, especially for graduates, is an economic and social hindrance for prosperity, Hence there is a need to investigate the impact of this scourge. In contract, out of the 30 participants in a study of youth emigrants of Mexico to America only 10 returned to Mexico, with 5 citing suffering and more unemployment in America as a push factor for return, whilst others returned home after attaining their financial goals and investments (Tucker et al 2012).

Furthermore, due to the tight rules and procedures to acquire legal documents and permits in neighbouring countries, unemployed youths and graduates tend to resort to residing illegal in foreign countries. Some studies have attributed the high rate of organised crime in Kazakhstan an influx of desperate illegal youth immigrants (State and Solutions, 2015). An approximate percentage of illegal immigrants is 15-20 percent of the total number of migrants in the world and amounts to 30-40 million people. The United States has the largest number of illegal migrants (10-11 million) or 30 percent of the total population born outside its national territory. In Europe, the number of illegal immigrants is estimated at 7-8 million people (African Migration in the Context of Contemporary International Relations, 2015).

Tanon et al (2008) study on risky issues of illegal, unaccompanied youth migration from Mauritanian to Europe is encouraged by the positive cultural perception of emigrants in Mauritanian society. The findings of the study revealed that the Mauritanian society encourages youth to migrate illegally to enhance their social prestige, which echoes with the Zimbabwean context. Mpofu et al (2015) observed that one effect of youth unemployment is the emigration of young people to other countries in search of greener pastures. The economic hardships experienced in Zimbabwe has seen the largest flight of skilled workers ever witnessed in post-colonial Africa. It is estimated that as many as three and a half million of Zimbabwe’s
close to 14 million population (25 per cent) left the country to seek employment and a better life elsewhere. This again is causing many problems in the receiving countries. For instance, in the case of South Africa xenophobic related attacks have been recorded because of the increased number of immigrants in the country. Furthermore, Kagenda (2012) observed that in Tanzania, foreign citizens from neighbouring Eastern African countries dominate jobs in the tourism and mining sectors hence, deny local youth a chance to job opportunities.

An unemployment study on the implication of social and political conflict in Zimbabwe by Mpofu et al (2016) found that 66 percent of the respondents argued that most youths are unable to get any jobs immediately after their education. As a result a majority was relocating to South Africa and other neighbouring countries to seek employment. Most of the youth who are uneducated are employed on farms and in mines. Thirty four percent of the respondents argued that they manage to get jobs in Zimbabwe.

Furthermore, many studies have shown that the migration of graduates to neighbouring countries or overseas negatively affected the economic development of a country. When the educated and skilled personnel who are expected to drive and build the economy of the country emigrate and spend their peak years developing other countries, it leaves their native country in ruins with no fresh ideas for development. This results in government and employers to relying on retired professionals or recruiting less experienced personnel for jobs, which impacts negatively on the development of a nation (O'Higgins, 2001).

2.2.9 Alcohol and substance abuse
Alcohol and substance abuse has always been associated with unemployment and poverty. Due to the social and economic challenges associated with unemployed many youth, especially graduates, have turned to substances to deal with the issues. Alcohol and substance abuse has been credited to perpetuate a number of social ills such as domestic violence, risky sexual behaviours that spread HIV, violence, and crime (Morojele, Brook and Kachieng, 2006; Kalichman et al., 2007)

Close to 40 percent of all youth who are inmates in U.S. correctional facilities were under the influence of alcohol at the time of the offense (Greenfeld, 1998). Studies show that there are various reasons why alcohol induces criminal behavior. Alcohol may impair judgment, cause violent actions, and increase the
need to obtain resources to secure continued use (McClelland et al. 2006, Homel et al. 2008, and Rush et al. 2010).

A study in Sweden by Grönqvist et al. (2014), entitled *alcohol availability and crime: Lessons from liberalized weekend in sales restrictions* revealed that the increase in alcohol availability significantly raised both alcohol use and crime. Individuals aged 20–29 had a 14.6 percent higher risk of engaging in crime from improved access to liquor stores. The corresponding numbers for individuals aged 30–39 and 40–49 are 21.4 percent, respectively. These findings are supported by Banks et al. (2016) whose study on gun violence and substance abuse in the United States of America revealed that rates of illicit drug and alcohol abuse are highest for those in their mid-twenties.

However, in sub-Saharan Africa alcohol and substance abuse among the youth are commonly associated with risks for HIV and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs) (Kalichman, 2007). A qualitative study conducted with STI youth patients found that alcohol use to the point of intoxication was believed to lower sexual inhibition and create barriers to using condoms among both men and women (Mwaba, et al. 2006). This finding is consistent with those studies of that report that greater quantities of alcohol consumption are associated with engaging in unprotected sex as well as other risk behaviours in southern Africa (Wechsberg et al. 2005).

A study about nature urban youth unemployment in Tanzania by Simon (2013), showed a link between substance abuse and functional dysfunction. Simon (2013) report that 62% unemployed youths engage in alcohol abuse. The report states that alcoholism among urban youth in Tanzania has deteriorating effects to the user’s personal and social life, leaves the alcoholic unable to maintain effective interpersonal skills and relationships which are essential towards searching for employment. Chronic alcohol abuse results in not only physical damage but also leaves the youth financially and spiritually bankrupt.

A research conducted in three urban communities in Cape Town, found that sexual risk behaviours is related to perceived stress of poverty (Kalichman et al., 2005). Individuals who perceived greater stress resulting from violence, crime, and discrimination reported greater risks for HIV infection. In this study, alcohol use was related to both perceived stress and HIV risk behaviour. Importantly, alcohol use did not account for the association between perceptions of poverty-related social problems and HIV risk behaviors. Perceptions of poverty and alcohol use are therefore related to each other and both are
associated with HIV risk behaviors. This can be dangerous to unemployed graduates living in poverty as they are prone to be desperate and indulge in risky behaviours.

Various studies reveal that unemployed and educated youth are at risk of abusing substances and engaging in domestic violence. The findings of a study on “The impact of unemployment on the sexual behaviour of the male youth in Quzini, Eastern Cape in South Africa”, by Kheswa (2017) revealed that the majority of unemployed male youth had a patriarchal background and physically abused their sexual partners. The violent incidents involved slapping, kicking, pushing, and banging the head against the wall. To justify their actions, one of the respondents in the study revealed that unemployment made him fear losing his girlfriend to an employed man.

The relationship between youth unemployment and substance abuse, one of the unemployed graduates in the study in the Eastern Cape study was quoted as saying:

“Life becomes so stressful when you are unemployed and it gets extremely difficult to cope. I depend on marijuana to cope with everyday stress.” (Kheswa, 2017).

Hence, the findings reveal the relationship between youth unemployment and substance abuse. Unemployed youth get money for alcohol from relatives, friends and sometimes resort to selling their own clothes to fund their addiction (Kheswa, 2017).

In Zimbabwe, due to lack of employment among youths, study findings by Mpofu et al (2012) on the causes and consequences of unemployment among educated youths in Harare, discovered that the majority of youths, through frustration, resorted to drinking homemade alcohol which tends to be cheap. The graduates are further involved in gambling at the bus ranks to kill time (Mpofu et al, 2012).

2.3 PSYCHOLOGICAL CHALLENGES AFFECTING UNEMPLOYED GRADUATES

Studies have shown that the experiences and consequences of unemployment can affect the health care of people negatively, depending on such factors such as age and gender. Being deprived of work entails a risk in social exclusion and isolation which in the long term has an impact on psychological health (Lorenzini et al 2010). Issues associated with psychological impact include low self-esteem and hopelessness.
2.3.1 Low self-esteem / self-worth
Modern society identifies employment of both males and females as a symbol of success. Masculine identity among men is associated with having a job. Hence, the inability of educated male youth to find employment affects the self-worth of the individual, the family, and the community at large which causes distress.

A study by Paul et al (2009) on how youth unemployment impaired mental health compared unemployed and employed youth with regard to mental health. The meta-analysis of the cross sectional data revealed a clear association between unemployment and poor mental health. Unemployed youth showed significantly more symptoms of distress and impaired wellbeing than employed youths did. Similarly Drydakis’s (2014) longitudinal study conducted from 2008 to 2013 in Greece on youth unemployment and mental health had the same findings. However, a research by Schmitz (2011) in Germany on why unemployed youth tend to be in worse health, deduced that unemployment had no effect on health.

Bjorklund et al (2014) conducted a study on unemployment and health experiences as narrated by young Finnish men. Fifteen young unemployed Finnish men in the age range of 18 to 27 years were interviewed face-to-face. Purposive sampling was used to increase the variation among informants. The interview texts were analyzed using both manifest and latent qualitative content analysis. The results showed that the young men were strongly negatively affected by being unemployed. They described how they had slowly lost their foothold. They also described feelings of shame and guilt as well as a flight from reality. Therefore, this showed that lack of unemployment especially among men reduces their value which causes depression and anxiety.

In African patriarchal societies mental and psychological problems seem to be ignored. Men tend to be highly competitive with regard to power, respect, and status. Unemployed youth turn to violence, crime, and misuse of substances such as nyape, alcohol and marijuana which all have proved to be associated with mental ill health (Seedat et al (2009). In addition, a study by Baldry (2013) in South Africa, found that graduates of low socio-economic status have difficulty in accessing resources needed to apply for employment. The common job search techniques, like internet access, newspapers for job adverts, calling or visiting labour market networks, and mailing, all required money. For the socially and economically disadvantaged graduate, such an expenditure would not be an option if basic needs like water and food are not met. Kingdon and Knight (2005), further explain that poor graduates become discouraged job seekers due to inability to effectively search for jobs making them develop low self-esteem. Similarly, in
Zimbabwe, unemployed graduates had turned to gang forming, armed robbery, and substance and alcohol abuse (Mpofu, 2014).

Jahoda (2004), stated that several studies showed that most unemployed graduates were individuals with a strong work ethics and orientation. Therefore, if a workaholic completes his studies at college or university with exceptional passes to find no job for a prolonged period, this creates a dilemma too difficult to handle. Edgell (2006) supports the assertion when he states that unemployed educated youths with strong work commitment develop stress and mental problems faster and this may lead to a reduction in their life span. Luebker (2008) summed it up by stating that unemployed youths are a lost generation.

2.3.2 Unemployment and hopelessness
Various studies have shown that unemployment is a major predictor for hopelessness (Lawoko et al Soares, 2002; Haatainen, 2004; Karsten, 2005). The rapid rise in the number of unemployed graduates in recent years, particularly in developing countries has resulted in increased attention towards exploring hopelessness among unemployed graduates. Hopelessness is an emotional state characterized by a feeling of impossibility in surmounting life’s problems due to the incapacitation of the individual to handle or solve long-standing difficulties. This results in gloominess and passivity in changing the situation for the better (Malik et al Khan, 2014).

According to Aiyedogbon et al (2012) remaining unemployed exposes the individual to a state of social exclusion and feelings of hopelessness. That may trigger mental health issues. In a more precise manner, hopelessness has been suggested as a better predictor of suicide attempt than depression (Jaiswal, et al, 2016). Hence, hopelessness becomes deadlier emotional distress, making unemployed individuals more vulnerable to developing suicidal ideation than any other important negative mental health variables (Dominic et al, 2016).

2.3.3 Suicidal behaviour and self-harm
Self-harm and suicide is common among unemployed youths who are desperate and reaching a breaking point in life with no hope of jobs and financial security. According to the World Health Organization (WHO) (2000) there is a fairly strong yet complex relationship between unemployment and suicide. In their examination of the association between exposure to unemployment and suicidal behaviours, Fergusson et al. (2007) observed among New Zealand youth that prolonged unemployment predicted
increased risks of suicidal ideation and suicide attempts. Córdoba-Doña et al. (2014) noted that the economic crisis in Europe led to a significant increase in suicide rates in many of the European countries. In Andalusia, the most populated region of Spain, Córdoba-Doña et al. (2014) discovered a significant increase in suicide attempt rates after the onset of the economic crisis. There was a significant association between suicide attempt rates and unemployment rates in men, accounting for nearly half of cases in the early years of the crisis. Whilst women were impacted by the economic crisis, the increase in their suicide rates however could not specifically be attributed to unemployment.

Young et al (2011) investigated unemployed youths using a population based survey of 21-30 year olds living in Central Clyde side Conurbation, Scotland who self-harm. The findings of the study revealed that both past and current rates of self-harm were highest among those outside the labour market. This group was most likely to want to kill themselves and did not cite specialist mental health services as helpful in preventing self-harm. Those in full-time education more often self-harmed for a brief time, mainly to reduce anxiety. In a similar study by Milner (2014) in Sweden, results of the meta-analysis showed that youth unemployment was associated with a significantly higher relative risk of suicide before adjustment for prior mental health. After controlling for mental health, the probability of suicide following unemployment was reduced by approximately 37 percent. Greater exposure to unemployment was associated with higher probability of suicide, and the pooled probability was higher for males than females. This shows that society has high expectations of males which can negatively affect graduates.

However, various studies have shown that the presence of strong social support reduces mental or psychological struggles such as suicide thoughts on unemployed youths. In her study of youth unemployment in the Scandinavian countries, Hammer (2000) found a link between social isolation, economic deprivation, unemployment, and mental health problems. Social integration may increase the individual’s ability to cope in a way that reduces mental health symptoms and prevents social exclusion. Osward (1994), studied the effects of unemployment on well-being and found that married people show lower levels of mental distress. However, Atkinson et al, (1986) showed that the negative impact of unemployment can also affect the immediate family members significantly especially wives or husbands. This might be the case for the unemployed graduates since high expectations and pressure from family members to obtain employment might push the educated youths to the edge.
In the African context, community collectiveness and extended families’ psychosocial support for the unemployed educated youth can have both negative and positive impacts: positive in the sense that members of the family may encourage the graduate not to give up on finding employment or come up with alternatives such as immigrating to neighbouring countries to seek employment. However, the same extended family can act as a push factor towards suicide as they might over pressurize the graduate to find a job and regard the educated youth as useless for being idle the whole day. Hence this may drive the graduate to abuse of substance, drugs, and alcohol leading to mental illness and even suicide. Christiana, (2012). Moser (2009), also observed that the adverse impact of unemployment on mental health was greater in countries with weak unemployment protection systems, weak economic development and unequal income distributions. This can be true of most developing countries in Africa, Zimbabwe included which show these weak systems.

2.3.4 Depression and anxiety
The unemployed are at risk of substance abuse, depression, and suicide. There is a decreased quality of mental health and absence of satisfaction, and objective physical well-being. Research demonstrates that unemployment can cause depression. According to Gallup (2013) a survey of 356,599 Americans found high rates of depression in people who have been unemployed for a long period and 10.1 percent reported being treated for depression. Similarly, Kaplan et al, (2005) state that depression is the most important mood disorder that is strongly associated with suicide. Kreitman et al, (1991) identify a relationship between depression and suicide among the youth.

Unemployment leads to negative perception which, according to Warr (1983) manifests itself in anxiety, depression, melancholy, a feeling of dependency, inability to solve routine problems, and self-dissatisfaction. Furthermore, Furnham (1986) believes that there is a bilateral connection between mental health and unemployment since many people who have been unable to find a job for a long time become victims of alcoholism. In addition, they had mental disorders in their medical history records. This view is supported by Prause and Dooley (2001), who suggest that patients who have a high index of depression were expected to be unemployed. Unemployment causes premature death resulting from criminality, incapacitation, stroke, hypertension, malnutrition, diabetes, vehicular accidents, and all the tragedies associated with poverty. Facing the pressure to earn an income to survive, the unemployed engages in risky and sometimes immoral work (Eneji et al, 2013). Therefore, unemployed graduates are at risk of being depressed.
In addition, various studies show that unemployment affects male and females differently. In an analysis of cross-sectional and longitudinal data of the negative mental health effect of unemployment, Karsten (2005) found males to be more distressed than females as a result of unemployment. The patriarchal nature of the African societies, Zimbabwe included in general could perpetrate hopelessness among unemployed male graduates. According to African culture, men are expected to be breadwinners and providers for the family (Dominic, 2016). In other words, unemployed men may be under more psychological pressure than their female counterparts in such societies. Men are expected to make a greater economic contribution to the family as the head of the household as compared to women who are expected to play a supportive role at home (Dominic, 2016). The unemployed male graduate is stigmatized by societal demands that drive him into more perpetual hopelessness than his female counterpart (Kulik, 2000).

However, a study by Dominic et al, (2016) on “Gender disparity in hopelessness among unemployed graduates: the aftermath of traditional gender-role expectations” revealed that unemployment and age played a significant role in hopelessness and depression in females compared to their male counterparts. Apart from the fact that unemployment generates feelings of hopelessness in the female jobseeker, she may also be pressured about her increasing age which may be damaging to her value and chances of getting married as culturally a woman is expected to marry at a younger age, preferably in her early twenties. Thus, older age may be a determining factor in hopelessness among older unemployed females because of the “pressure to marry” factor (Dominic et al, 2016).

2.4 MEASURES TO ASSIST UNEMPLOYED GRADUATES
Graduate unemployment is a common phenomenon and many studies have been conducted globally and in developing countries to establish the causes of high unemployment rates. There have also been efforts regarding how the unemployed could be assisted. The consensus view is that the government alone cannot provide employment for every graduate. Hence, there is a need for initiatives to be availed by both the private and public sector to assist unemployed graduates and thereby reduce the negative effects of unemployment.

2.4.1 Lessons from other countries
Many countries have initiated measures to help reduce unemployment and a few examples will suffice. Michelitsch (2012) supported by Krelle (2001) advised that Mexico had experienced a 2.8 percent
increase in employment as a result of relatively cheap measures that involved reducing red tape, reducing taxes for business, and ensuring access to reliable power. Such measures unlocked capital for business to use for expansion thereby creating more jobs. Similarly, the government of Serbia launched a National Action Plan for Employment (NAPE) in 2011 which funded youth employment initiatives through launching a public works programme and wage subsidies to employers and self-employed persons. NAPE’s results in reducing unemployment had been apparently very encouraging.

China is a recent example where 75 million private sector jobs were created since China’s opening to the global economy, resulting in the largest poverty reduction programme in world history (World Bank, 2012). What China did was to make difficult decisions which were against the country’s own founding principles of a controlled and closed economy for the sake of its youth. The end result was that Chinese nationals are now all over the world competing with market forces to win business contracts and partnerships. In that regard China became one of the fastest growing economies of this millennium. In similar fashion, Jamaica launched the National Youth Service (NYS) as a method of dealing with youth unemployment (Hildebrand, 2005). Youths undergoing the NYS were trained in various forms of self-employment. The programme went a long way in addressing unemployment. In some cases, the curriculum included training in various aspects including civil aviation, patriotism and military preparedness for the youths to be a form a reserved force ready to defend their sovereignty when the need arose. Some countries in Africa, Zimbabwe included emulated this model with varying levels of success.

According to Shamsuddin (2013) the issue of high unemployment among Malaysian graduates has been a growing concern among the public. Every year Malaysian universities, public or private, produce large numbers of graduates but at the end of the day the percentage of graduates who acquire a job is surprisingly low. To address the problem the government identified ‘strengthening education and training as one of its key focuses hence the introduction of a 1 year Malaysian training scheme called Skim Latinan 1 Malaysia (SL1M). The programme was launched in June 2011 and aimed at helping to bridge the gap between education and the professional world. It was designed to accommodate young graduates who had been unemployed after graduation for a period of not more than 2 years. Only Malaysian citizens aged 27 years and below with a CGPA of 2.5 and above would be eligible for the programme. It includes intensive soft skills training and on the job training in any organization for a year. Despite the introduction of the programme, studies have shown that unemployment rates are still on the rise and there was indication of low participation by graduates. The challenge has been the lukewarm response from
graduates towards the initiative due to lack of awareness on the part of the Malaysian youth. It was concluded that the government did not advertise and promote the initiative as intensively as it should.

The Bahamas also introduced a national job and skills training initiative that focused on curbing youth unemployment. According to the Bahamas Information Services, the programme is made up of three components: job readiness, job training, and general job placement. The initiative allows young unemployed Bahamians an opportunity to acquire new skills and enhance existing skills to prepare them for the world of work. It is more designed to help them get jobs in tourism, financial services, and industrial trade since the economy of the country is largely dependent on those sectors. The programme lasted for 52 weeks and, seeks to upgrade human resources. According to Ndahi (2009) this was introduced after the 2008 global financial crisis and since introduction has been able to train 10 percent of the unemployed youth.

Coming to Africa, Kenya launched the Rural Access Road Programme in which unemployed youths were taken to rural areas for the public works programme which involved working on the roads. Initially the programme worked but educated youths viewed it as too labour intensive (Awogbenle et al, 2010). Kenya also launched the Village Polytechnic Programme in which the government opened 250 polytechnics throughout the country which enrolled 25,000 unemployed youths to train in various trades such as carpentry, joinery, masonry, dressmaking, bricklaying and home economics as a way of addressing unemployment among young people. The programme worked and many graduates from the Village Polytechnic Programme went on to open their own ventures using the skills they had acquired this way (Omolo, 2010). The lesson learnt from this experience is that youths will be happy if a programme is enriching in terms of skills development.

Zambia on the hand, formed the Rural Reconstruction Centre (RRC) which involved taking urban unemployed youths back to the land in rural areas to settle after training on how to use agriculture equipment (Chigunta, 2002). The youths were supposed to become productive in the agriculture area and in so doing create jobs. The programme was unpopular with educated youths and it became unsustainable as the Zambian government realised that forcing the programme was not an option as it would dent the government’s international image. The lesson learnt from the Zambian experience was that for any programme to resolve the unemployment problem, it should have support from intended beneficiaries.
Adato et al (2004:13) noted that the South African government launched the Public Works Programme in order to control unemployment. The programme helped to relieve poverty by creating employment – both temporary and permanent. It helped to provide work experience and training to the chronically unemployed, making them more employable. This helped to build and maintain roads and facilities of value to poor communities and the local economy in poor areas. The involved and helped to build the management capacity of local communities.

2.4.2 Entrepreneurship
Entrepreneurship is the use of resources to pursue opportunities aiming at the creation of organizations that yield and sustain social benefits (Mair et al, 2014). Sometimes referred to as self-employment, it can be a measure that can be used to assist unemployed graduates improve their socio-economic and mental problems.

Self-employment amongst graduates in Australia has been measured at 2.4 percent of a graduate cohort which grew over a three-year period to 3.1 percent (Graduate Careers, 2010: 26). Schomburg et al (2006) report a 3 percent mean for self-employment across a twelve country graduate destination survey undertaken in 1999, four years after graduation. What is interesting in this study is the country variation with Italy reaching 4 percent but Japan having almost no self-employment tradition at all. Clearly, the choice of the self-employment pathway is determined socially, by the enablers and dis-enablers society places at the disposal of the recent graduate. This means that for graduate self-employment to prosper there is a need for public and private sector support in terms of capital, land, and machinery. Furthermore there is a need for mentorship.

In southern Africa entrepreneurship is a great challenge mainly because of lack of sufficient support from the public and private sector. In Botswana there is the youth empowerment scheme (YES), an initiative that empowers young people who did not have the privilege of proceeding to higher education with entrepreneurial and survival skills. In addition, the government of Botswana established the Local Enterprise Authority (LEA) with a mandate of entrepreneurship and enterprise development in Botswana. In Zimbabwe unemployed youths are involved in the informal sector in attributes such as vending and entrepreneurship. According to Roy (2010), youth entrepreneurship is a powerful mechanism that taps into the creativity and drive of young people to bring about change, not just in their lives, but in their communities as well. With access to the right opportunities, skills, mentors, social networks, technology
and finance, youths have enormous potential to be a driving force for economic growth and social progress. Government action to promote youth entrepreneurship needs better co-ordination. African Economic Outlook (2012) revealed that lack of institutional coordination to fight youth unemployment is a major obstacle in Africa.

Interestingly, the conclusions of a study by Sechele, (2016) on unemployed youth and self-employment in Botswana reveal that it is not easy for youth to enter self-employment directly from unemployment. This obstacle is caused by the policies and conditions for self-employment in the country. According to the Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency (CEDA) guidelines, proposed businesses for funding must have a license for operation, registration certificates, land or premises, and applicants must provide security. Furthermore, the applicants must provide a Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT) analysis accompanied by a project memorandum (Sechele, 2016). When interrogating these requirements, they fail to take into account their target market who are the unemployed characterized by lack of funds to seek consultancy or access all the required mandates. These types of restraint show that the entrepreneurship programmes are designed to cater for the youth who are resourced and trained in entrepreneurship, which is not the case with the majority of unemployed Batswana youth, making the programmes prone to failure (Sechele, 2016).

Entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe has proved to be a challenge for most youth mainly because of the failing economy and lack of sufficient support from both the public and the private sector (NANGO, 2012). The mandate of youth entrepreneurship is spearheaded by the Ministry of Youth Development, Indigenization and Empowerment, the Ministry of Small and Medium enterprises and Co-operative Development, and other government and non-governmental agencies. However, the situation on the ground has proved that these organizations often operate in isolation with little co-ordination; hence the need for a coherent strategic approach that avoids the fragmentation of efforts and wasted resources.

In support of the need for coordinated efforts for exploring youths and their capacity for nation building, the Zimbabwe National Association of Non-Governmental Organizations NANGO, (2012) advocates for the adoption of a multi-sectorial approach involving all relevant ministries and civil society organizations working on the youth entrepreneurship and employment issues to create synergies in attacking unemployment. However, youths are struggling with capital to provide startup for businesses(Mpofu,
There is a need for the private and public sector of Zimbabwe to help youths who are interested in entrepreneurship.

2.4.3 Exportation of graduates to developed countries
The exportation of graduates to developed countries has proved to be a strategy that some developed countries use to reduce graduate unemployment in their native countries. Cuba is an example of exporting the health professionals through the Cuban Medical Professional Parole (CMPP) Program of 2006. Under the CMPP Program, doctors and other professionals in the health field, are sent by the Government of Cuba to work or study countries such as the United States. In addition, spouses and unmarried children under the age of 21 of individuals meeting the programme’s criteria could be included in the parole request. The family members could be present with the medical professional in the third country or could be residing in Cuba (U.S. Department of State Cuban Medical Professional Parole Program. 2009). International missions represent an important means by which Cuban professionals can use their expertise to earn hard currency abroad, gaining valuable professional experience and political merit while earning a salary in accordance with their training, experience, and social status.

Approximately 650,000 of Havana’s residents in Cuba are estimated to receive some form of remittance from family or friends abroad (Diaz-Briquets 2009). From 1998-2008, approximately 185,000 Cubans participated in international missions, 37,000 in the year 2008 alone (Kirk et al 2009). Renewable two-year international service contracts allow professional health care workers to earn hard currency salaries while part of their earnings is paid directly to their families in Cuba. In addition to a monthly incentive that approximately triples a doctor’s regular salary, paid directly to the migrant’s family, these transnational workers also send home consumer goods such as electronics and clothing that are not widely available in Cuba. International medical missions thus have enabled tens of thousands of Cubans without relatives abroad to earn hard currency and increase their household’s standard of living without having to migrate permanently or seek out higher salaries in a sector where dollar earnings are available.

2.4.4 Entrepreneurship education and support.
The promotion of self-employment or entrepreneurship is a measure that most developed and developing countries are using to reduce youth unemployment. Kelley et al (2010) define entrepreneurship as a source of providing income when economies cannot supply jobs that will generate salaries and wages and provide positive social value for its growing youth. There need to develop culture through entrepreneurship in
developing countries not only as a means of job creation but also as a way of integrating entrepreneurial thinking and attitude into society that is not totally open to it is paramount (Mohanty, 2009).

In Ghana, the Ho Technical University introduced entrepreneurship education in 1993 when the institution metamorphosed into a polytechnic from the then Technical Institute. The idea for the introduction of entrepreneurship at the time was to make polytechnic graduates employable. Initially the entrepreneurship course started in the second semester of the second year where student personality traits were identified at an early stage. The course in the second year is to ensure that students are made ready with the mindset to show interest and subsequently establish their own businesses (Adjimah et al 2014). This arrangement, according to Adjimah et al (2014), worked so well that in the first semester of the third year the students knew exactly what business ventures they could enter into. According to a study by Ashiboe-Mensah (2012) Ghanaian graduates’ perception of entrepreneurship education on employment opportunities, it showed that compulsory entrepreneurship education was sufficient to arouse the self-employment interest of tertiary students who can later start their own income generating businesses. Therefore entrepreneurship as a strategy for job creation have worked and can be adopted in Africa.

However, according to the study students did not exhibit personal involvement in entrepreneurial activities such as having personal businesses, helping people with business ventures, attending entrepreneurship fairs, and belonging to entrepreneurial clubs. Interestingly this view is supported by Adjei et al. (2014). Darkwa and Nduro (2016) argue that, even though students take a course in entrepreneurship, most of them do not desire to become entrepreneurs. The reason for lack of interest in entrepreneurship is explained by Wang et al (2004), through a study of students in Singapore. He deduced that family business experience and educational level were major push factors in entrepreneurship. Most people who were self-employed had a relative or a member of the family who is or was once self-employed and this prompted an interest in pursuing entrepreneurship from an early age. Other studies, such as those of Henderson et al (2000) and Denanyoh, Adjei and Nyemekye (2015), show that family is a major factor in influencing a career choice of students especially in the field of self-employment. However, the same authors also indicate that the personal experience of students also plays a significant role in choosing self-employment.
Hosho et al (2013) evaluated the impact of compulsory entrepreneurship education on the entrepreneurship attitudes and intentions of first and final year students at Chinhoyi University of Technology in Zimbabwe. The study findings revealed that the programme was not enhancing entrepreneurship intentions amongst students. In the same vein, Mauchi et al., (2011) noted that entrepreneurship education was growing in Zimbabwe considerable and had teething problems. Such problems relate to low conversion of acquired skills into marketable inventions, lack of entrepreneurial efficacy, and limited entrepreneurial experience.

2.4.5 The promotion of merit based job recruitment.

Corruption is highlighted as a major obstacle to creation of jobs in Africa. The money meant for job creation is directed to the pockets of the elites such as government officials and ministries who have access to national funds. The hiring and promotion of individuals in a corrupt state is based on favoritism and nepotism which has seen the sub lining of graduates and youths. The Case of Rwanda is an example on how strong political will can influence job creation and thumping of corruption. Rwanda’s president, Paul Kagame, is an example on how strong leadership and political will can have an impact on the development of a country. Rwanda has been described as a country which has successfully exited from violence as it has not experienced serious internal insecurity since the end of the 1994 genocide massacres (McDoom, 2007). The country’s President, Paul Kagame, has spearheaded committed change to transform Rwanda’s economy through firm action against corruption, introducing liberalized sectors such as telecoms and banking, lowered taxes to attract foreign investment, stabilized inflation, enhanced Rwanda’s trade within the region, and reformed land rights. Underlying these impressive pro-growth policies, which have been met with approval by Rwanda’s donors, is the government’s belief that economic prosperity is a cornerstone of social stability (McDoom, 2011).

2.4.6 The internship programme

Internship programmes have gained popularity in recent years in both developed and developing countries that are faced with high rates of youth unemployment. The internship programme is used by different governments as a measure to equip graduates with experience and skills to curb unemployment. According to Bakwena et al (2016) the internship programme is an initiative that has the potential to bridge the gap between skills supplied and those demanded. In India many young people struggle to acquire the right skills demanded by employers to successfully navigate the transition from school to work. This has led the Indian government to invest heavily in skills development and pursue models to improve the
quality and relevance of education (Bakwena et al, 2016). In agreement, Pilane et.al (2008) argue that the changing global economy requires that academic knowledge be coupled with employability skills to enhance students’ prospects.

The Botswana government introduced the national internship programme in 2008 to fight unemployment among graduates who are placed in government workplaces to enable them to gain work skills and enhance their employability. The interns are assigned to a supervisor. The programme’s main framework is such that graduate students from various academic fields may be assigned to government and private sector offices where their educational experience could be enhanced through practical work experience (Government of Botswana, 2008). It is interesting to note that, when comparing the Mauritius Youth Employment Programme and Botswana national internship programme, Mauritius is doing well as one of the requirements of the hosting organizations is to hire 10 percent of the trainees. Failure to do so by the employer means that the company will be fined and not permitted to participate in the employment programme ever again (Suntoo, 2011).

Furthermore, the Botswana Internship Programme (BNIP) has been viewed as exploitative to graduates or interns. For instance, the government and the private sector have been engaged in a process of recycling interns without giving them permanent jobs because they are a cheap source of labour (Diraditsile, 2017). The Botswana National Internship Programme participants are paid BWP1400 per month as a living allowance. It is worth noting that this allowance is not sufficient to sustain someone who is unemployed. In addition there is no legal framework that forces host organizations to provide participants with any financial benefits that equate to or are relative to the value of their contribution to the success of the organization (Diraditsile, 2017). Given the unsatisfactory working conditions and low wages, many young people are quitting programmes meant to tackle youth unemployment in a satisfactory manner. Exploitation by the employer is often mentioned as one of the main reasons for quitting. Young people are frustrated because there is no hope that they will ever be absorbed by their host organizations into permanent employment (Diraditsile, 2017). According to Malik (2011) some European countries such as the United Kingdom have policies that encourage a model of internship that has no financial obligations for the employer and hence exploitation of interns. Australia and Canada have always placed value on the concept of internships and apprenticeship as a way of helping young people gain the necessary skills for the job market.
In contrast, the Mauritius youth policy recognizes that the country has witnessed rapid economic growth through industrialization, which has improved employment prospects for young people. The percentage of young people to the total Mauritian labour force was 29.22 percent in 2007. Education and the rate of literacy played a vital role in the kind of employment young people would need. The level of education has a direct impact on employment. Furthermore, the government of Mauritius encourages globalization through the National Youth Policy as a measure to create employment. Globalization, in this policy, is seen as promoting cultural diversity in order to foster understanding and tolerance among young people worldwide. It further creates a huge opportunity for young people to exchange and accept views, share experiences, reflect and debate on salient issues, and most importantly, identify common preoccupations and problems (Ministry of Youth and Sports, 2008).

2.4.7 Apprenticeship
The apprenticeship model can be used as a potential solution to the skills gap of the unemployed youth. In the apprenticeship model, employers invest in the education and training of students whom they want to employ after graduation (Hanna, 2013). The apprenticeship programme generally sponsors students financially through college, pays, trains them in the skills necessary for full-time employment, and hires them immediately after graduation. Apprenticeships, are a way for employers to ensure that they are getting the type of workers they need and for youths to go to college without the burden of cost and uncertainty of future employment. Germany and Denmark are two nations that have formal apprenticeship programmes, and they have low youth unemployment rates of 7.5 percent and 14 percent respectively. When this is compared to the 24 percent average across Europe, it makes a compelling case for the use of apprenticeships to create skills matches between employers and students (Shamsuddin, 2013). Apprenticeship reforms have been implemented in countries such as Ghana and Senegal where the traditional apprenticeship has been upgraded into dual and reformed apprenticeship. Dual apprenticeship is carried out in the workshop of a traditional master craftsman and is complemented by theoretical training at a public or private training centre (Walther, 2011).

Throughout sub-Saharan Africa, traditional apprenticeships between a master craftsman and an apprentice are a common and principal medium for skills development. The main strengths of traditional apprenticeship are its practical orientation, its self-regulation, and self-financing. It is flexible and non-formal nature accommodates individuals who lack the educational requirements for formal training. However, this type of training often is of long duration, low pay, and lacks certification which often push
away youth from participation. Furthermore, many youth shun apprenticeship because it is associated with being poor and less educated compared to formal white collar employment (Mugadzaweta, 2017).

Interestingly, in Zimbabwe, the Inter-American Development Bank conducted a study to evaluate apprenticeship in 2016. The findings of the study dismissed the notion that apprenticeships are based on outdated workforce methods and are an inferior means to build a successful career in today’s labour market (IDB, 2016). In Zimbabwe apprentices are directly recruited by the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development through the Industrial Training and Trade Testing Department or are directly recruited by industry. To qualify one has to have five ordinary level passes including Mathematics, Science and English, apply to the recruiting companies, and obtain clearance (Mugadzaweta, 2017).

2.4.8 Gaps in literature
The line of argument developed by the author that unemployed graduates turn to anti-social activities as a coping mechanism is valid as supported by literature. Unemployed graduates turn to drug and alcohol abuse, crime, commercial sex work and some even go to the extreme of suicide. However, the literature review also shows that not all unemployed graduates turn to anti-social behaviour as some with high self-esteem and individual, family, and community support start their own businesses (informal sector) migrating to other countries. Some unemployed graduates turn to jobs which are not related to their field of study such as those of security guards, waiters, and maids.

Most journal articles fail to address the theme of effects of unemployment on graduates as they focus on the causes and solutions of graduate unemployment as highlighted by the literature review. Few studies consider what really happens to graduates during the period of unemployment. It is like the educated young people are left on their own soon after leaving school.

Furthermore, there are limited number of studies which focus on the effects of unemployment on educated youth or graduates of university and technical colleges. Only a handful of studies were discovered. Rather a majority of studies emphasize youth unemployment and thus the researcher ended up using studies on youths rather than graduated youths. This gap needs to be filled by new studies to which this thesis aims to contribute. It must be noted that educated youths or graduates, when unemployed engage in behaviours similar to those who either did not go to school or dropped out of the education system.
Literature on graduate unemployment is limited; rather more focus is concentrated on youth unemployment. The literature fails to identify the coping mechanisms of some unemployed graduates. For instance, there are those who will manage to cope with the challenge of unavailability of jobs by starting up their own businesses; some have ventured into the informal sector and others have ventured into jobs which are not related to their field of studies (underemployment).

The literature fails to identify the psychological services and interventions for unemployed graduates. In addition, since this is a new explorative study in Bulawayo, no literature known by the researcher was discovered and only a few snapshot studies of Harare.

2.5 Theoretical framework
Theoretical framework according to Warmbard (1986) as quoted by Knobloch (2003) can be defined as a systematic ordering of ideas about the phenomena being investigated or as a systematic account of the relations among a set of variables. This segment discusses the theoretical framework applicable to the research study. It covers major proponents, theory overview and application. In defining the research questions and with the guide of the literature review, the researcher will use the ecological model.

2.5.1 Originator of the theory (Proponents)
The concept of ecological environment is credited to Urie Bronfenbrenner (1917–2005). It originated from Von Bertalanffy’s systems theory model which assumed a single dimension cause-and-effect relationship between social units within the environment. Bronfenbrenner, however, had some difficulty with the single-dimension relationship and felt that systems theory did not fully capture the complex dynamics that occur within social systems. In pure scientific situations, all aspects of systems can be carefully controlled for environmental effects. However, Bronfenbrenner (1979) observed that there are a number of additional environmental factors in human social systems which he referred to collectively as the ecological environment. The ecological environment is conceived as a set of nested structures, each inside the next. At the innermost level is the immediate setting containing the developing person.

This states that human development cannot be seen in isolation but must be viewed within the context of the individual’s relationship with the environment. In addition, each individual’s environment is unique. The “person’s development is profoundly affected by events occurring in settings in which the person is not even present” (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p. 3).
2.5.2 Overview of the theory

The Bronfenbrenner ecological model examines human development by studying how human beings create the specific environments in which they live. Human beings develop according to their environment; this can include society as a whole and the period in which they live, which will impact behaviour and development. Bronfenbrenner postulated that, in order to understand human development, the entire ecological system in which growth occurs needs to be taken into account. This system is composed of five socially organized subsystems that support and guide human development. Each system depends on the contextual nature of the person's life and offers an ever-growing diversity of options and sources of growth. Each system works together in achieving a common goal of social functioning.
MICROSYSTEM - the immediate environment in which a person is operating. The microsystem is defined as the setting in which the individual lives. This includes the individual’s family, peers, school, and neighbourhood. It is in the microsystem that the most direct interactions with social agents take place.

MESOSYSTEM - the interaction of two microsystem environments, such as the connection between a child’s home and school, home system, school system). In the meso-system, we can further evaluate what he can achieve. This system is described as the relationships between microsystems. One example is the relationships that are formed between family experiences and work experiences.

EXOSYSTEM - the environment in which an individual is not directly involved, which is external to his or her experience, but nonetheless affects him or her. An example of an exo-system is the parent’s workplace, neighbourhood, and mass media. The exo-system is used to consider the influences toward the individual over which he has no control.

MACROSYSTEM- The larger cultural context, including issues of cultural values and expectations such as law, culture and economic system. The macro- system involves the culture in which individuals live.

CHRONOSYSTEM - events occurring in the context of passing time. These events may have impact on a particular birth cohort. The last system Bronfenbrenner developed was the chronosystem. This involves the patterning of environmental events and transitions over the life course, as well as socio-historical circumstances.

2.5.3 Key concepts of the theory in relation to the study (Application of the theory)

The Bronfenbrenner ecological model examines human development by studying how human beings create the specific environments in which they live. Human beings develop according to their environment; this can include society as a whole and the period in which they live, which will impact behaviour and development (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). This means that in order to understand the effect or impact of graduate unemployment in Bulawayo, it is essential to view the problem in line with the environment or the five systems of the environment as a whole from the micro system to the macro system.

Micro system

According to Bronfenbrenner, (1994) a microsystem is defined as the setting in which the individual lives. At the micro system level, bi-directional influences are strongest and have the greatest impact on individuals (Stokols, 1996). The micro system in this study is the individual, the unemployed graduate.
In the context of this study the micro system can be identified as the individual level that is to say the impact of unemployment that affects graduates directly at their individual level. The study is likely to show that the high prevalence rate of graduates unemployment in Bulawayo cause isolation of the educated youth by family members hence, the person might develop challenges attached to mental illness such as low self-esteem caused by being looked down upon by family members and the community. Most unemployed graduates are likely to be depressed and suffer from anxiety due to lack of psychosocial support. The further lack of stimulation and livelihood of the graduates might create a probability that some attempted to commit suicide or even succeed due to environmental pressure. Furthermore, the researcher might discover that most graduates could abuse substances such as marijuana and alcohol as a means of coping with the disappointment of being unemployed. Excessive abuse of substance led to development of mental illnesses such as addiction. However, some unemployed graduates could have high self-esteem that prevent them from developing mental illnesses.

**Meso-system**

The meso system refers to the interaction of two microsystem environments. Meso systems provide the connection between the structures of the individual's microsystem (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The meso system in this study referred to the families and immediate form of support of the unemployed graduates.

The meso system according to this study refers to the effects of unemployment on graduates at the family level. Through continuous unemployment and abusing substances such as marijuana and alcohol unemployed youths might be prone to developing mental illness. The graduates’ abuse of alcohol and substances could result in breakdown of families and domestic violence. Furthermore, desperate graduates especially females are likely to resort to commercial sex work as a means of surviving the tough conditions which breed a high prevalence rate of HIV and AIDS. Their male counterparts could engage in crime and theft. However, some graduates might have strong psychosocial support from families and friends which could reduce the probability of turning to anti-social activities.

**Exo-system**

It is the environment in which an individual is not directly involved, which is external to his or her experience, but nonetheless affects him or her. The exo-system is used to consider the influences on the individual over which he has no control (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). In this study, the exo system referred to the community in which the unemployed graduates reside.
In this study the exo system refers to the challenges of unemployed graduates at community and societal level. This study might show that the rise in unemployment of youths can cause formation of gangs in communities particularly gangs of organised crime. It must be noted that unemployed graduates are educated youths who might channel their knowledge into organised crime such as fraud or selling of marijuana or homemade alcohol. Idleness of youth might result in alcohol and drug abuse. Unemployment of graduates or youths may be connected to high rates of unwanted pregnancies or single parenthood. However, unemployed graduates who have high self-esteem and strong psychosocial support from families are likely to turn to entrepreneurship and manual jobs.

**Macro system**

It refers to the overall patterns of ideology and organization that characterize a given society or social group. Macro systems can be used to describe the cultural or social context of various societal groups such as social classes, ethnic groups or religious affiliation (McLaren, 2005).

In this study, the macro system refers to the national and global impact of unemployment in Bulawayo Zimbabwe. For instance with high graduate unemployment rate the graduates are likely to migrate to neighbouring countries such as South Africa, Botswana or overseas. This shift of skilled educated personnel might result in the collapse of the economy as the country will have a shortage of qualified personnel to run both the public and private sector of the country. Furthermore, it must be noted that the migration of graduates to neighbouring countries. It is important to note that the shortage of employment in Zimbabwe might act as a push factor to graduates residing in the country, hence it is important to create employment.
2.6 Conceptual framework

Source: adopted from Bhebhe et al 2015: Effects of the educated youth unemployment nexus in Zimbabwe

The diagram above illustrates how unemployment affects graduates at different levels of the ecological system.
At the individual level (micro system) unemployed graduates might experience low self-esteem, depression, anxiety or even suicidal thoughts due to inability to find work. This might affect their families and friends (meso-system) sometimes resulting in family breakdown due to poverty and domestic violence. Domestic violence can be caused by stress and anxiety and family pressure to find employment. In addition domestic violence to siblings and intimate partners might occur.

At the community level (exo-system) unemployed graduates are likely to be involved in organised crime for example formation of internet hacking gangs, forgery and the selling of illegal drugs and substances.

Furthermore, at community level unemployed graduates can be involved in risky sexual behaviours such as commercial sex work, transactional sex or even substance influenced unprotected sex and thus unwanted pregnancies.

The problem of graduate youth unemployment might have an impact on the nation (macro-system). At national level unemployed graduates might be involved in social uprisings against the government, continue being involved in commercial sex work and substance abuse which adversely might affect the economy. Furthermore, at national level unemployed graduates might be forced to resort in non-field related jobs (underemployment) that is jobs that they did not study for at universities as a coping mechanism. They might be pushed to migrating to neighbouring countries such a South Africa and Botswana where they likely sought greener pastures.

At a regional and global level (chrono-system) unemployed graduates might be underemployed in neighbouring countries.

2.6.1 Graduate unemployment impact at different levels of the ecological model

1) **Micro system effects (Individual level)**
   - Low self esteem
   - Depression
   - Anxiety
   - Suicide ideation
   - Substance abuse
   - Stress

2) **MESO system (Family, extended family, friends)**
• Family break down
• Domestic violence
• Crime
• Substance abuse
• Lack of psychosocial support

3) Exo system (Community level)

• Gangs,
• Organised crime,
• substance abuse
• Crime
• Unwanted pregnancies
• Non-field of study related jobs

3.) Macro system (National level)

• Social uprisings
• Emigration to other countries
• Crime
• Rise in prevalence rate of HIV and AIDS
• Economic collapse of country due to lack of skilled personnel

4.) Chrono system (global level)

• Xenophobia in neighbouring countries
• Underemployment
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction
Research methodology is a way to systematically address the research problems (Rajendra, 2008). In research methodology, study the various steps that are generally adopted by a researcher in examining his or her research problem along with the logic behind it. The aim of the current study is to investigate the lived experiences of unemployed graduate youth in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. This chapter discusses the methodology that was used in the study. The research design, research method, data gathering techniques, study site, sampling procedures, sample size, data analysis plan, pilot study, ethical considerations, limitations of the study, and the schedule of activities are presented in this chapter.

3.1 Research design
According to Wyk (2012) a research design basically articulates what data is required, methods that will be used to collect and analyse the data, and how this will address the research question. Similarly De Vaus (2006) states that research design refers to the overall strategy that one chooses to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical manner. It constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement, and analysis of data.

This study adopted a combination of exploratory and descriptive approaches to conduct the lived experiences of unemployed youth in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. These designs were chosen because no similar study had previously been conducted in Bulawayo making it explorative. It is also descriptive in the sense that the researcher observed and described the socio-economic and psychological challenges that the university and technical college graduates encountered after facing unemployment for a period of five to ten years upon completion of their studies.

3.1.1 Exploratory
The study on the socio-economic and psychological effects of graduate unemployment in Bulawayo was a new subject in Zimbabwe. Most research studies have focused on the causes and reasons for high unemployment of youths and graduates. These studies showed a gap in knowledge as they come short to investigate the socio-economic and psychological impact of unemployment on graduates of universities and colleges. Issues of concern include: How do university and technical college graduates cope with failure to secure employment? How do they really survive without a source of income? How does lack of employment affect the graduate at individual, family, community and even country level? It is such
questions that the study explored when addressing the socio-economic and psychological effects of graduate’s unemployment in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe.

Furthermore, Murchnick (1996) states that, more often than not, when a researcher conducts exploratory research he/she is breaking new ground. This simply means that the researcher was working in an uncharted and under-researched area. Hence, this design was adjusted appropriate for the current research knowledge had never been conducted before in Bulawayo. Therefore, the purpose of exploration was to better understand a group, event or phenomenon about which little or no previous research has been done. It is for this reason that the study explored the services that can be offered to unemployed graduates upon completing their studies. Exploratory designs are used to find new insights and assess phenomena in a new light. It is particularly useful when trying to clarify understanding of the problem (Huberman, 1994).

3.1.2 Descriptive

Babbie (2007) states that descriptive research enables a researcher to observe and describe the findings of the observations. He further contends that descriptive studies are interested in answering the “what”, “where”, “when”, and “how” questions. The researcher’s interest is to describe the challenges faced by unemployed graduates after leaving institutions of higher learning. This was done by interviewing unemployed graduates through the use of in-depth face-to-face interviews where the participants described the socio economic and mental challenges they encounter after leaving institutions of higher learning. Therefore, upon interviewing the respondents, the researcher described the challenges that the participants ‘recently encountered. Neuman (2000: 34) explains that descriptive research design is as “the overall strategy that is chosen to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby ensuring that the research problem will be effectively addressed. The function of the research design is to answer the research questions (De Vous, 2001).

This study answered the following research questions: What are the socio-economic factors affecting unemployed graduates in Bulawayo? How does the lack of employment affect the psychological functioning of graduates in Bulawayo? What can be done to assist graduates to cope with unemployment in Bulawayo? The descriptive research design was used to obtain information concerning the current status of the situation and to describe "what exists" with respect to conditions in a particular situation (Key, 1997). This study, obtained information about the impact of unemployment on graduates in Bulawayo and described their experiences in this regard.
3.2 Research methods

Research methods are categories of terminologies, strategies, and techniques that are used to conduct research (Alreck and Settle, 1995). A qualitative research method was chosen for approaching the study of “The lived experiences of unemployed graduate youth: An empirical study in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe.

The qualitative research method was preferred because the researcher conducted research about people’s experiences in their natural environment (Chilisa, 2005). For instance, the researcher interviewed the unemployed graduates in their natural environment in Bulawayo which enabled them to be free to interact and disclose information. Unlike the quantitative survey which relies mainly on the statistics of participants, the qualitative method enabled unemployed graduates to express themselves in words. Qualitative researchers are interested in accessing experiences, interactions and documents in their natural context (Flick, 2007).

Qualitative research was adjusted suitable for the study because the participants were interviewed in a less formal manner in their natural environment at their familiar residences which enabled the participants to be relaxed during interviews (Babbie, 2010). The researcher used interviews to interact with the respondents. Furthermore, the researcher translated the interview guide into the local language (Ndebele) to enable the participants to fully express themselves in their mother tongue. This method of research was preferred because this was an exploratory study which required detailed explanations of the respondents’ experiences. According to Devous (2011) a qualitative research method is mostly appropriate when the researcher is breaking new ground or is exploring research areas which have not previously been explored. The study of unemployed graduates had not been conducted before in Bulawayo.

It is also important to note that the qualitative research method was preferred because the sample size for the study was small (Cresswell, 2014).

In qualitative research, the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and data analysis. Since understanding is the goal of this research, the human instrument is able to be immediately responsive and adaptive, which would seem to be the ideal means of collecting and analysing data (Merriam, 2015). For the study, the researcher went to Bulawayo and collected data from unemployed graduates. The researcher did not interfere with the daily routines of the subjects under study as he conveniently scheduled meetings for the in depth interviews. However, the qualitative research method had limitations. For instance
Maxwell (2013) states that qualitative research works with a universe of meanings, motives, aspirations, beliefs, values, and attitudes, which correspond to relationships, processes, and phenomena that cannot be reduced to the operationalization of variables.

3.3 Data collection procedures

3.3.1 Face to face in depth interviews

Unemployed graduates in Bulawayo were interviewed through face-to-face in-depth interviews. In-depth interviews are unstructured, semi structured, direct, and personal with each respondent (Maxwell, 2013). In this process, the researcher typically begins with a generic question, and then encourages the respondent to speak freely about the topic through probing (Almeida, 2017). The researcher used an in-depth face-to-face interview method which was guided by the interview guide generated through the research objectives (see appendix 2).

It must be noted that the questions that focus on the psychological challenges that affect the unemployed graduates in Bulawayo were generated using the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders’ fifth edition (DSMV). The DSM V is the handbook used by healthcare practitioners as an authoritative guide to the diagnosis of mental disorders. DSM contains descriptions, symptoms, and other criteria for diagnosing mental disorders. The manual determined anxiety, substance dependence, and personality disorders (cluster b in the DSMV) (American Psychiatric Association, 2016).

The face-to-face in-depth interview method is used when the researcher has a conversation with the respondent focusing on obtaining information by asking participants questions relating to a specific topic (Babbie, 2009). This tool for gathering data was adjusted appropriate for the study because it enabled the researcher to have control over the interview, by elaborating on the questions that the participants struggled to comprehend. Face-to-face interviews were preferred because they incorporated the use of nonverbal gestures to explain phenomena (Babbie, 2013).

The task of the researcher was to be a facilitator and enable the interviewee to talk about their feelings, thoughts, views, and experience (Maxwell, 2013). The researcher made sure that he managed the interview process to ensure that the area under discussion was covered to the required depth without influencing the actual views expressed. For instance the researcher probed the unemployed graduates in such a manner that they freely discussed their socio-economic and psychological experiences after leaving the educational higher institution of learning (Babbie, 2013). When using face-to-face interviews desirable results are often obtained as opposed to methods such as telephone interview-, mail
administered questions, and email. The reason for this is that, in face-to-face in-depth interviews, the researcher is present and able to note the non-verbal cues and draw appropriate conclusions (Babbie, 2013).

The interviews were conducted in English as graduates could comprehend the language. The interviews were recorded through the use of a tape recorder to make it easier to capture every detail mentioned by the respondent. Using a tape recorder was a better option than note taking as the latter is slow and can make the researcher miss some valuable information from the respondents.

3.3.2 Time dimension
The study was cross-sectional in nature. Cross-sectional studies are conducted at one point in time or over a short period of time (Babbie, 2007). The study was cross-sectional as it was an academic endeavour that was expected to be completed within a period of 10 months. Cross-sectional studies are simplest and less costly (Neuman, 2007).

3.4 Sampling
Sampling is the phenomenon of choosing variables from a population of interest so that a sample may be produced to generalize from the population (Babbie, 2007). A sample is the subset of individuals, groups or organizations selected (through the sampling process) to participate in the study (Blankeship, 2010). According to Babbie (2007) there are two forms of data gathering techniques, that is the probability and non-probability techniques. Sampling consists of identification of study site, unit of analysis, study population, sampling technique, and sample size that is discussed below.

3.4.1 Study site
The study was carried out in the city of Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. Bulawayo is the second largest city in Zimbabwe, located 439 km southwest of the capital Harare. It is a metropolitan area and, according to the 2012 census, it had a population of 653,337 in which males were recorded at 303,346 and females 349,991. The city is divided into 29 wards which are made up of 130 suburbs. Bulawayo is dominated by the Ndebele tribe with other ethnic groups such as the Shona, Kalanga, Chewa, Nambia, and Tonga just to mention a few, in the city. Ndebele is the dominant language used in the area.

The major tertiary institutions of learning in the city as noted earlier rare the National University of Science and Technology (NUST), the Zimbabwe School of Mines, Bulawayo Polytechnic, Bulawayo Teachers' College, United College of Education, and Solusi University although the city has graduates
from other universities in the country such as the University of Zimbabwe (.U.Z) and Midlands state University (M.S.U) . The population of Bulawayo according to the 2012 census was young with the composition of 0–4 and 20-24 years age groups having the highest proportion of the population (Zim Stats, 2012).

This study site was chosen because Bulawayo is a youth dominated city and an ideal location to study unemployed graduates. The location was preferred because both the participants and the researcher reside in Bulawayo, hence, it was convenient. The study site was convenient to both parties because of the commonality of the language, Ndebele, as a medium of exchange.

3.4.2 Units of analysis
The study interrogated the lived experiences of unemployed graduate youth in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. Therefore, graduates from the faculty of social sciences at the University of Zimbabwe, Midlands State University, Lupane State University, National University of Science and Technology, and Solusi University who had not been formally employed or penetrated their field of study for at least one year were included. The University of Zimbabwe, Midlands State University, Lupane State University, Solusi University, and National University of Science and Technology were preferred because they are the five major universities in Zimbabwe. The unemployed graduates from the faculty of social sciences were the preferred unit of analysis because literature indicated that they are the most affected by unemployment in Zimbabwe (Mpofu, 2016). Furthermore, the unemployed graduates from the faculty of social sciences were preferred to enable easier comparison when doing comparative studies.

3.4.3 Study population
A study population is that aggregation of elements from the sample that gets to be selected (Babbie, 2007). Grinnell (1978) defines study population as the totality of persons, events, organizational or other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned or aggregation of elements from which the sample is selected. The study population included unemployed university graduates from the University of Zimbabwe, Midlands State University, Lupane State University, Solusi University and National University of Science and Technology from the faculty of social sciences who reside in Bulawayo. The exact number of the population is not known as no records has been recovered by the researcher.

3.4.4 Sampling techniques
Singleton and Straits (1999) point out that the basic idea behind sampling is to seek information about a class of similar objects or events. The time and expense involved in research projects prohibits data
collection on the scale seen in the national census involving the entire population (Moule et al., 2009). The authors also point out that researchers want to ensure that the sample size and the composition are appropriate to the study to strengthen the research outcomes and conclusion drawing. This study adopted both snowball and purposive sampling techniques which are non-probability technique. The snowball technique was used to recruit respondents whereas purposive sampling was used as the researcher’s judge to interview the recruited respondents. That is to say that the snowball sampling technique was primary for recruitment purposes whilst purposive sampling was for appropriate respondent selection.

3.4.4.1 Snow ball sampling technique
The snowball sampling technique is a type of non-probability sampling where existing participants recruit future subjects from among their acquaintances. Thus the sample group appears to grow like a rolling snowball. To begin with individuals that constituted the sample are identified by the researcher and information is collected from them. These individuals then in turn refer the researcher to other people they know who are relevant to the study (Kumar, 2011, Crossman, 2017). The researcher chose this sampling technique because there was no sampling frame for all the unemployed graduates in Bulawayo. The snowball sampling was vital in this study because the Social science graduates were scattered all over the city with some having no fixed residential address.

3.4.4.2 Purposive sampling technique
The research used purposive sampling, which is a non-probability sampling technique to obtain data from respondents. It involves selecting a sample based on the researcher’s knowledge of the population, its elements, and the nature of the research (Babbie, 2007).

Palmer-Calmorin et al (2008) indicate that this type of non-scientific sampling is based on selecting individuals as samples according to the purposes of the researcher. Palmer-Calmorin et al (2008) further suggest that an individual is selected as part of the sample due to evidence that he/she is representative of the total population. The researcher used his judgement to determine whether the unemployed graduate was suitable for the intended study.

Purposive sampling was chosen because the study is focused on a certain group of individuals who have the characteristics for which the researcher was looking. Purposive sampling involves selecting sample units based on the researcher’s judgment about which will be more suitable for the study. Therefore, the researcher used purposive sampling to select the participants who were able to respond to the interview questions and also have the characteristics the researcher required. Such individuals were unemployed.
graduates in Bulawayo, both males and females. In addition, the technique was used because it is less time consuming since it allows for elimination of respondents that do not fit in the study.

3.4.5 Sample size
The total sample size for the study was 20 participants. This refers to 20 unemployed graduates’ youth of the University of Zimbabwe, Midlands State University, Lupane State University, Solusi University and National University of Science and Technology from the faculty of social sciences residing in Bulawayo. There were 10 males and 10 females because, according to literature, male and female unemployed graduates have different experiences, and the researcher aimed at capturing a balanced review. Therefore the result was 20.

Only twenty respondents were chosen for the qualitative study to avoid data saturation. Data saturation occurs when the researcher gathers data to the point of diminishing returns, when nothing new is being added (Marshall et al, 2013). Various qualitative studies recommend a range of 20-30 interviews as a measure to avoid saturation of data (Marshall et al, 2013). The researcher informed the participants about the purpose of the study which is to investigate the lived experiences of unemployed graduate youth in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. The participants were told that the study was voluntary and that they could withdraw if they so wish. The researcher provided a copy of an informed consent form so that they can read it on their own. If they decided to participate in the interview they were be invited and asked to sign a copy of the informed certificate of consent form.

3.4.6 Inclusion criteria
The study included all male and female graduates from the University of Zimbabwe, Midlands State University, Lupane State University, Solusi University and National University of Science and Technology from the faculty of social sciences who have not been formally employed or penetrated their field of study for at least one year. The unemployed graduates from the faculty of social sciences were included because literature indicated that they are the most affected by unemployment in Zimbabwe (Mpofu, 2016). Furthermore, the unemployed graduates from the faculty of social science were preferred to enable easily comparison when doing comparative studies. The graduates who were included were aged between 25 and 35 years and had a minimum of one year unemployment experience. The graduates were permanent residents of Bulawayo. Furthermore, these male and female unemployed graduates were willing and able to give informed consent. Male and female graduates were included because, according to the literature
they may have different experiences when handling unemployment. Therefore, the study aimed to get a balanced interpretation of the experiences from the graduates.

3.4.7 Exclusion criteria
The study excluded all the university and technical college graduates who are working in their field of study. Unemployed graduates who did not graduate in the faculty of social sciences were excluded. It also excluded unemployed graduates who are not permanent residents of Bulawayo and those who did not give consent. This was done in appreciation of the ethical considerations of research.

3.5 Pilot study
A pilot study was carried out in the city of Gaborone, Botswana. Four unemployed graduates from the faculty of social science at the University of Botswana were sampled through snowballing and purposive sampling. The unemployed graduates were interviewed using the interview guide to adapt and check the feasibility of the study. The pilot study showed that the respondents were comfortable with the interview questions and helped in the testing of the recorder and the timing of each interview. The city of Gaborone was used for the pilot study because it is youth dominated and had a high graduate unemployment rate. The city has great similarities with the city of Bulawayo, where the study was conducted. It was also selected for convenience.

3.6 Data analysis plan
The researcher used the Qualitative Data Analysis Plan. According to Huberman’s 1994 flow model of data analysis, there are three concurrent flows which are data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification.

**Data reduction:** refers to the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data that appear in written field notes or transcriptions (Huberman, 2004). Data reduction occurs throughout the initial and final stages of the project. It is an ongoing process that the researcher started to do before going to the field. In this project the researcher decided to embark upon a topic on the lived experiences of unemployed graduate youth in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. He then set the objectives and research questions of the study and compiled a literature review and selected a theoretical framework. The researcher used the principle of selectivity to determine which data were singled out for description (Huberman, 1994). In data reduction the researcher listened to the recorded interviews of the unemployed
graduates and developed a framework table of data analysis which consisted of main themes particularly made up of the research objectives and sub themes derived from the main themes.

Furthermore, the researcher used the code sheet to engage in data reduction. “Codes are tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study. Codes are usually attached to ‘chunks’ of varying size, words, phrases, sentences or whole paragraphs” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p.56). This method allowed the researcher to have a personal column where the findings were distilled; that is the information given by various categories of the sample was compared such as that supplied by unemployed graduates and the key informants to produce central themes of the research. The purpose of developing themes was to check if the data collected from the respondents complemented or differed from the literature review and the theory of the study (Huberman, 1994).

**Data display:** Data display is the second element or level in Miles and Huberman's (1994) model of qualitative data analysis. This involves a researcher organizing information in order to permit the drawing of conclusions. This display, as the name suggests, involves assembling and organizing information in a visual manner. For example, the use of graphs and charts (Huberman, 1994).

In this study the researcher displayed the demographic information of the unemployed graduates and the framework table of data analysis to draw conclusions. The demographic information included age, sex, marital status and number of children that graduates have. The framework table of data analysis included main themes and all sub themes derived from the main themes.

**Conclusion drawing and verification:** Starting at the beginning of data collection, the qualitative analyst is beginning to understand what things mean, noting regulations, explanations, possible configuration, and causal flows (Huberman, 1994). Furthermore, the meanings emerging from the data have to be tested for their plausibility, their sturdiness, and their ‘conformability’ that is, their validity. Validity refers to whether the conclusions drawn from the data are credible, defensible, warranted, and able to withstand alternative explanations. The researcher used investigator triangulation to reduce bias in data collection and validate the results of the study. Investigator triangulation occurs when two or more researchers with divergent backgrounds and expertise work together on the same study with each investigator discussing their individual findings and reaching a conclusion (Creswell, 2007). The researcher gathered data through in depth interviews and sent a copy of the recorded interviews to a research assistant who analysed the
data and drew conclusions separately from the researcher. The researcher analysed data on his own and drew conclusions. The two met, compared notes, and contrasts the findings and drew conclusions.

3.6.1 Data verification
The trustworthiness of qualitative research is established on a set of criteria: transferability, credibility, confirmability, and dependability (Lincoln et al 1985).

Transferability: This refers to being able to generalize the findings of the study to the general population. Due to the sample size of 20 participants, and the subjective nature of this study which is based on individual experiences, the findings cannot be generalized (Engel et al, 2010).

Validity: This is when a researcher uses certain procedures to check the accuracy of the research findings (Creswell, 2014, p.201). The researcher used investigator triangulation; a research assistant scrutinized the findings according to his or her understanding and draw conclusions to be compared with the main researcher's findings.

Credibility: In a research study, credibility refers to a situation of ensuring that the data collected from the study participants corresponds to the research questions (Babbie et al, 2010). The researcher was guided by the interview guide which was informed by the research objectives and literature review.

Confirmability: This refers to whether or not the findings can be confirmed by another person (De Vos et al 2005). Actual interviews with the participants were recorded, the transcripts were made available to the supervisor, and the findings of the study were linked to the literature and theory.

Dependability: It refers to providing evidence that, if the study were to be repeated with a different group of participants in a similar setting, similar results will be obtained (Babbie et al 2010). A clear and precise detailed account of how data collection and analysis were done in the study methodology.
3.7 Limitations of the study
The findings of the study cannot be generalised to the whole population partly because the sample size is small. This study was unique to the participants. Moreover, the study was cross sectional as it was done at one point in a particular place. Therefore, from the data that were collected, general conclusions cannot be drawn.

Furthermore, there was a limitation that some of the respondents had difficulty in expressing themselves during the interview. Some respondents could not understand the interview questions and therefore they ended up not being able to respond with relevant information.

The presence of the researcher during data gathering was unavoidable in the study and it affected participants’ responses as they feared being judged.

3.8 Ethical considerations
Babbie (2007) stated that often social research represents an intrusion into people’s lives. It often requires people to reveal personal information about themselves, as such, they should be protected. The research therefore protected the respondents by observing the following ethical considerations:

3.8.1 Purpose of the study
The researcher described all the steps and the timetable for the study. If the participants considered being study participants the researcher gave them information about the protocol and what they should expect if they decide to participate in the research. That also included the purpose for which why it is being conducted.

3.8.2 Voluntary participation
The researcher made sure that participation by respondents was voluntary and free. Participants were not coerced into providing information. This was ensured by informing the participants fully about the nature and purpose of the research, how far the research will go, and how it would possibly benefit respondents or society in general.

3.8.3 Confidentiality
“Whenever a research project is confidential rather than anonymous, it is the researcher’s responsibility to make that fact clear to the respondents” (Babbie, 2007). The study ensured that all the information provided by the participants was kept confidential. The study respected the respondents’ confidentiality by not revealing their names either in the report, recorded interview or in any other way. The recorded interview was stored in a safe and will be destroyed after 3 years.
3.8.4 No harm to participants
The researcher was committed to protecting the respondents from anything that would harm them, either physically or psychologically.

3.8.5 Withdrawal from the research process
Participants were informed that they had the right to withdraw from the research at any time if they do not feel comfortable to continue.

3.8.6 Sharing research findings
The results of the study were availed to the Department of Social Work (University of Botswana), Ministry of Youth and Development, and Ministry of Youth and Culture.

3.8.7 Information storage and disposal
In this study the recordings and interview guides will be kept safe. The information will be stored for three years and then destroyed. During this storage period access to the recordings and transcripts will be limited to authorized personnel.

3.8.8 Risk and discomfort
The risk and discomfort which the participants were subjected to was limited. When a participant felt uncomfortable due to the questions being asked by the researcher, he or she was free to choose not to answer the questions. However, when the participants felt affected by the questions being asked, they were counselled by the researcher who is also a qualified social worker.

3.8.9 Ethical clearance
The research proposal was submitted to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Botswana for ethical clearance. Before the study was conducted the researcher made sure that the IRB board reviewed the proposal and a research permit was granted to conduct the study.
CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF STUDY FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction
This chapter presents the findings of the study which was conducted in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. The study utilized a qualitative approach to collect data from 20 unemployed graduate youth of the University of Zimbabwe, Midlands State University, Lupane State University, Solusi University and National University of Science and Technology from the faculty of Social Sciences residing in Bulawayo. The data was collected through in-depth face-to-face interviews with the help of a tape recorder. Apart from purposive sampling the researcher relied on the snowball sampling method to collect data. The chapter begins with a presentation of the demographic characteristics of the graduates, framework table of data analysis that comprise of themes and sub themes that emerged from the study, and the emerging themes of the study are presented.

4.2 Demographic characteristics of graduates
Table 1: Demographic characteristics of graduates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Graduate</th>
<th>Age (years)</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Number of children</th>
<th>Year of graduation</th>
<th>Faculty of Social Sciences</th>
<th>Unemployment period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One G1</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>University of Zimbabwe</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two G2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Solusi University</td>
<td>2 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three G3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>University of Zimbabwe</td>
<td>4 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>NUST</td>
<td>1 year</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td><strong>G4</strong></td>
<td>Five</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Solusi University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>G5</strong></td>
<td>Six</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>Midlands State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>G6</strong></td>
<td>Seven</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>Lupane State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>G7</strong></td>
<td>Eight</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Midlands State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>G8</strong></td>
<td>Nine</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>University of Zimbabwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>G9</strong></td>
<td>Ten</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>NUST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>G10</strong></td>
<td>Eleven</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Solusi State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>G11</strong></td>
<td>Twelve</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Midlands State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>G12</strong></td>
<td>Thirteen</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Lupane State</td>
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<tr>
<td>G13</td>
<td>Fourteen</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>University of Zimbabwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G14</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>G15</td>
<td>Fifteen</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>NUST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G17</td>
<td>Sixteen</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Lupane State University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G19</td>
<td>Seventeen</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>Solusi University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eighteen</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Solusi University</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>G19</td>
<td>Nineteen</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>NUST</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Twenty</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>Midlands State University</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of graduates. The age of the participants in this study ranged from 23-29 years. Eleven out of 20 participants were males and nine were females. The table shows that a majority of the graduates 19/20 were single while one was married. It is also observable that 3/20 of the graduates had children. The year of graduation ranged from 2013-2017 and the minimum unemployment experience was one year whilst the maximum was five years. All the participants were selected from the faculty of social sciences of each respected university.
4.2.1 Framework table of data analysis

Table 2: Framework table of data analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main themes</th>
<th>Sub themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 4.3.1 Socio-economic factors affecting unemployed graduates. | 4.3.1.1 Family instability  
4.3.1.2 Intimate partner relationships  
4.3.1.3 Informal sector and underemployment  
4.3.1.4 Crime and migration |
| 4.3.2 Psychological challenges affecting unemployed graduates. | 4.3.2.1 Self esteem  
4.3.2.2 Hopelessness  
4.3.2.3 Depression  
4.3.2.4 Isolation  
4.3.2.5 Substance abuse |
| 4.3.3 Measures to assist unemployed graduates. | 4.3.3.1 Job creation  
4.3.3.2 Services that target mental health  
4.3.3.3 Scholarship programmes  
4.3.3.4 Government funds/loans for starting businesses |
4.3 EMERGING THEMES FROM STUDY FINDINGS

4.3.1 SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS AFFECTING UNEMPLOYED GRADUATES.

4.3.1.1 Family instability
To find out how unemployment had affected the dynamics of households, the graduates were asked to share their lived experiences. The majority felt that they had become a burden to their families. This consensus was made because the graduates sensed that they were at an age where they felt they should be independent and providers in their respective families. The graduates reported that they lived in shame as they felt guardians wasted their money by investing in their education. Commenting on the issue G7 was quoted as saying:

“It is always hard for a parent to see their children lack in any manner. At the end they are caught on the verge of trying to sustain the whole family including me when I am supposed to be looking after them at their advanced age. All families go through highs and lows being unable to contribute at funerals, parties, baby showers and weddings is very hard as it leads to fights and division among the family members” (Graduate 7, Lupane State University).

Few of the respondents emphasized that unemployment has brought the family close. Showing how unemployment had brought him close to his family members G2 was quoted as saying:

“It actually showed me that my immediate family members really care for me. They would alert me on any job posting they came across. They have been my source of strength because during times I had given up, they would be the encouragers and would use Christianity background of the family to motivate and give me hope.” (Graduate 2, Solusi University)

One of the twenty respondents, highlighted that unemployment had encouraged family members to offer part time employment at their butchery.

4.3.1.2 Intimate partner relationships
Regarding the issue of unemployment and intimate partner relationships most of the graduates indicated that they were single and only one of the respondent was married. However, 5/20 graduates were in a relationship or seeing someone. Most of the male respondents 8/11 reported to be single whilst only 2/9 interviewed females reported to be dating. The males 8/11 justified their single status to their inability to financial sustain partners who had expectations to be spoilt with presents and dates. One of the eight
single male respondents reported that he lost the love of his life to a working class man. Interestingly, 2/11 male graduates who were in relationships expressed fear of losing their partners, they emphasized that their partners deserved better than what they were offering. Only one of the eleven male respondents highlighted that unemployment did not affect his relationship. Surprisingly 2/20 of the graduates reported to have children.

4.3.1.3 Informal sector and underemployment
The graduates were asked on some of the ways which they cope with unemployment in Bulawayo. A few 5/20 of the respondents were involved in the informal sector. Most stated that they were cross border traders who bought and sold goods such as perfumes, cellphones and clothes from neighbouring countries such as Botswana, South Africa and Mozambique. One of the respondent indicated that she quit the cross border trading business because of the unstable economy which tend to hike customs duty tax, the ever changing foreign exchange rates and the competitive market which yields few returns. Furthermore, 4/20 graduates were underemployed, as two worked as cashiers at local supermarkets, one at a restaurant and the at a construction company. All four of them were underpaid and worked at places not related to their degrees. One of the graduate interviewed stated that he tutors form four students in mathematics and science and 3/20 of the respondents were volunteering at various organizations in the city. Surprisingly 2/20 of the respondents were due to pursue their master’s degree after persuading parents to assist with tuition fees. Five of the twenty graduates indicated that they sat at home doing nothing all day.

4.3.1.4 Migration and crime
The respondents were asked to indicate how graduate unemployment affect the country, region and continent. Overall a large number agreed that unemployment had a negative impact on the country’s development. Emphasizing the negativity of graduate unemployment, graduate 1 was quoted as saying:

‘It slows development in the sense that the youth are the active age meant to bring development in the country yet they are unemployed leading to low productivity in firms and organizations... ‘(Graduate 1, University of Zimbabwe)

In addition, few of the interviewed respondents were of the view that unemployment in Zimbabwe provided an opportunity for an escalation of crime. The respondents identified criminal activities such as illegal gambling, robberies and illegal street foreign money exchangers as examples. Furthermore, most of the respondents were also aware that youth unemployment has resulted in massive external migration of graduates to countries like South Africa, Botswana and Namibia. Even though some graduates, stated
that they migrated from smaller towns to cities to look for employment, those cited were very few. Interestingly, a handful of the respondents reported that unemployment has made them venture in internal migration. In highlighting internal migration G3 was quoted as saying:

“It has been so difficult trying to get a job in the ministry. I have been travelling from one district to the other trying to raise the chances of getting employed…” (Graduate 3, University of Zimbabwe).

4.3.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL CHALLENGES AFFECTING UNEMPLOYED GRADUATES.  
To find out how youth unemployment affected the mental health of graduates in Bulawayo. Twenty respondents were asked to share their views on mental health issues such as self-esteem, depression, hopelessness, isolation and substance abuse.

4.3.2.1 Self-esteem
On self-esteem 11/20 of the respondents reported that when graduates in Bulawayo complete school they were motivated to find employment but prolonged unemployment and rejection by companies hampered their belief to ever find employment. Eight of the eleven graduates even concluded that years spent at university was a waste of time as the bread winners in families have not changed. Interestingly 9/20 graduates never commented on self-esteem.

4.3.2.2 Hopelessness
Many of the graduates indicated that they were hopeless to ever find employment. This view was most common among graduates who had prolonged unemployment experience of more than two years. Explaining hopelessness of finding employment G15 was quoted as saying:

“I have lost all hope that one day I be employed, independent and be able to live my dreams” (Graduate 15, NUST)

4.3.2.3 Depression
A majority 14/20 of the respondents reported that their depression was caused by seeing some age mates getting employed and progressing in life. Envy and jealous led to self-defeating thoughts and questioning of their self-worth. Indicating how he got depressed, G17 was quoted as saying:

“ It is easy to get depressed because most of the time one starts questioning the viability of the degree they got. Question your own ability to be employable. You even question your own state of “luck, Not to be confused with jealousy, but seeing your former college mates kick start their careers is a shot in the arm because you start question your own life” (Graduate 17, Solusi University).
4.3.2.4 Isolation
Most of the graduates reported to have been isolated due to unemployment. Twelve out of the twenty graduates reported to isolate themselves from working friends and family members because of fear being a financial burden when it comes to buying drinks and food at gatherings, parties and events. G8 was quoted as saying:

‘’Unemployed youth tend to isolate themselves from different situations for example social gatherings in the community and also within the family because of low self-esteem, they no longer believe that they can contribute to the society and members of the society look down upon the unemployed youth.’’(Graduate 8, Midlands state University).

However, few of the graduates indicated that family members and friends were very supportive and felt included at most times.

4.3.2.5 Alcohol and substance abuse
On the issue of abusing alcohol and substances, a majority of the graduates 16/20 reported that they turn to alcohol and substances to cope with unemployment. Highlighting how alcohol and substance abuse affect most graduates G20 was quoted as saying:

“Most of us think being intoxicated with alcohol or drugs will numb the pain.”(Graduate 20, Midlands state University)

The graduates were tasked with explaining how the identified mental health issues such as self-esteem, depression, hopelessness, isolation and substance abuse had affected their lives. A majority 18/20 reported to have battled with self-esteem, depression, isolation and hopelessness. Only 2/20 of the graduates stated that at some point they had abused substances such as alcohol and marijuana. Interestingly no graduate reported to had suicidal ideation. A few of the graduates 4/20 highlighted a relationship between mental health issues that affected graduates. In summarising the relationship G10 was quoted as saying:

‘’I have been really affected you know one of the issues will lead to other depression would lead to isolation and loneliness and to cope with that would turn to alcohol and still affected self-esteem since I feel lesser than other human beings around me’’(Graduate 10,NUST).
4.3.3 MEASURES TO ASSIST UNEMPLOYED GRADUATES.

The respondents were asked whether they knew any services and programs provided for the unemployed graduates in Bulawayo. The majority of the graduates 16/20 had no knowledge of any programmes and services. Only 4/20 of the graduates identified apprenticeship programme offered by the Bulawayo city council and the National Railways of Zimbabwe, soldiers recruitment by the Zimbabwe defense forces and the annual scholarship programmes to study in Asia. Although the respondents stated failure to utilize these programmes and services.

The respondents were asked to suggest the types of services and programs that should be provided for the unemployed graduates. Their suggestions were varied as revealed below:

4.3.3.1 Job creation
Many of the graduates suggested that the public and private sector must create employment in different ministries. However, few of the graduates admitted that job creation would be ideal but since the government and the private sector seem to be failing to create employment, the idea of internship programmes was proposed so that graduates could get work experience. In contrast, one of the responded suggested that if the government cannot employ all the graduates, it should try to bond its citizens with other neighbouring countries.

4.3.3.2 Services that target the mental health issues
Due to the psychological challenges that is caused by unemployment such as low self-esteem, depression, isolation, substance abuse, suicidal isolation and hopelessness 13/20 proposed counselling services for the unemployed graduate youths. In explaining the need for mental health services, G11 was quoted as saying:

‘‘I think the fundamental one should be a programme which targets mental health for unemployed graduates. An unhealthy mind for me is more deadly and is hindrance to personal, economic and psychological development. It’s difficult to convince a depressed person that their life can and will turn around.’’ (Graduate 11, Solusi University).

4.3.3.3 Scholarship programmes
Some of the respondents expressed the desire to pursue their education but lacked financial support. They indicated that provision of scholarships by the government and companies could be of great assistance. In addition, only a few of the respondents were to start their master’s degree with the financial assistance of their family members. However, majority of the respondents had no interest to advance their education as their sole purpose was to get employment and help their families.
4.3.3.5 Government funds/loans for starting businesses

Many of the interviewed graduates 12/20 proposed that the government provide funds or loans so that they can start businesses. In addition, only 2/20 graduates indicated that for the small businesses to thrive there is a need for tax free importation of goods. Interestingly 6/20 emphasized that they have no interest in starting up their own businesses
CHAPTER FIVE: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1 Introduction
This chapter presents an overview analysis and discussion study on the lived experiences of unemployed graduate youth: an empirical study in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. This chapter will discuss how the findings are consistent or inconsistent with the literature review, theoretical framework, and objectives of the study. The implications of the results are of interest in this discussion. The findings of the research are vital in the formulation of a conclusion and recommendations.

5.2 SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS AFFECTING UNEMPLOYED GRADUATES
The socio economic factors affecting the unemployed graduates are divided into sub themes which include: family instability, intimate partner relationships, informal sector, underemployment, crime and migration will be discussed further below.

5.2.1 Family instability
The study findings showed that graduate unemployment had affected the stability of households. The majority of the respondents 15/20 indicated that being unemployed had made them become a financial liability to their families. This consensus was made in the light of guardians who invest in the education of their children so that they can later benefit from the rewards of their success. These findings are consistent with studies done by Mungule (2012) in Zambia and Bhebhe et al, (2015) in Zimbabwe where it was discovered that the educated youth feel dejected to be the cause of more suffering to the family yet they possess high academic qualifications. When few resources are used to cater for a large number of family members, poverty escalates leaving the families in a cycle of poverty. Contrary to the study done by Mungule (2012) in Zambia where results indicate that male graduates are most affected by unemployment because they are viewed as providers in families. This study shows that both male and female graduates are expected to invest back and become providers in their respective families.

Furthermore, according to Bronfenbrenner, (1994) a microsystem is defined as the setting in which the individual lives. At the micro system level, bi-directional influences are strongest and have the greatest impact on individuals (Stokols, 1996). This resonates with the findings of the study that revealed that family instability was more prominent in cases where there is lack of psychosocial support such as alerting graduates on employment advertisements and posts.
5.2.2 Intimate partner relationships

From the findings of the study, it is clear that there is a strong relationship between unemployment and lack of marriage. A majority of the graduates indicated that they were single although, few of them who reported to be in a relationship or seeing someone all resided at their family homes. This observation is consistent with the findings of Bentolila and Ichino (2000) that only 25 percent of the unemployed moved out to new places to set up their households. This is further supported by Aghatise (2002) who states that being unemployed reduces the attractiveness of wanting to leave home and start a family opting to stay with parents as a cheaper alternative.

Most of the male respondents were single and justified their status to their inability to financial sustain partners who have expectations to be spoilt with presents and dates. This is similar to a study done by Kheswa (2017) on unemployed youth in South Africa that revealed that the majority of unemployed male youth are patriarchal and would want to be providers in the relationship. Hence, this explains why most of the male graduates opted out of dating.

However, the findings of the study refute the Zim stat (2012) results that females seem to enter marriage unions at a much younger age than males as out of the nine interviewed females only one was married. It can also be seen from the findings that only few of the graduates reported to have children which is in contrast with Kalichman et al, (2005) research conducted in three urban communities in Cape Town, which found that sexual risk behaviours is related to perceived stress of poverty.

5.2.3 Informal sector and underemployment

Zhangazha (2012) noted that due to unemployment, graduates in accounting have found themselves driving taxis and working at fast food outlets, something they never imagined while still at university. Some graduates are opting for self-help projects such as cross border trading and exchanging foreign currency at the parallel market. This concurs with the findings of the study, a few graduates 5/20 were involved in the informal sector where many were cross border traders who bought and sold goods such perfumes, cellphones and clothes from neighbouring countries such as Botswana, South Africa and Mozambique. This can be linked to the exo- system in the ecological model. The exo-system is used to consider the influences on the individual over which he has no control (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). In this study, the exo system refers to the community in which the unemployed graduates reside. The graduates reside in a community where they have no control over employment hence they turn to the informal sector.
Furthermore, the study showed that 4/20 of the graduates were underemployed by working in restaurants and construction as a way of coping. Interestingly 2/20 of the respondents were due to pursue their master’s degree after persuading parents to assist with tuition fees which reveals that if a graduate’s exo system provides strong psychological support he or she can progress in life regardless of finding employment.

5.2.3 Migration
In this study the macro system refers to the national and global impact of unemployment in Bulawayo Zimbabwe. For instance with high graduate unemployment rate the graduates are likely to migrate to neighbouring countries (external migration) such as South Africa, Botswana or overseas. This shift of skilled educated personnel might result in the collapse of the economy as the country would not be having the qualified personnel to run both the public and private sector of the country affiliation (McLaren, 2005). This is validated by the results of the study, where a majority of the respondents 15/20 emphasized that unemployment had caused a massive migration of graduates to neighbouring countries causing a major brain drain.

The massive migration of graduates is further emphasized by the Bronfenbrenner ecological model. Graduate migration in the ecological model takes place at the macrosystem (national level) in which a macro system is defined as the larger cultural context, including issues of cultural values and expectations such as law, culture and economic system (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Therefore, graduate external migration occurs because the country’s macro, (national) exo (community), meso (family) and micro (individual) systems have failed to create a conducive environment that will incorporate the needs and expectations of the graduates.

However, it is interesting to note that few of the graduates 2/20 that ventured in internal migration failed to secure jobs as well. Internal migration in this study referred was defined as relocating to remote towns and villages in order to secure employment in areas where competition is usually low.

5.2.4 Crime
Many studies in Europe, Asia and Africa have shown a relationship between unemployment and an increase in the sight of crime (Kovacheva, 2014; Tauova, 2014). The findings of the study in Bulawayo revealed that the majority of the graduates use their intellectual abilities to engage in organized crime such as illegal gambling, robberies and illegal street foreign money exchanging. This is a view that (Ajay, 2014; Mungule, 2012, and Serite, 2018), concur with. However, even though the graduates acknowledged
an increase of crime and anger due to lack of job creation by both the public and private sector, they was no mention of social uprisings and protests demanding change. This is interesting because a growing body of literature show a strong relationship between political instability and economic performance in both developed and developing countries especially where the population is dominated by young people commonly referred to as youth bulges (Collier et al 2002, Miguel et al 2004, Urdal, 2012, Idris, 2016).

5.3 PSYCHOLOGICAL CHALLENGES AFFECTING UNEMPLOYED GRADUATES
The study results showed that unemployment causes graduates to encounter mental health challenges. The challenges identified by the respondents include: self-esteem, hopelessness, depression, isolation and alcohol and substance abuse which will be analyzed below:

5.3.1 Self esteem
The findings of the study revealed that staying unemployed for a long period affect the self-belief of graduates. The majority of the graduates indicated that they used to have great aspirations to penetrate the labour market and help their families, but with unemployment longevity the hope is now low. Similarly Jahoda (2004), stated that several studies show that most unemployed graduates are individuals with strong work ethics and orientation. Therefore, if a workaholic completes his studies at college or university with exceptional passes to find no job for a prolonged period is a dilemma too difficult to handle. A view further asserted by Edgell (2006) when he states that unemployed educated youths with strong work commitment develop stress and mental problems faster and this may lead to a reduction in their life span. It must be observed that low self-esteem further creates a sense of hopelessness in which the majority of the graduates had.

5.3.2 Depression
Many of the graduates 14/20 stated that depression is caused by seeing some age mates getting employed and progressing in life. Envy and jealous led to self-defeating thoughts and questioning of their self-worth. This is validated by Bronfennenbrenner’s ecological model. Bronfenbrenner (1979) defined a microsystem as the immediate environment in which a person is operating, such as the family, classroom, peer group, neighbourhood and it is in the microsystem that the most direct interactions with social agents take place. Therefore, graduates have direct interactions and exposure to age mates’ success which creates feelings of inadequacy and failure leading to depression.

Various studies show that unemployment affects male and females differently. In an analysis of cross-sectional and longitudinal data of the negative mental health effect of unemployment, Karsten (2005)
found males to be more distressed than females as a result of unemployment. However, the results of the study refutes these findings as both male and females respondents were observed to encounter depression as they had similar family instability, intimate partner relations, informal sector and underemployment challenges.

5.3.3 Isolation

The findings of the study showed that majority of the graduates have been isolated due to unemployment. The graduates reported to isolate themselves from working friends, family and community members because of fear being a financial burden when it comes to buying drinks and food at gatherings, parties and events. The graduates also reported discrimination by the community. Graduates spend their day idle making them prone to be stigmatized as community thieves. This concurs with the ecological model, isolation in the ecological model usually occurs at the micro system (individual level), mesosystem (family and friends level) and the exo system (community level) (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

However, Hammer (2000) found a link between social isolation, economic deprivation, unemployment, and mental health problems. Social integration may increase the individual’s ability to cope in a way that reduces mental health symptoms and prevents social exclusion. A view supported by the ecological model, where there is psychosocial support at the micro, meso, exo, macro and chrono systems the individual or organization operates efficiently (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

It must be observed the strong link between unemployment, isolation and suicidal ideation. Young et al (2011) investigated unemployed youths using a population based survey of 21-30 year olds living in Central Clyde side Conurbation, Scotland who self-harm. The findings of the study reveal that both past and current rates of self-harm were highest among those outside the labour market. This group was most likely to want to kill themselves and did not cite specialist mental health services as helpful in preventing self-harm. This becomes a red flag in the study as the majority of the graduates (12/20) were isolated and lacked psychosocial support from family, friends and the community.

5.3.4 Substance abuse

Alcohol and substance abuse has been credited to perpetuate a number of social ills such as domestic violence, risky sexual behaviours that spread HIV, violence, and crime (Morojele, Brook and Kachieng, 2006; Kalichman et al., 2007). The findings of the study indicated that many of the graduates in Bulawayo abused alcohol as a way of coping with the struggles and disappointments of unemployment.
In sub-Saharan Africa alcohol and substance abuse among the youth are commonly associated with risks for HIV and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs) (Kalichman, 2007). In contrast, the study report indicated that most of the graduates were single and had given up on establishing intimate partner relationships mainly because of the financial expectation incorporated in the unions. However, it must be noted that the study findings show a relationship between self-esteem, depression, isolation, and hopelessness. A majority of the respondents (18/20) reported to have battled with self-esteem, depression, isolation, substance abuse and hopelessness at some point.

5.4 MEASURES TO ASSIST UNEMPLOYED GRADUATES.
The graduates came up with suggestions for services that can be provided for the unemployed. The services include: job creation, services that target the mental health issues, scholarship programmes and government funds/loans for starting businesses.

5.4.1 Job creation
Most graduates expressed a need by the public and the private sector to create employment in different ministries. Similarly, Adato et al (2004:13) noted that the South African government launched the Public Works programme in order to control unemployment. The programme helped to relieve poverty by creating employment – both temporary and permanent, it helped to provide work experience and training to the chronically unemployed, making them more employable; it helped to build and maintain roads and facilities of value to poor communities and the local economy in poor areas, and it involved and helped to build the management capacity of local communities.

Some graduates suggested introduction of internship programme that would help with preparing them for work. This idea is supported by Ndahi (2009) who indicated that the Bahamas introduced a national job and skills training initiative that is focused on curbing youth unemployment. According to the Bahamas information services the programme is made up of three components: job readiness, job training, and general job placement. It allows young unemployed Bahamians an opportunity to acquire new skills and enhance existing skills to prepare them for the world of work. It is more designed to help them get jobs in tourism, financial services, and industrial trade since the economy of the country is dependent on those sectors. The programme lasts for 52 weeks as well and seeks to upgrade human resources.

In contrast, one of the responding suggested that if the government cannot employ all the graduates, it should try to bond the citizens with other neighboring countries. An initiative implemented by Cuba through the Cuban Medical Professional Parole (CMPP) Program of 2006. Under the CMPP Program,
doctors and other professionals in the health field, are sent by the Government of Cuba to work or study in third world countries such as the United States. The programme has benefitted the Cubans as approximately 650,000 of Havana’s residents in Cuba are estimated to receive some form of remittance from family or friends abroad (Diaz-Briquets 2009). From 1998-2008, approximately 185,000 Cubans participated in international missions, 37,000 in the year 2008 alone (Kirk et al 2009).

5.4.2 Services that target the mental health issues
A large number of the graduates were of a consensus that services that target the mental health issues of graduates should be established. This was after the observation that most of them reported to have battled with self-esteem, depression, isolation, substance abuse and hopelessness at some point. The proposed intervention was counselling services for unemployed graduates. According to the ecological model, the microsystem that is the individual level graduates suffer from mental health challenges such as depression, isolation, hopelessness which is further felt at meso system (family level) through isolation and exo system (community level) through hopelessness (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

5.4.3 Scholarship programmes
The findings of the study revealed that majority of the graduates would want to advance their education by pursuing their master’s degree but lack the financial backing. This is supported by the ecological model. According to Bronfenbrenner, (1979) a macrosystem refers to the larger cultural context, including issues of cultural values and expectations such as law, culture and economic system. Hence, failure by the country to provide for the graduates results in migration and seeking of greener pastures.

5.4.4 Government funds/loans for starting businesses
The majority of the interviewed graduates proposed that the government provide funds or loans so that they can start businesses. The promotion of self-employment is a measure that most developed and developing countries are using to reduce youth unemployment. Kelley et al (2010) define entrepreneurship as a source of providing income when economies cannot supply jobs that will generate salaries and wages and provide positive social value for its growing youth. The need to develop culture through entrepreneurship in developing countries not only as a means of job creation but also as a way of integrating entrepreneurial thinking and attitude into society that is not totally open to it is paramount (Mohanty, 2009).

Interestingly some graduates showed no interest in starting up their own businesses. A notion validated by Wang et al (2004), through a study of students in Singapore, he deduced that family business experience and educational level were major push factors in entrepreneurship. Most people who were self-employed
had a relative or a member of the family who is or was once self-employed and this prompted an interest in pursuing entrepreneurship from an early age. Other studies, such as those of Henderson et al (2000), Denanyoh, Adjei and Nyemekye (2015), show that family is a major factor in influencing a career choice of students especially in the field of self-employment. However, the same authors also indicate that the personal experience of students also plays a significant role in choosing self-employment.
CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Summary of findings

The main focus of the study was to interrogate the lived experiences of unemployed graduate youth in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. The objectives of the study were to examine the socio-economic factors affecting unemployed graduates, to assess the psychological challenges that affect unemployed graduates, and to explore measures that might assist unemployed graduates. The study questions were linked to the study objectives.

The study adopted a cross-sectional qualitative research approach. Data was collected using semi structured face to face in-depth interviews. A total of 20 unemployed graduate youth from the faculty of Social Sciences residing in Bulawayo were sampled. Graduates were drawn using purposive and snowball sampling methods, and data was analysed qualitatively.

The findings of the study revealed that unemployment had a negative socio-economic effect on graduate youth. Unemployment had an effect on the family stability, intimate partner relationships, the informal sector, underemployment, crime, and migration. Several psychological challenges affecting unemployed graduate youth were discussed. These include: mental health issues such as self-esteem, depression, hopelessness, isolation, and substance abuse. Based on the findings of the study it can be concluded that there is a strong relationship between graduate youth unemployment and mental health as most of the respondents stated that at some point they had suffered from depression, low self-esteem, hopelessness, isolation, and had resorted to substance abuse. Services and programmes to assist unemployed graduates were suggested. These include: job creation by the public and the private sector, counselling services that target the mental challenges of graduates, scholarship programmes to advance education, and provision of loans and funds to start businesses and thus create employment.

The theoretical framework that was applied to this study had a corrective position. The Bronfenbrenner ecological model examines human development by studying how human beings create the specific environments in which they live. Human beings develop according to their environment and this can include society as a whole and the period in which they live, which will impact behaviour and development (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). This tallies with unemployed graduates in Bulawayo. At the individual level (micro system) unemployed graduates experienced low self-esteem, depression, anxiety, hopelessness, and isolation due to inability to find work. This affected their families and friends (meso-system) resulting in family instability and failure to sustain intimate partner relationships due to poverty.
At the community level (exo-system) unemployed graduates were involved in the informal sector, underemployment, pursued further education, and engaged in substance abuse and organised crime. At the national level (macro system) unemployed graduates migrated to neighbouring countries to seek employment.

6.2 Conclusion
The dissertation has demonstrated that indeed unemployment has a negative impact on graduate youth in Bulawayo. From the study it can be concluded that unemployed graduate youth yearn to work for themselves either in the already established jobs such as the public, private sector or as entrepreneurs. The unemployed graduate youth are in serious need of support to survive. They is a need for unemployed graduate youth to be assisted as the recommendations will allude.

6.3 Recommendations
The following recommendations are drawn from the findings of the study. This phenomenon calls for a multifaceted approach:

6.3.1 Policy
- The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education should consider establishing a records database of all graduates in Zimbabwe. This will help track and monitor the development and progress of graduates after attaining tertiary education.
- The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary education must consider introducing compulsory entrepreneurship education at all Universities and colleges in Zimbabwe so as to enable graduates to be self-employed.
- The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education should consider establishing exportation of graduates programme. Graduates could be sent to countries where there is a shortage of skills and professionals in different fields. For example if there is a shortage of accountants in Malaysia, Zimbabwean graduates could be set to cover the lack of accountants in that country.
- The Ministry of Youth Development, Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment should provide extra curricula activities for unemployed graduates. These activities might include: weekly educational workshops on curriculum vitae development, work interview strategies, public speaking, and entrepreneurship skills.
➢ The Ministry of Youth Development, Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment should introduce an internship programme where graduates will be placed at public and private organisations so as to gain employment experience.

➢ The Ministry of Youth Development, Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment should consider offering grants and loans to graduates who want to start income cash generating businesses.

➢ The Ministry of Youth Development, Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment should offer financial support to the informal sector because most of the graduates are concentrated in there.

➢ The Ministry of Health and Child Care should establish counselling centres that deal with the mental challenges of the youth.

6.3.2 Practice

➢ Social workers in the public and private sector should offer counselling and therapy services to the unemployed graduate youth struggling with mental health problems.

➢ Social workers should facilitate support groups for unemployed graduates. These groups can be used to share ideas, problems and solutions for job creation. They can also be used to offer psychosocial support for graduates.

6.3.3 Research

➢ Future research should be conducted assessing the failing youth policies and programmes in Zimbabwe.

➢ It is recommended that research be done to explore possibilities for self-employment as a job creation for graduates in Zimbabwe.
References


Chiumia, S. (2014). *Is Zimbabwe's unemployment rate 4%, 60% or 95%? Why the data is unreliable.* Johannesburg: Africa check.


APPENDICES

Appendix 1

ORD No.

IRB/…….

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

**PROJECT TITLE:** The lived experiences of unemployed graduate youth: An empirical study in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe.

Principal Investigator: Mr M. Nyadza

Phone numbers : +267 76231384/ +263 773472648

Email : mbongeninyadza@gmail.com

What you should know about this research study:

- This informed consent document is for you to read about the purpose, risks, and benefits of this research study.
- You have the right to refuse to take part, or agree to take part now and change your mind later.
- Please review this consent form carefully. Ask any questions before you make a decision.
- Your participation is voluntary.
PURPOSE
You are being asked to participate in a research study of “The lived experiences of unemployed graduate youth: An empirical study in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe.” You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you play a pivotal role in providing the researcher with necessary information to achieve his research objectives. Before you sign this form, please ask any questions on any aspect of this study that is unclear to you. You may take as much time as necessary to think it over.

PROCEDURES AND DURATION
The researcher will inform the participants about the purpose of the study which is to investigate the socio-economic and psychological effects of unemployment among graduates in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. The participants will be told that the study is voluntary and they may answer all questions they want and also withdraw from the study if they wish to. The researcher will also give them a copy of the informed consent so that they can read it on their own. If you decide to participate in the interview you will be invited and asked to sign a copy of the informed certificate of consent form (see section 2, below). You will receive a copy of both the consent form and information sheet. The interview will take about an hour.

RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS
Before the study is conducted any foreseeable risks and benefits for the participants must be weighed. The researcher will tell the participants that some of the questions in the interview may be sensitive to them and they are allowed to skip them or answer them according to their free will. The study will be initiated and continued only if the risks and discomforts are ready to be dealt with. In the event that the study poses risks to the participants, such as endangering the emotional health of participants, the researcher will offer counselling to the participants if they are harmed as a qualified social worker.

BENEFITS AND/OR COMPENSATION
The participants will be duly acknowledged in the write up and also after their interview. Due to limited resources it is unfortunate that the participants will not be compensated for their participation rather their participation will be greatly appreciated. The participants will benefit in the sense that future services and interventions or even policy amendments may be implemented that assist the unemployed graduates. The study might be of great benefit to the ministry of youth, indigenisation and economic empowerment in
Zimbabwe which aims at ensuring an economic empowered nation. It must be noted that the findings of this study may help in coming up with recommendations for sustainable programs for graduates. The study results are likely to assist the public and private sector on job creation strategies for graduates. The study might help the government to come up with sustainable programmes and policies which support unemployed graduates

**CONFIDENTIALITY**

The data from this investigation will be kept confidential. None of the data will be used for commercial use. One of the critical principles in social work is confidentiality. Therefore, when conducting the study the researcher will take into consideration the right to privacy of the participants by conducting the interviews in a quiet and secluded environment. This will allow the researcher and participant to confide with each other without any disturbances. The researcher will not seek private information from the participants if it is not crucial for the research. Also, the researcher will not take the clients photographs without consent and display them in a bad manner instead he will notify the participants and seek for their consent about the release of the private information and the possible outcomes before the release is made. On the other hand the researcher will protect the participant’s confidentiality when responding to requests from members of the media, on written and electronic records and other sensitive information, the participant’s record will be stored in a secure location, and these records will not be retrieved to people who are not authorized to have access. The interview guides, recordings of the interviews will be kept in a safe and destroyed after 5 years.

**VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION**

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may choose not to participate in the in-depth interviews if you do not wish to do so. You may also choose to stop participating at any time during the interview. Withdrawal from the interview at any time will not have any negative effect. Participation is completely voluntary, and your decision to participate will not have any impact on your professional role or responsibilities. If you agree to participate in the interview you will be asked to sign a copy of the informed certificate of consent form (see section 2, below). You will receive a copy of both the consent form and information sheet. No consequences from the study will occur based on participation or non-participation in the in-depth interview.
You are making a decision whether or not to participate in this study. Your signature indicates that you have read and understood the information provided above, have had all your questions answered, and have decided to participate.

__________________________________________  __________
Name of Research Participant (please print)  Date

__________________________________________
Signature of Participant or representative

__________________________________________
Relationship to the Participant

__________________________________________  ______________________
Signature of Witness  Signature of Staff Obtaining Consent

(Optional)

YOU WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS CONSENT FORM TO KEEP.

If you have any questions concerning this study or consent form beyond those answered by the investigator, including questions about the research, your rights as a research participant; or if you feel that you have been treated unfairly and would like to talk to someone other than a member of the research team, please feel free to contact the Office of Research and Development, University of Botswana, Phone: Ms Dimpho Njadingwe on 355-2900, E-mail: research@mopipi.ub.bw, Telefax: [0267] 395-7573.
Appendix 2

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE UNEMPLOYED GRADUATES

INTRODUCTION
My name is Mbongeni Nyadza, a Master of Social work student. I am conducting a study on the lived experiences of unemployed graduate youth: An empirical study in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. I am therefore requesting you to participate in this study. I wish to thank you very much for sacrificing your time and energy to respond to this request. May you kindly share as much as you can so that the issues of concern may be recognized and hopefully addressed. The data collected and related information will be handled in confidence. No names will be attached to the results of this study. Your feedback will be most helpful. Thank you in advance for your time and energy.


A. Demographic profile
How old are you?
Sex of the respondent?
What is your marital status?
How many children do you have?
What year did you graduate at college or university?
Which faculty?
How long have you been unemployed?

B. The Socio-economic factors affecting unemployed graduates

Individual, family, community, national, regional

1. Share with me your aspirations in life?

2. Now let’s talk about youth unemployment, how has it affected you personally?
3. Now let us talk about the positive aspects, share any?

4. Share with me how youth unemployment affected your family?

5. Share with me how youth unemployment affected your intimate partner relationships?

6. What are some of the ways in which graduates cope with unemployment in Bulawayo?

7. In your view, does graduate unemployment affect the country, region and continent (share in what ways)

C. The Psychological challenges affecting unemployed graduates.

8. In your view, does youth unemployment affect the mental health of graduates?

9. If yes, please share with me in what ways as we look at the following health issues
   a) Suicide ideation
   b) Self esteem
   c) Depression
   d) Anxiety
   e) Hopelessness
   f) Substance abuse
   g) Isolation

10. Looking back at your personal life, how have you been affected by these?

D. Measures that can assist unemployed graduates,

11. Do you know of any services and programs provided for the unemployed graduates in Bulawayo?

12. If yes, may you please explain on how these programs or services are assisting you?

13. In your own opinion what types of services or programs should be provided for the unemployed graduates in general?

15. Do you have anything else you would want to add?