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The Journal of Issues and Practice in Education (JIPE) is a refereed journal produced by the Faculty of Education of the Open University of Tanzania. It is published twice a year that is June and December. The journal is designed to inform both academics and the public on issues and practice related to the field of education.

The journal provides academics with a forum to share experiences and knowledge. It also informs the public about issues pertinent to their day to day educational experiences. Sharing information related to education is important not only for academic, professional and career development but also for informed policy makers and community activity in matters pertaining to the field of education.

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A Quest for Quality Examination Management and Processes in African Higher Education: The case of the Open University of Tanzania (OUT)

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Abstract

Using the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) as the case study, this paper focuses on how examination management and processes could contribute to a quality higher education in Tanzania. The paper is based on critical review of relevant literature including OUT examinations operational documents to examine examination management processes, highlight the challenges which hinder the attainment of quality, and suggests ways towards quality examination management and processes by focussing on examination aspects of: *standard* (setting, content, and steps), *objectives* (course objectives, education aims and individual), *management* and *utility* (how useful is the examination). This paper draws on the quality service model by Gronroos (1990) as its theoretical lens in which quality of service delivery is said to be a function of customer service satisfaction. It has been seen that the quality of examination may be affected by a number of factors including; unclear directions and inadequate consideration of Bloom's taxonomy. The paper argues that the management of examinations and its processes, including the assessment of students in Tanzanian higher education institutions is problematic and that aspects of standard, objectives, management and utility of examinations need improving to contribute to quality higher education in Tanzania.

Key concepts: Open University of Tanzania, examination management, African Higher Education, Quality

Introduction

While quality mechanisms are clearly set up in the Tanzanian higher education (Manyanga 2008), examination management and processes still require more attention in order to contribute to a quality higher education in Tanzania and eventually in Africa. In Africa, there have been a general concern on the lowering of quality in higher education (see Materu, 2007) and, while there are many facets to it, the quality of examination management and processes within the universities contributes to the lowering of quality. It is however, surprising that quality mechanisms seem to take little interest in examinations when engaging with quality in higher education. Given the challenges related to examinations at the Open University of Tanzania (OUT), this paper focuses on how examination management and processes could contribute to a quality higher education in Tanzania. The paper highlights the challenges, which hinder the attainment of quality, and suggests ways towards quality examination management and processes by focussing on examination aspects of: *standard* (setting, content, and steps), *objectives* (course objectives, education aims and individual), *management* and *utility* (how useful is the examination). The paper argues that the management of examinations and its processes, including the assessment of students in Tanzanian higher education institutions is problematic and that aspects of standard, objectives, management and utility of examinations need improving to contribute to quality higher education in Tanzania.

Tanzania, as elsewhere in the world has been striving to achieve quality education through higher education institutions for national development (Manyanga 2008). Through its development vision 2025 statement (Government of the United Republic of Tanzania, 1999, p.5), Tanzania has declared its desire to have a "*nation with high level of education at all levels; a nation which produces the quantity and quality of educated people sufficiently equipped with the requisite knowledge to solve the society's problems, meet the challenges of development and attain competitiveness at regional and global levels*".The desire to have quality education is also noted by Machumu and Kisanga (2014) who argue that higher education institutions contribute to national development by producing highly skilled personnel in technology, teaching, medicine, law, engineering and management. Higher education institutions also produce academic personnel who through scientific research generate new knowledge and innovation to solve development problems (Faganel & Dolinšek, 2012; Ekundayo & Adedokun, 2009 in Machumu & Kisanga, 2014). Also as noted by Materu (2007, p. 29 quoting Bloom et al., 2006), "for developing countries, higher education can play a key 'catch-up' role in accelerating the rate of growth towards a county's productivity potential". Higher education institutions in Africa therefore are expected to take a driving seat in the African development agenda starting with the nations in which they belong. The quality of examinations in preparing African graduates should be of high quality and contribute to a quality African higher education that could eventually positively impact the development of the continent.

As noted by Machumu and Kisanga (2014), higher education institutions in Tanzania, just as in Africa as a whole, have been striving to achieve quality through quality assurance strategies and practices. One of the areas to which

higher institutions in Tanzania have directed their efforts to examination management and processes. The rationale for this move lies in the observation by some educationists, among them Sifuna and Sawamura (2010) that the best indicator of high quality education is high scores on examinations that are rigorously constructed. Passing well managed and constructed examinations could justify acquirement of a quality university education and the vice versa. Kitila (2013) for instance, in his research, showed that some of the graduates of the Tanzanian higher education institutions lacked competencies, failed to compete in the labour market and could not create self-employment, despite passing their final examinations. This means that to achieve a quality higher education in Tanzania universities, the rigour of examination management and processes needs to be analysed. Thus, the first indicator of the university quality output hinges on well-managed and crafted university examinations that connote quality of the assessment of knowledge, skills and intelligence acquired by learners (Osindeinde, 2000). Thus higher education institutions such as the OUT, should attend to the process (how examinations are composed and managed) to the destination (the quality of its products, the graduates).

This paper is organised in four sections. It opens with the introduction that provides the context of the arguments and background information. The second section provides the theoretical framework lens while the third reviews literature, which serves as the benchmark for a critical review of the state of the matter regarding the Tanzanian experience of examination quality. The fourth section draws conclusions.

Theoretical framework: The quality service model of Gronros

To analyse the quality of examination management and processes in the Tanzanian higher education institutions, this paper draws on the quality service model by Gronroos (1990) as its theoretical lens in which quality of service delivery is said to be a function of customer service satisfaction. The Gronroos model consists of three dimensions, the *technical quality* (outcome), the *functional quality* (process) and the *image quality* (Gi-Du Kang and James 2004). This model was basically designed be used in the field of marketing. Although the quality service model is mainly used in the field of marketing in assessing the service delivery processes, it is equally useful in analysing the quality of examination management and processes within the higher education sector in Tanzania given that the sector is also of a service nature. The dimensions of the quality service model are modified to suit quality dimensions discussed in this paper, whereby the *technical* aligns with *objectives of examinations and their outcomes,* the *functional* with *standards* and the *management processes of the examinations*, and the image with the *utility of the examinations*. The study specifically utilises experiences of examination management and processes at the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) as a case study.

The concept of quality

Quality is a multi-dimensional concept, whose meaning cannot be summarised in a single definition. Crosby (1979) defines quality as "*conformance to requirements*", suggesting that there must exist a set of requirements to which something of quality should conform to those requirements and anything that does not conform is considered a defect. Juran (1998) defines quality as "*fitness for use*". The users, their requirements and expectations on the product and their use of it are taken

into account. According to Juran (1998), since different users may use the product in different ways, the product must possess multiple elements of fitness of use.

Moreover, stakeholders in different fields perceive quality differently owing to the orientation of their professional engagement. For example, what is the value of quality in the manufacturing sector may not be the same in the social sector or in the commercial sector (Lagrosen and Lagrosen, 2003). This is why Lagrosen, Seyyed-Hashemi and Leitner (2004) advise that in understanding quality and its management, it is vital to study the meaning of quality in the situation that is under study. In the higher education context, quality may be defined along Materu's (2007) line that, it implies a relative measure of inputs, processes, outputs or learning outcomes. Further, that, institutions, funders, and the public need some methods for obtaining assurance that the institutions are keeping their promises to stakeholders. Quality then could be perceived as meeting or conforming to generally accepted standards as defined by an institution, quality assurance bodies and appropriate academic and professional communities (Materu 2007). The understanding of quality advanced in this paper is related to examination management and processes that could improve or contribute to quality within the Tanzanian and/or African context in which OUT operates.

The need for quality

It is noted that currently, there is a growing demand for quality from educationists, the general public, education funders and all beneficiaries of higher education institutions (Manyanga, 2008). According to Materu (2007) the demand for quality has come about as the direct consequence of the operational of several forces which, local and global, are shaping economic, social and technological landscapes. For instance, education is not just a

service but an economic enterprise which contributes to countries GDPs (Lagrosen, Seyyed-Hashemi and Leitner (2004).). In Australia, tuition fees contribute more than US$4 billion annually to GDP, surpassing the earnings of the country's main agricultural products (wool and wheat) (Materu, 2007).Since the late 1980s, the global market for tertiary education has been growing at an average rate of 7 percent per annum (Materu, 2007).Global annual spending on tertiary education amounts to about US$300 billion or 1 percent of global economic output (Materu, 2007). So far, the private sector has committed itself to providing higher education. There are more private institutions than public ones. For example, in South Korea about 77 percent of tertiary education is privately funded (Chan, 2007). In Tanzania, from 1961 the number of higher learning institutions increased from one public institutions to 200 by 2006 (Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology 2007). Out of 200 institutions 198 are privately owned.

Unfortunately to the public, doubts are cast on private institutions regarding the quality of the education they offer (Lagroses and Lagrosen 2003). The thinking is that they are profit oriented and that they may sacrifice quality for money. So far, the increase of public participation following the growing of participatory democracy and transparency has increased pressure on higher education providers to focus on quality (Sifuna and Sawamura, 2010). Moreover, higher education institutions are to compete for funding, qualified members of staff and students to enroll. Thus, for them to survive, going for quality is not an option but a necessity. Examinations, which as noted could ensure the quality input during enrollment and output upon graduation, should be of quality to portray a good image of institutions and enable them survive competition and criticism from interested parties.

Quality control

The European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ENQA) (2009, p. 30) outlines important measures to ensure quality control in higher education, they include:

(a) Policy and procedures for quality assurance: According to (ENQA) (2009), higher education institutions need to have a policy and associated procedures for the assurance of the quality and standards of their programs and awards. They should also commit themselves explicitly to the development of a culture which recognizes the importance of quality and quality assurance, in their teaching, research and consultancy.

(b) There should be an approval, monitoring and periodic review of programmes and awards: universities and other relevant institutions should have formal mechanisms for the approval, periodic review and monitoring of their programmes and awards.

(c)Assessment of students: Students should be assessed using published criteria, regulations and procedures which are applied consistently. According to (ENQA) (2009), standardised examinations may be one of students' assessment methods.

(d) Quality assurance of teaching staff: Institutions should have ways of satisfying themselves that staff involved with the teaching of students is qualified and competent to do so. They should be available to those undertaking external reviews, assessments and commented upon in reports for immediate decisions.

(e) Availability of instructional resources and student support services: higher education institutions should ensure that the resources available for

the support of student learning are adequate and appropriate for each programme offered.

(f) Information systems: Institutions should ensure that they collect, analyse and use relevant information for the effective management of their programmes of study and other activities. This may also include having in place marketing strategy of institutional programmes to attract as many applicants as possible.

(g) Public information: Higher education institutions should regularly publish up to date, impartial and objective information regarding the programmes and awards they are offering. This information may be in both qualitative and quantitative forms.

Considering these European based internal higher education quality standards guidelines, it appears logical to comment that besides universities globally to focus on quality in education provision, there must be some basic guidelines in place that are used as frameworks to guide the planning, provision and management of higher education for the realisation of quality practices. Students' assessment has also been seen to be one of the important considerations in the provision of quality education especially in higher education institutions. Examinations in higher education institutions are used as means for certification, employment selection and further educational advancement need to be effective enough to produce a well educated graduate who is cognitively, affectively and psychomotor competent (ENQA, 2009) – a graduate who is able to make sound decisions reflective of multiple options and contextual based. Apart from standards for internal quality assurance procedures, the ENQA (2009, p. 20) also presents some standards for the external quality assurance of higher education. They include:

(a) Use of internal quality assurance procedures: External quality assurance procedures should take into account the effectiveness of the internal quality assurance processes described herein.

(b) Development of external quality assurance processes whose aims and objectives should be determined before the processes themselves are developed, by all those responsible stakeholders including higher education institutions and should be published with a description of the procedures to be used.

(c) Criteria for decisions: Any formal decisions made as a result of an external quality assurance activity should be based on explicit published criteria that are applied consistently across institutions.

(d) Processes for purpose: All external quality assurance processes should be designed specifically to ensure they are good enough to achieve the aims and objectives set for them.

(f) Reporting: Reports should be published and should be written in a style, which is clear and readily accessible to its intended readership. Any decisions, commendations or recommendations contained in reports should be easy for a reader to locate..

(g) Follow-up procedures: Quality assurance processes which contain recommendations for action or which require a subsequent action plan, should have a predetermined follow-up procedure which is implemented consistently.

(h) Periodic reviews: External quality assurance of institutions and/or programmes should be undertaken on a cyclical basis. The length of the cycle and the review procedures to be used should be clearly defined on the

basis of a particular institutional activity at a particular time such as during examinations sessions and published in advance.

(g) System-wide analyses: Quality assurance agencies should produce from time to time summary reports describing and analysing the general findings of their reviews, evaluations, assessments, etc. findings should be shared in a formal meetings and/or workshops to allow further reflections and discussion.

Quality dimensions in examinations

As already noted, quality has many dimensions in higher education. As there are different stakeholders from different departments in higher education sector, so are different dimensions of quality (Lagrosen et al., 2004). Examinations too have different quality perceptions. For example, students may regard a quality examination as that which does not frustrate their expectations or that which does not betray their efforts (Kitila 2013). To invigilators, a quality examination could be that which is easy to invigilate, whose instructions are clear, time is well allocated and does not task the invigilator to elaborate (Lagrosen et al., 2004). To administrators, a quality examination could be that which abides by the principles and procedures set to manage examinations (Kitila 2013). To academicians, quality examination could be that which conforms to the academic goals in terms of objectives, processes and outcomes (Kitila, 2013).

Therefore, an inquiry as to what is a quality examination should bear this diversity in perspective regarding the matter since a quality examination to a student may be of poor quality to examination assessors. In this chapter, quality examination management and processes are perceived as meeting

four aspects namely; *standard* (for example, adherence to Blooms taxonomy of classification in constructing examination items); the *course's objectives* (as well as individual student's and/ or national aims of education); *management* (proper supervision of examination by adhering to pre-set rules, regulations and general practices as set by a given institutions); and *utility* (the applicability and relevance of the assessment process through examinations).

Constructing examinations and the OUT case

The construction of good examination items is a science and an art. The skills it requires are the same as those found in effective teaching: There should be a thorough grasp of the subject matter; a psychological understanding of students/learners; persistence (perseverance, determination, diligence and pushiness);a touch of creativity, a clear conception of the desired learning objectives (as derived from Bloom's Taxonomy) (Mtitu 2014).The construction of quality examination items is highly facilitated by the use of a table of specifications(see Mtitu, 2014). Unfortunately, many scholars use their academic competencies and experience to construct examination items with no reference to the table of specification. As a result, the items constructed are not reflective to taxonomies of learning such as Blooms taxonomy, (which requires examinations items to consider among others, the five levels of cognitive domains including knowledge, comprehension, application, synthesis and evaluation (Kitta, 2004) or the SOLO taxonomy, (Structure of the Observed Learning Outcomes), which focuses on general intellectual development (Biggs and Collis 2014) . Many of the university lecturers do not have teaching professionalism they are just academicians. This is contrary to the tenets of teaching which require that teachers need to go through quality pre-service and in-service teacher

education to understand and apply different pedagogical principles in their classrooms (Livingston et al., 2017).

At the OUT for example, of the total 304 teaching staff, only 20%, which is 61 teaching staff have received pre- service training on pedagogy (OUT Facts and Figures, 2017/18). They are teachers by profession. The rest (243) which is 80% of the entire teaching staff have not undergone pre- teaching training thus, are not teachers by profession. So far, only 20% of those who have no training on teaching (48) had attended in-service training in forms of short courses (OUT Facts and Figures, 2017/18). According to Livinston et al. (2017) without professional training one cannot find it easy to handle teaching and assessment matters among them, setting a quality exam. Lack of professional lecturers in teaching and learning has been adversely impact The OUT especially on examination preparation processes and management (Directorate of Examinations Syndicate (DQAC), 2017).

It is for this reason, university examination items do differ from subject to subject due to differences in the pedagogical and especially assessment techniques and skills. One can argue that, for quality examination items at higher education institutions, lecturers should be provided with periodical training about pedagogical aspects especially construction of examinations items. By so doing, examinations will be prepared to the qualities they deserve and thus facilitate the so called authentic assessment i.e. assessment which is comprehensive and inclusive by nature. It assesses learners in all levels of learning domains hence attainment of reliability and validity.

Classification of examinations and examination items

Examinations can be classified according to: the purpose they serve (for example, selection, placement, certification, and promotion); the way test

items are answered (for example supplying, selecting or filling in the blanks); the learning outcomes they measure (higher order thinking skills or lower order thinking skills) and the way they are administered (to individuals or groups) (Kitila, 2013).

For the purposes of assessment, according to Kitila (2013) most examinations fall into two general categories: Selection-type: those in which students select the correct response and supply type: those in which students must formulate their own answers. The cognitive capabilities required to answer selection items are different from those required by supply items, regardless of the content. Selection item types include: true false; matching and multiple choice while supply item types include: short answer items; completion items and essay items (Kitila, 2013). At the OUT however, the supply items are the most common examinations type which aim at assessing learners' acquisition of learning competencies of the subject matter including ability to demonstrate, use or apply, relate the learned aspects with other knowledge segments across disciplines (DQAC, 2017). In essence, classroom assessment at OUT just like in any other universities globally would (DQAC, 2017) requires a student to engage in higher order thinking to share his or her conception and understanding of the phenomenon taught. During this student's reflection of the phenomenon, the student gets chance to apply and connect different theories discussed in the classroom into real life context (Freire, 1973).

Factors that can affect the quality of examination

The quality of examination may be affected by a number of factors. Among these are; unclear directions whereby a candidate is not well instructed regarding the task and how to go about it, reading vocabulary and sentence structure too difficult to grasp the meaning (this blocks the communication

between the examiner and a candidate as such the candidate does not know what is required of him/her); Overemphasis of easy-to-assess aspects of domain at the expense of important but difficult-to-assess aspects (construct underrepresentation) (this cannot give a real picture of a candidate's masterly of what is being assessed); poorly constructed test items which are ambiguous, inappropriate for the outcomes being measured (Kafanabo 2006)). Other factors include; inadequate time limit, test too short, improper arrangement of items and identifiable pattern of answers (Kafanabo 2006). This informs university lecturers to ensure that the examinations they compose are of quality i.e. they are considerate of the many factors which may obstruct examinations' quality (Lagrosens *et al*. 2004).

Unfortunately however, constructing examinations has not been an easy task due to a number of factors (Livinston et al. 2017). First of all, not all lecturers are skilled in setting examinations. Examination setting and general management is a kill taught in Tanzania in education courses. This means it is only those lecturers who have education background that have skills required to compose examination items and administer them to the required standards. As the case of OUT shows in the discussion above, the number of members of academic staff with pedagogical skills is very few (61) which is only 20% of the entire academic staff (304) (Facts and Figures 2017/18).

According to a study by Andrew (2014) about administration of examinations in higher learning institutions in Tanzania, out of eighty two (82) examinations cheating cases, fifty five (55) of them involved lecturers found to assist students in writing examinations. When the scrutiny was undertaken, it was unfortunate to learn that fifty (50) out of fifty five (55) cases equals to 90 % were cases that involved lecturers who did not have pedagogical professionalism, they were just academicians specialised in

particular disciplines. Although no particular study has been conducted regarding the relationship between lack of pedagogical competence and dishonest in examination at OUT, it can be logical to posit that while academicians with teaching professionalism have developed in them educational ethics, those without pedagogical content knowledge have not. As a result they seem not to understand the impact of examinations cheating to themselves and particularly to students' learning. This may logically mean that mastery of both subject content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge is a critical requirement for any academician as it improves one's academic integrity and general ethics and standards in education (Anangisye, 2012). Nevertheless, a large number of lectures are employed based on their academic performance in their specialities of which education may not be the one (See Facts and Figures, 2017/18). Their best performance in undergraduate or post graduate as per the set recruitment criteria qualifies them to teach in higher learning institutions without undergoing any pedagogical training. As it is emphasised by Lagrosens *et al.* (2004) "*pre-service and in-service teacher education needs to be strengthened to support teachers' ongoing learning"* by equipping them with skills and knowledge to handle teaching and assessment in a technical and professional manner. The in-service pedagogical training to university academics have proved significant especially to those lecturers without teacher education background. The trained academics in pedagogy have proved to be competent not only in teaching, but also in examination processes and management as compared to those without training in pedagogy (Katarina, 2016).

Quality control in higher education, Tanzanian experience

While quality aspects from external control are applicable in African higher education, Ngunya (2017) establishes the need for internally based quality control and assurance agencies within the country, for example Commission for Universities (TCU) for the Tanzanian case. The TCU was formed following the increase of higher education institutions in Tanzania in both public and private sector, to oversee higher education institutions (Nkunya, 2009). Prior to the formation of TCU, each higher learning institution was under a specific governing body. The TCU is the statutory and regulatory organ established in 2005 by the Tanzanian Government to oversee and regulate university education in Tanzania (Nkunya, 2009). Before any university can start to operate, it needs to apply to TCU for recognition, approval and accreditation. This means that the TCU has in place quality assurance and control frameworks, which universities must comply for their legal operations. The main functions of the TCU include provision of guidelines on how universities should teaching; research and make consultancy effectively and efficiently (Nkunya, 2009). In term of quality, TCU guides higher learning institutions, right from establishing new courses, which should be tailored according to the society needs and those of the students (references). That means the objectives of the course, content, and mode of delivery and how it is assessed should be verified by TCU. However, TCU's guidelines on quality assurance limit themselves to programmes and course content rather than the output. The organ has no mechanism to track the performance of graduates once they are out to serve the society. As the result it becomes difficulty to relate students' examination performance and their input in the society where they serve. Unlike TCU, OUT undertakes periodical tracer studies to ascertain its graduate's employability and the quality of their work performance, the results of which

are used to improve on various aspects of the university curriculum including examination processes and management (OUT SAR, 2017).

So far, as noted by Materu (2007) quality assurance and control bodies meet the challenge of cost in fulfilling their duties. This is because accreditation is costly and involves large numbers of people and complex logistics. For universities with many programs, these costs could be unbearable if the exercise is to be done with quality. TCU charges the institutions for the accreditation services. That means, if the institutions are not well financially, it may affect their budgets and consequently their ability to discharge their duties. Thus, the quality of their programmes may be compromised which may result into watering down the quality of the examination.

According to Ngunya (2017), apart from programmes evaluation by the quality assurance agencies, students' assessment of their learning is crucial in ascertaining as to whether or not the universities missions and vision statements are effectively met., Universities in Tanzania, are required to ensure quality by adhering to internal and external quality controlling bodies (TCU, 2018). Regarding to examination processes and management OUT adheres to TCU guidelines through the use of external examiners, self-evaluation and academic audits which are the most common forms of quality assurance processes. Moreover, there are quality control bodies such as examination departmental organs made up of course experts within a particular department. This moderates examination questions to meet the specified objectives and standards before questions are sent to external examiners as the independent eye outside the University for Examination

Quality Assurance. Then there is quality assurance entity at a given faculty or school which ensures examination quality as per given university standards. At the University level, OUT has an independent directorate of quality assurance and control (DQAC) which is mandated to oversee the university operations on its entirety including examination processes and management (OUT SAR, 2017).

Quality assurance by the mentioned bodies is mainly focused on checking whether the set standards are adhered to. However, for these set standards to be meaningful, they should also ensure that the output (graduates) is of quality too. Otherwise the examinations which mark their graduation will be questioned. Assessing the output, (Kitila, 2013) observes that most of the graduates in Tanzania are incompetent, not creative and cannot compete in the competitive labour market. This is an indication that quality assurance regarding examinations in the higher learning institutions is far from being at the level; one would want it to be. This observation is in line with the experience from Ethiopia that,

> One of the major problems of African education is not as most think–universality; rather it is quality which is the problem. Africa needs thinkers, scientists, researchers, real educators who can potentially contribute to societal development. Most donors define African education success in terms of how many students are being graduated and how many students are in school. The quantity issue is of course one thing that should be addressed, but it shouldn't be the whole mark of any education intervention in Africa. How an African resource could be better utilized by an African child for an African development should be the issue (Materu, 2007, p. 30).

Quality assurance in examinations as it is the case in general quality in higher learning institutions faces a number of challenges, which in turn

compromise or threaten quality. According to Materu (2007) Challenges to quality include (i) insufficient numbers of adequately trained and credible professional staff at the agencies to manage QA processes with integrity and consistency across institutions/programs and over time; (ii) inadequate numbers of academic staff in higher learning institutions with knowledge and experience in conducting self-evaluations and peer review.

Thus the concern of quality issues in higher education should not be limited on the numbers of those who get enrolled or who graduate from higher learning institutions but rather on the significant contribution by graduates to the development agenda for themselves and the nation. It is against this background that every after five years, OUT conducts tracer studies to determine the quality of its graduates so that it may use that experience to maintain quality regarding processing and managing examinations (SAR,2017).

The Open University of Tanzania operates through a well established network of 32 established regional centres country wide. It also operates its activities in some centres abroad especially East Africa (SAR, 2017). The OUT is the first University in the whole of the East African region to offer educational programs through blended mode which include: Open and Distance Learning (ODL), Face to Face learning and the Online learning modes (SAR, 2017; RSP, 2018/19). Thus, the OUT is an ODL government institution with the mission of providing quality and affordable education for all aiming at meeting the needs of the disadvantaged as well as second chance learners (Bisanda, 2017), who for various reasons are not able to learn through the conventional system. OUT falls in the categories which according to UNESCO (2005) follows an approach that aims to broaden

access to education and training by enabling learners to overcome temporal and spatial obstacles and by providing flexible teaching modes that can be adapted for individuals and groups. In order to ensure the university produces competent professionals across fields of specializations, students' assessment through examinations has been placed at the centre of quality compliance in its service delivery. Relevant mechanisms have been put in place to ensure examinations management and processes are of high quality they deserve (SAR, 2017).

Ensuring quality of examinations management and processes in particular and delivery of high quality services in general, in its operations, OUT is guided by different qualifications frameworks and tools such as the Interuniversity Council for East Africa (IUCEA) qualification frame works, the Tanzania Commission for universities (TCU) guidelines, the African Council for Distance Education (ACDE) Quality Assurance Policy Framework (2016) and the OUT Clients' Service Charter of 2010 and periodic rolling strategic plans (RSPs) (RSP, 2018/2019). It is also guided by OUT Charter and Rules of 2007, quality assurance and control policy, Risk identification and management policy as well as other relevant human resources and ICT policies (RSP, 2018/2019).. The OUT through its vision and mission is committed to providing quality and affordable teaching, learning and community services (ibid). The aim is not only to increase access and thus enrolment but also to ensure the education provided is competitive in the world market by ensuring among others, there exists a high quality level in examinations management and processes (SAR, 2017), consequently producing highly competent professionals across faculties and institutes under minimal risks.

This means that customer services satisfaction with OUT operation is largely dependent on quality and quantity of infrastructure at a particular regional centre as well as adequacy of staff and teaching and learning facilities (SAR, 2017). Other customer services satisfaction would depend on the improved services delivery, well established management systems at regional centres, the OUT image to the community as corporate organisation as well as the OUT admission and completion flexibility, which differs from those features in conventional universities. If not well planned, these OUT operational standards may impose limits, risks and threats, which may limit proper, effective and efficient operations of the university, particularly examinations management and processes (SAR, 2017). In order to ensure the OUT continually provides high quality examinations management and processes (ibid), it has put in place some mechanisms to regularly monitor the quality of services provided whereas examinations management and processes being inclusive. The OUT has established an independent Directorate of Examinations Syndicate (DES) solely responsible for examinations management and processes. On top, the university has the Directorate of Quality Assurance and Control (DQAC) which is mandated to oversee the quality of examinations and The OUT operation compliance to quality features in general (SAR, 2017).

Examinations' management at OUT

Examination management is one of the quality assurance and control mechanisms through which learners' instructional assessment and general university examinations practice is determined (SAR, 2017). Students' academic assessment at OUT involves a number of aspects/activities of which an individual learner MUST adhere too. Students' assessment procedures include:

- Attendance in face to face sessions,
- Doing either online assignments or main timed test once per every academic year,
- Engagement in field or science practicals and/or Teaching Practice of (TP) up to six (6) weeks,
- Writing annual examinations in every academic year, and
- Engaging in educational related research mainly for graduate candidates (SAR, 2017).

All these instructional activities form core aspects in students' examination processes and thus they are managed and provided adhering to quality parameters of examinations management and processes as guided by different qualifications frameworks and policies (SAR, 2017)

Attendance in face to face sessions

OUT has put in place a period of up to two weeks for each academic year whereby students in regional centres meet with their lecturers to discuss academic matters of concern (SAR, 2017). Traditionally, students are provided with reading modules for each subject in the programme and are instructed to identify areas of difficulties to be presented to the respective heads of departments across faculties and institutes for lecturers to prepare answers and/or solutions. During face to face session which is held two weeks before commencement of main timed tests (MTTs) and annual examinations (AEs), respective academicians from the headquarter and the regional centres discuss with students all difficulty areas and those instructional topics academicians would propose to be facilitated in preparation of students for the coming MTTs and AEs (SAR, 2017). It is

during this period when students' instructional portfolios are evaluated to see among other aspects how prepared are the students for the coming examinations and also to assess areas students have mastered and instructional difficulties students have been facing per each subject and their propositions for future improvements (ibid). After the lecturer is satisfied with the student's portfolio, the student is granted with examination hall ticket, which will allow him/her to writing examinations i.e. MTTs and AEs.

Assuring the quality of distance learning and new modes of delivery remain a challenge to OUT (DQAC, 2017). While effective face to face practices requires effective and efficient interaction between students and lecturers and among students themselves (DQAC, 2017), it has been noted that rarely do lecturers and students communicate and/or interact during semester period. They only do so during the actual face to face session where students' main concern is to let their portfolios signed off and cleared for annual examinations. Many complains (Rwejuna, 2016) have been directed to insufficient ICT knowledge to both lecturers and students and more critical is the prevalence of unstable internet connectivity across regional centres Although there is e-learning, ICT-facilitated cross-border provision of higher education have not been adequately factored into existing quality assurance systems. In most of the centres internet is either not available or the connectivity is poor. This makes it a challenge for delivery or examination administration. This observation is line with Materu's (2007) observation. One can thus make significant challenge that unless ICT services are improved as well as internet services is made available and stable the conduct of high quality face to face and general examinations processes and management will remain ruined and compromised. This means that quality sustenance of examination management practice at OUT will depend on

among other factors, the stable internet availability across its regional and coordination centres.

Engagement in field/science practicals and/or Teaching Practice

OUT students are expected to complete their studies in three up to eight years (3-8) years for undergraduates and from two years up to five and six years for Masters and Doctor of philosophy respectively (SAR, 2017). During this period, each student is expected to undertake a field practical or teaching practice in order to experience real life career, academic and professional practice. Lecturers and school management team will regularly audit the students and assign open grades in the respective student to indicate A, B, C, D, E and F. (ibid)

For teaching practice for example, each student teacher is supposed to have 6 assessments in total whereas he/she gets 3 assessments during the 2nd year and the remaining 3 assessments during the 3rd year (SAR, 2017). This is different from a post graduate diploma student especially in education whose programme ends in a year and thus the student teaching practice requirements is three (3) assessments in total. For Masters in Education students, their field work begins with the development of research proposal followed by data collection then dissertation writing under the supervision of one PhD and above supervisor who upon his/her satisfaction of the proposal and thus the report he/she sign off for field work and external examinations respectively (ibid). It is important to note that the directorate of quality assurance is responsible for ensuring quality assurance and control of ALL students' examinations types and general operation of the university. For example, during face to face examinations, field/science practicals and/or teaching practice; the DQAC and other top university management officials

will move around the sampled regional centres to determine the quality practice of the session i.e. examinations in place. Dissertations and theses are scrutinised by the DQAC just before they are approved for graduations (DQAC, 2017). As challenged by Materu and others in this chapter that despite having an outline of well structured examinations composition and administration procedures, what we need to question ourselves is how committed and ethically is the staff working in the examinations departments. How well universities can compose and administer examinations and /or undertake competency based learners' assessment? It is when these questions are thoughtfully responded and corresponding measurers are timely undertaken by respective bodies and departments, then the quality aspects in students' assessment would be adequately taken care off (Mtitu, 2014). Unlike other scholars, Mtitu seems to be satisfied with the students' assessment in terms of content and quality of examinations as for face to face sessions but not its management and processes. Mtitu's doubt on the integrity during examinations management and processes seems to enlighten the OUT practices in examinations management whose management chain despite its quality, yet it suffers from persistent examinations irregularities (DQAC, 2018). The repeatedly occurrences of examinations malpractices at OUT would mean the need to consider benchmarking best practices in examinations management and processes from other competent universities in Africa and beyond whose education delivery modes are similar. According to Mtitu, ensuring quality students assessment should not be left to an individual such as a teacher or lecturer alone, authentic assessment including examinations composition and administration but rather it should be the work of all who are involved in the provision of education i.e. at school and at home. At OUT, students are actively involved in assessment in different capacities and forms. Students

are assessed theoretically by doing groups or individualised examinations and assignments whereas at some point they are placed in fieldwork where they are partly assessed by the management of the host institutions other than the OUT (SAR, 2017). The aim being, linking theories and practice while developing talents and intellectual faculties among students. Intellectual faculties according to Mtitu (2014) include the powers of: reasoning, argumentation, debating, analysis, decision making, communication and adapting to different environment just to mention a few. Similarly, at OUT, examinations or students' assessment are geared to promote students' critical, creative and innovative thinking skills. Many of the examinations questions items prepared require students to involve in to higher order thinking just like they are required to fully engage in doing individualised online assignments as well as active participation in the face to face sessions (SAR,2017).

Management of annual examinations at OUT: the roadmap to quality assurance and control in higher education in Tanzania and beyond

Examination management at OUT starts at the lecturer/professor's level of composing examinations items and submission to the Directorate of Examination Syndicate (DES) for storage and security processes (DES, 2018). As pointed earlier in this chapter, the OUT like any other African higher education institutions suffers from understaffing (SAR,2017). African universities particularly OUT lack mainly academically and professionally competent academics who are able to construct not only examinations items as per guiding taxonomies but also those who can develop questions according to the course or programme objectives (ibid). They are unable to

construct questions wishing to evaluate students' acquisition of divergent thinking i.e. thinking beyond the limit of classroom instruction for examinations purposes (DQAC, 2018). Despite this challenge, the OUT has been striving to ensure its students get the knowledge and experiences required for a well-informed citizen who can fully and effectively participate in the productive activities for the wellbeing of the nation. Thus through the DES, which is responsible for the management and administration of all issues relating to examinations, the examinations are well administered and marked without or with very minimal errors (DQAC, 2018)). The DES according to DQAC, among its other activities is to maintain Examinations Data Bank (EDB) and using automated devices to prepare and print examinations scripts according to the number of students of the respective subjects (DQAC, 2018). The EDB and automation of devices during examinations period is important in two aspects. One, examination data bank helps to secure and prevent examinations from leakage before examinations dates. Instructors, lecturers and professors will only see their questions during administration of examinations and preparations of marking schemes. Two, the EDB and automation save time, which would have otherwise been lost if the university with more than eight hundred courses (800) will be allowing lecturers and professors to compose test/examinations items during the commencement of examinations sessions. Furthermore, mechanical handling of examinations may engender unnecessary examination insecurity (DQAC, 2018).

Management of examinations at OUT also includes safe printing, packing and transporting examinations from the headquarters to the regional centres under the escort of police officers, national security officers and invigilators. At the regional centre, examinations are received by the regional centre director who may also be the chief examinations invigilator, national security

officer who will oversee the general administration of examinations during the whole examinations session (DQAC, 2018). During this period, the DQAC staff will also sample some regional centres to monitor the administration of examination whereby at the end they write report on the general conduct of examinations and provide some recommendations for smooth examinations management for the university management decision making (DQAC, 2018). DQAC uses some examinations monitoring tools such as: in-depth interview guide questions, questionnaires, focused group discussion questions and an observation check list.

The following are some elements which the university management through DQAC use during monitoring process.

They include: Time set for commencing the examination, suitability of the sitting plan, transparency in opening and closing of the examination envelopes before candidates, adherence/enforcement of the rule "no entry 30 minutes after starting of examinations and no exit before the lapse of 30 minutes" adequacy of invigilators - number of invigilators in relation to number of candidates, incidence of unauthorised materials in the examination room, Evidence of registration of candidates, extent to which identity cards (IDs) are demanded prior to entry into examination, extent to which Examination Hall Tickets (EHTs) are demanded prior to entry into examination, evidence that examination time table was available and used before the start of examination, evidence that "a candidate appears per one examination", extent to which invigilators verify master list of registered students against EHT, Extent to which the rule of "examination room should not be used for study is observed and candidates' signatures at submission of the examination papers (DQAC, 2018). These attributes are apart from the

fact that during moderation of examination items, monitoring of examination conduct and external examiners scrutiny of the quality of examinations, many quality aspects of questions items are looked at (DQAC, 2018). They include whether questions items are spread according to the table of specification and also if the questions items reflect the subject or course instructional objectives and more importantly of setting of examinations items considered other related factors including syllabus completion and mastery by the lecturers and students. According to the OUT quality assurance and risk management policies, in order for the OUT to provide high quality education which is competitive globally, the quality of teaching and learning as well as students' assessment need not to be compromised at any cost (Mbwette, 2015). It is important to note that each aspect or procedure a student or lecturer need to comply is also looked at from the quality point of view and the logic for its use during making of tests/examinations items, administration, management and issuance of examinations results. The quality of the involved academics in each activity is supposed to be critically discussed if examination quality in African higher education should not be jeopardised.

After the completion of examinations session (DES, 2018), the police officers will come to collect the examinations from each regional centre while accompanied by the HQ invigilator (s) and the security officer back to the OUT headquarters ready for marking. Examination marking normally takes a month and a half of which external examiners are involved in evaluating the quality of examinations items and marking and eventually produce report for the university management decision making (DES, 2018). During marking session, specific rooms are prepared to serve the purposes which are facilitated by surveillance cameras in case of staff examinations misconducts. Academic staff is not allowed to get out of these rooms with

examinations scripts and the rooms are out of bound from students and staffs who are not assigned with examinations activities (ibid). Marking of examinations scripts are under the heads of departments who compile the grades in examinations results sheets/forms dully signed before they are submitted to DES where after the marking deadline, results are released through students' academic report information system (SARIS) where only the student and designated officials may gain access to the results (DES, 2018). There is an integrity committee established in order to among other disciplinary matters to resolve examinations cases occurred during administration of examinations. Decisions reached by integrity committee are submitted to the university management for discussion and action. There is also an established organ for students' appeals about unsatisfied decision made by the integrity committee. After hearings are made by the appeals organ, the decisions made are taken to be correct and final (DQAC, 2018). Scrutiny of examinations management and processes at OUT could logically inform stakeholders on how well are the services provided by the respective university. While the examinations management and processes at OUT suggest without doubt its adherence to quality features and standards as guided by different frameworks and policies, it remains complex to extrapolate the level of its quality compliance. This complexity is due to the limited information about examinations management and processes at OUT as compared to other similar higher education institutions. Unless the OUT has enough comparative information regarding examination management and processes in particular and general provision of services to the community one, cannot stand firmly to state the degree of quality that OUT has in the examinations management and processes as compared to other universities in Africa.

Conclusion

Following the discussion about examinations management and processes at OUT as an ingredient of quality in African higher education, the paper has presented very clearly that Examinations management and processes is one of the many elements of quality services provision at any university including the OUT. Examinations reflect the quality of teaching and learning taking place at the university. Examinations form the common assessment form used to determine the level of students' acquisition of the predetermined instructional objectives. Based on the discussion, the quality of an examination should be judged by the following features: clarity of what is assessed; relevance of assessment technique or procedure against the performance to be measured; type of assessment i.e. objective or comprehensive and an awareness of assessment limitations. The quality of examinations of higher learning institution need also to focus on promoting students' critical thinking and argumentation as well as developing students' powers of decision making; debating and detailed analysis of information and above all, examinations should enhance learners acquisition and development of multiple life skills to facilitate them to be adaptable to different contexts globally. However, regarding the nature and practice of examinations in Tanzania, particularly at the OUT, the author is pessimistic that examination management and general students' assessment suffer from dramatic quality deterioration especially during composition of examinations items and observance of guiding tables of specifications such as that of Bloom. Therefore, in order for universities in Tanzania and elsewhere to effectively manage the examinations, lecturers preferably with teaching professionalism should adequately be involved in examinations management and processes including composition of examinations questions items, moderation, administration, marking, evaluation and feedback provision. External examiners should as well be fully engaged in the whole

examination process as watch dogs whereas examiners' reports should form important tools for future examinations improvements.

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Prison Education in Tanzania: Policy versus Practice

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Abstract

Scholarly literature is increasingly suggesting that prison education can save society from reoffending costs. As a result of this view, international and local prison education policies are being developed to guide educational activities in prisons. This qualitative study explores prison education policies and practices in five Tanzanian prisons. It addresses the question: Do current practices adequately reflect the intention and substance of the policies? Methodologically, this study employed diverse data collection mechanisms including document analysis from international to local levels. The findings suggest that Tanzania prisons have yet to fully embrace international prison education policies. The main governmental prison education policy of Tanzania – the Prison Education Guide – is not rooted in the laws of the country, suggesting that, in this respect, Tanzania has yet to comply with the 1999 Arusha Declaration on Good Prison Practice. The Prison Education Guide was interpreted differently in every prison. Educational programmes suffered from a lack of resources, accentuated by the shortage of funds. Thus, many prisoners did not have access to educational programmes. Accordingly, it is concluded that the current practices do not adequately reflect the intention and substance of the policies as there is a big gap between prison education policy and practice in the Tanzanian context. A perspective transformation from prison authorities and more collaborative approaches both internally in prisons but also

externally with various stakeholders to improve prison education in Tanzania is recommended.

Introduction

The majority of prisoners across the world have poor educational backgrounds and no/low work skills (Aparicio & Ortenzi, 2008; UNESCO, 2007) suggesting that crime is principally a *socio-economic* phenomenon. The *low socio-economic* status of individuals has a significant contribution to crime and recidivism (Rivera, 1995; Siegel, 2010, 2012; Weatherburn, 2001). The likelihood of offending is said to be higher when individuals are poor and feel that they have nothing to lose, especially the jobless and lowly educated individuals (Weatherburn, 2001; Webster & Kingston, 2014). Rivera (1995) argues that crime stems from "a combination of poverty, economic underdevelopment, displaced unskilled workers, discrimination, and a host of other factors that cause despair and learned helplessness" (p. 159). It is suggested that imprisonment by itself does not help prisoners as when they return to their original environment they are subjected to the same conditions, for instance, being jobless; consequently, they are more likely to end up reoffending (Cullen, Jonson, & Nagin, 2011; Frederick & Roy, 2003). Research indicates that prison education can help prisoners break the offending cycle (Callan & Gardner, 2007; Msoroka, 2018); it is an effective way to improve an offender's opportunity for post-release employment (Graffam & Hardcastle, 2007). In this regard, prison education can reduce poverty among some prisoners (Preece, 2006; Van der Veen & Preece, 2011) and subsequently it can reduce criminality. It is from this point of view that many prisons (across the world) have been trying to offer prison education, and it is reported to help prisoners' reintegration into society (Callan & Gardner, 2007). In Africa, particularly Tanzania, prison education (as a subset of adult education) is understudied. The government documents suggest that the Tanzanian Prisons Service (TPS) offers prison education, but there

has been little scholarly research in this domain. This article explores the link between prison education policy and practices in the Tanzanian context.

The Tanzanian Prison Context

Formal prisons were not known to Tanzanians (Tanganyikans) until the invasion of the German, and later the British (Bernault, 2003). During the German era (the 1880s to 1919), prisons were under the control of the Police Force. During the British occupation (in 1931), the Prisons Service was established as an independent department (Mboje, 2013; The United Republic of Tanzania, 2017a). A 'conservative philosophy' – one which embraces punitve approaches to imprisonment – was dominant during both the German and British colonial eras. The main focus of prisons was on prisoners' incarceration and hard work (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2017b; Williams, 1980). Prisons were among the coercive instruments of the Colonial Governments (Nyoka, 2013; Williams, 1980).

After independence (1961), the TPS remained an independent department within the Ministry of Home Affairs. The current government's reports suggest that the TPS has revised the approaches to imprisonment to adopt modern humanistic principles in the treatment of offenders (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2017b). The Government, through the TPS, claims to put more focus on the rehabilitation of offenders (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2017c). This claim suggests a move for the TPS from a 'conservative philosophy' to a 'liberal philosophy' of imprisonment – one which encourages rehabilitation approaches, including prison education. This move is in line with the United Nations' (UN) emphasis on prisoners' rehabilitation to prepare inmates for their return into society (The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2012). This move from the conservative to liberal philosophies is not well researched in Tanzania. This article contributes to an understanding

of how far prison education, as an approach to prisoner rehabilitation, is practical in the Tanzanian context. Currently, Tanzania has 126 prisons (all are public) with about 33,517 inmates, of these 50.5% are remanded (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2017a). The current recorded capacity of all Tanzanian prisons is 29,552 prisoners (Msoroka, 2018; The United Republic of Tanzania, 2017a), and they are overcrowded. Currently, Tanzania has no official record of recidivism rates, however, the most quoted one is 47% (Inmate Rehabilitation and Welfare Services Tanzania, 2014; Msoroka, 2018). Also, there is no proper records related with prisoners' educational and occupational/professional backgrounds. In a society that struggles to achieve universal primary education for its population (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2014a), it is obvious that the lack of literacy is expected to be reflected amongst the prison population (Msoroka, 2018). In 2008, for instance, about 75% of inmates in Isanga Prison (Dodoma) were reported to be illiterate (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2014b), as compared to 31% of the general population (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2010). As noted previously, skill deficits, low levels of formal education, and illiteracy are the leading offending risks across countries (The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2012). Therefore, this article holds that prison education programmes may help to reduce reoffending risks among the Tanzanian inmates and help them to become productive citizens.

Methodology

This research project adopted a qualitative approach. Five prisons were selected as multiple cases for the study. The prisons included Chinangali, Kikuyu, Lubungo, Kipera, and Uluguru (pseudonyms). The participants included the prisoners, prison staff, ex-prisoners, prison education co-ordinators, teachers, a retired senior prison staff, the Institute of Adult Education representatives, the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) representative, the Vocational Education and Training (VET) tutor, and an ex-student who shared an examination

centre with prisoners. It should be noted all the names used in this article are pseudonyms. Apart from ex-prisoners who were located through a snowball procedure, purposive sampling was the main selection mechanism used in choosing participants. Interviews (individual and focus group) and document analysis were the main methods used to gather information. The document analysis was mainly used to gather information related to prison education policy. Because this study included Tanzanians who were Kiswahili speakers, Kiswahili language was dominant in all interviews to allow freedom of expression. Most interviews were conducted in prisons where voice recording was not possible. Hence extensive notes were generated. With their consent, voice recording was used while gathering data from participants outside of the prisons. Transcriptions were then developed from field notes and voice recording, and where feasible, verified by participants. The transcripts were translated into understandable and grammatically correct English. Thematic analysis of data was used to establish the themes and subthemes discussed in this article.

Prison Education Policy Contexts

This section discusses the findings related to policy contexts. The discussion in this section is based on the findings from the document analysis.

The International Context

The analysis of documents suggests that, internationally, prison education is associated with the United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners, commonly known as *the Nelson Mandela Rules*. The Nelson Mandela Rules were first adopted by the UN Congress in 1955 (UN, 1977) and revised in 2016 (UN, 2016). The revised document has a total of 122 rules (UN, 2016), while the former had a total of 95 rules (UN, 1977). Both versions of the rules emphasise prison education as a means to reduce reoffending (UN,

2016). Rule Number 4(2) in the revised document states: "prison administrations and other competent authorities should offer education, vocational training, and work, as well as other forms of assistance that are appropriate" (UN, 2016, p. 8). Rules 104(1) and (2) in the recent document are directly assocoiated with prison education (UN, 2016). In the former version, Rules 77(1) and (2) were addressing the same (UN, 1977). It is argued here that these rules establish the possibility of providing access to education for prisoners. Rule Number 104(1) in the current version states:

> *Provision shall be made for the further education of all prisoners capable of profiting thereby, including religious instruction in the countries where this is possible. The education of illiterate prisoners and of young prisoners shall be compulsory and special attention shall be paid to it by the prison administration. (UN, 2016, p. 30).*

The adoption of this Rule suggests that the international community prioritises education for prisoners. This is consistent with the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights which advocates for education as one of the fundamental human rights (UN, 1948). Also, it is in line with the proposition that a lack of education has a significant influence on the rates of crime and recidivism (Braggins & Talbot, 2003; The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2012). Rule Number 104(2) (in the current version) wants the member countries to integrate prison education with national educational systems. It states: "So far as practicable, the education of prisoners shall be integrated with the educational system of the country so that after their release they may continue their education without difficulty" (UN, 2016, p. 30). This article holds that the adoption of Rule Number 104(2) is an indication that the UN wants its member countries to open up doors for lifelong learning for prisoners. The argument is that bridging the gap between the two educational

systems may encourage prisoners to continue studying even after their release.

The African Context

This study suggests that in the African context, prison education is mainly associated with the 1996 Kampala Declaration on Prison Conditions in Africa and the 1999 Arusha Declaration on Good Prison Practice (Penal Reform International, 2008). The three recommendations from the Kampala Declaration on Prison Conditions in Africa are considered by this study to have a link with prison education. One of those recommendations states that "the human rights of prisoners should be safeguarded at all times, and that non-governmental agencies should have a special role in this respect" (The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2006, p. 43). This recommendation is considered to be relevant to prison education because education is understood to be a human right (UN, 1948). In addition, the recommendation allows the Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) to get involved in the protection of the rights of prisoners, including the right to education.

Arguably, if this recommendation is adopted by African countries, NGOs can participate fully in the provision of prison education. The second recommendation openly calls for the provision of prison education to enable prisoners' smooth transition into society. It states that "prisoners should be given access to education and skills training to make it easier for them to reintegrate into society after their release" (Penal Reform International, 2008, p. 13). The third recommendation insists that "all the norms of the United Nations and the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Treatment of Prisoners be incorporated into national legislation to protect the human rights of prisoners" (The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2006, p. 44). It is argued here that the implementation of this recommendation would enable the incorporation of prison education

into the national laws of the African countries, including Tanzania, hence, creating the path to improving educational practices within the prison context. The Arusha Declaration on Good Prison Practice was a follow up to the 1996 Kampala declaration. Two of the agreed principles from the Arusha Declaration had a more explicit link with prison education. One of the agreed principles is to promote good prison practice to conform with the international standards, and to adjust domestic laws to follow those standards (Penal Reform International, 2008). This study considers this principle relevant to prison education because education for offenders is one of the international standards advocated by the Nelson Mandela Rules and the Kampala Declaration (The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2006). Also, this paper holds that amending national laws to follow international standards for good prison practice would ensure the incorporation of prison education into the national laws as proposed by the Kampala Declaration. It is argued here that the implementation of such recommendation may have a positive outcome on prison education in Africa, and Tanzania in particular. Another key principle is "to respect and protect the rights and dignity of prisoners as well as to ensure compliance with national and international standards" (Penal Reform International, 2008, p. 30). This principle seems to be relevant to prison education because guarding prisoners' rights includes ensuring their right to education – one of the basic human rights recommended by the United Nations (UN, 1948). Arguably, the Kampala and Arusha Declaration on Good Prison Practice are relevant policy documents for prison education in Africa, and Tanzania in particular.

The Tanzanian Context

The analysis of documents suggests that the 1967 Prisons Act No. 34 guides all prison activities in Tanzania, (The United Republic of Tanzania, 1967). Despite the fact that the Kampala and Arusha

declarations recommend that countries include the standards of the UN and the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the treatment of prisoners in their laws (Penal Reform International, 2008), no part of this Act specifies the rights of prisoners. The Act does not consider the option for rehabilitation; it has no clear focus on prison education. This Act suggests that the TPS is mainly following the conservative (punitive) philosophy on imprisonment (Kemp & Johnson, 2003; Pollock, 2014). As a result, prisoners have limited access to education as will be discussed in the following sections. The Prison Education Guide was found to be the only policy document that offers a possibility for prison education (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011). It recommends that prisons be learning centres to allow prisoners to undertake prison education.

The Prison Education Guide addresses the following main issues: coordination of prison education, teacher recruitment, the learning environment, collaboration with other stakeholders, and assessment of learners (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011). On the issue of coordination, the Guide wants prison officers with teacher qualifications to be appointed to manage prison education at regional and prison levels (The United Republic of Tanzania, 1967). However, at the time this project was carried out, the Regional Prisons Offices did not have prison education co-ordinators; the researcher did not find them in the two Regional Offices he visited, suggesting a mismatch between policy and practice. With regard to teacher recruitment, the Guide recommends the appointment of volunteer prisoners with higher qualifications and good behaviour to teach their fellow inmates (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011). This study observed that inmate-teacher recruitment was common in most prisons with educational programmes. In this context, one would argue that the Prison Education Guide advocates for peer teaching (Jarvis, 2004). It is noted here that given the Tanzanian economic situation, peer teaching was found to be a relevant and cheaper

option as it might be difficult to pay outsourced prison teachers. In relation to the learning environment, the Guide addresses the curriculum, classrooms, learning schedule, and library. Regarding the learning schedule, prisons are advised to allocate specific learning time. On the part of curriculum, it is recommended that prisons should offer curriculum-based (systematic) education (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011). However, the Guide does not specify the curriculum to be followed. The findings suggest that because of this silence, some heads of prisons did not bother to implement relevant curricula (This was observed in most of the prisons in this study).

The Prison Education Guide recommends prisons have appropriate learning spaces. It insists that these learning spaces (classrooms) should be properly designed to avoid direct sunlight (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011). In this aspect, the Guide seems to consider the importance of a comfortable learning environment, which is highly recommended in adult education, because uncomfortable learning environment may disrupt adult learning (Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2005). Also, through the Prison Education Guide, prisons are advised to have library spaces (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011). It is argued here that this recommendation is in line with the Nelson Mandela Rules which require prisoners to have access to books (The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2006).

However, the findings of this study (data from the field) suggests that the actual learning environment in prisons is not of the standard suggested by the Guide. This issue will be discussed in the following sections. On the issue of collaboration, the Prison Education Guide recommends that other institutions (public, religious, and NGOs) and the general public should be involved in the provision of prison education (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011). This is consistent with the view that involvement of the wider society is vital for

prisoner rehabilitation (The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2012). However, it is noted here that the Guide does not specify the responsibilities of the stated stakeholders. Consequently, as will be discussed in the following sections, the findings of this study suggests poor community involvement in prison education. The Guide recommends formative and summative evaluation for prison education programmes. It is suggested that the formative evaluation can be managed by prisons while summative evaluation be conducted by the nationally recognised boards such as the National Examinations Council of Tanzania (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011). If possible, national examinations may be organised in prisons; if not, the candidates have to be escorted to the nearby (appropriate) centre. This notional flexibility may allow prisoners to take nationally recognised examinations. It is argued here that an implementation of this recommendation can be one of the ways that would create links between prison education and the conventional education systems suggested by the Nelson Mandela Rules (The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2006).

However, the Prison Education Guide is silent on who would fund prisoners' costs related to taking these examinations. This silence may be limiting prisoners' opportunities to take recognised examinations. This study notes that the Prison Education Guide seems to be a relevant document for prison education activities in Tanzania. However, its main weakness is that it is not a legally binding document. There is no instrument that could force heads of prisons to implement it, suggesting that education is not a requirement in the Tanzanian prisons. There is no room for anyone to question its implementation. One of its statement says: "This Guide is an initial document; it may be implemented based on the prison context" (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011, p. 5). This statement may be providing a loophole which might be used by prison management to ignore the Guide. Arguably, the implementation of this Guide

depends on the orientation of the head of a particular prison. If the heads of prisons believe in punishment, it is more than likely that their prisons will have no prison education programmes. Those who believe that education is necessary for prisoner rehabilitation may embrace the policy, and therefore, educational programmes may be found.

Prison Education Practices

This section discusses the findings related to education practices in the Tanzanian prison context. The discussion in this section is based on the findings from the field.

Only a Few Prisons offer Prison Education

Although the Prison Education Guide recommends that all prisons offer education (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011), this study suggests that many prisons did not offer educational programmes. In this study, four prisons were offering some educational programmes, while one had no any kind of educational programme. It should be noted that the ratio of 4:1, as experienced in this study, is not signifying that the majority of prisons in Tanzania offer educational opportunities to prisoners. This ratio is an outcome of the focus of the study; the study focused on prisons with educational programmes. Hence, Uluguru Prison, which had no educational programmes, was selected to explore participants' views from a prison with no such programmes in order to enrich an understanding of the phenomenon of non-participation. While the researcher of this study was at the TPS headquarters, one prison officer suggested that there were only a few specific prisons offering educational programmes which could be studied. He cautioned that not many Tanzanian prisons offered educational programmes. Similar views were gathered from other prison officers. One prison officer commented:

> *No, we don't have any educational programme in this prison. My friend, you need to know that many Tanzanian prisons don't offer educational programmes. But I know a few prisons that offer some educational programmes. These are Kipera, Iwambi, Tabora, Kajiungeni, and Moshi prisons. (Tamimu; Prison Officer; Int.)*

One co-ordinator said:

> *It [having prison education] only depends on how understanding the head of a particular prison is. If you find a leader whose focus is only on punishment enforcement, you can't have these educational programmes. (Mwakalinga; Co-ordinator; Int.)*

Mwakalinga's statement suggests that heads of prisons who did not support educational programmes believed in a punitive perspective of imprisonment (Pollock, 2014). This finding suggests that the majority of Tanzanian prisons did not offer prison education, indicating an existing sizeable gap between policy and practice. The lack of educational programmes in many Tanzanian prisons is a reflection of 'weak' prison education policy which cannot enforce prison education.

Resources

Funding

This study found two main themes associated with funding: tuition fees and budgets for prison education. Regarding tuition fees, prisoners in the selected prisons perceived that they were provided with free education. Some of them said:

> *Education in this prison doesn't cost me. We don't pay fees, and we also don't sit for registered examinations. Therefore we don't have to pay for exams. Thus, no one pays for my education here. (Paul; Inmate-learner; FGI.)*

> *Our learning costs are covered by the prison department itself. We never pay for anything here. I'm satisfied with the situation because I wouldn't study if I had to pay for it. (Shabani; Inmate-learner; FGI.)*

One ex-inmate (Bakari) undertook tertiary education while in prison, and he was supposed to pay tuition fees for his studies offered by an accredited tertiary institution (OUT). He said:

> *Tuition fee was the first obstacle in my studies. Prison management told me that they couldn't allow me to take up studies if I didn't have a sponsor. (Bakari; Ex-inmate; Int.)*

When asked how he managed it, he revealed:

> *I was lucky enough to get a sponsor. He paid for my first and second years of study. He was just a Good Samaritan [a white man] from Nairobi. He volunteered to pay for two consecutive years. My final year's tuition fee was paid by one of the OUT leaders (Bakari; Ex-inmate; Int.)*

Bakari's case may imply that Tanzania had no financial mechanisms to support prisoners who have the ability to pursue tertiary education. The Prison Education Guide is silent regarding funding of education for prisoners (in general) and tertiary education in particular (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011). Regarding a budget, although the four case studies – Lubungo, Chinangali, Kipera, and Kikuyu – reported providing education for free, these prisons did not have funds budgeted for prison education. Prison staff complained about the shortage of funds to run educational programmes. Some of them said:

> *Our prison doesn't have a budget for prison education purposes. We can't afford to buy chalk, notebooks, pens, and textbooks. Sometimes, we are completely out of chalk to run our classes. (Yahaya; Co-ordinator; Int.)*

> *Our main challenge is financial constraints. We need funds to buy books and other teaching and learning materials, including tools for workshops. The problem is that the government usually sets funds for prisoners' meals and medication; it doesn't focus on prisoners' education. I think they forget that the prisoners need education for their rehabilitation, which is the main purpose of this prison. (Kapange; Co-ordinator; Int.)*

This finding strongly suggests that prison education is not a priority to the TPS, and the Tanzanian Government in general. The problem of budget constraint is reported to affect conventional adult education as well (Msoroka, 2011; Mushi, 2010); however, its impacts seem to be more severe in the prison education programmes than it is in the conventional programmes outside of prison. This may be due to poor involvement of volunteers from outside of prisons as will be discussed in the following sections. This study holds that poor involvement of stakeholders from outside of prison can be associated with prisons being "total institutions" (Amundsen, Msoroka, & Findsen, 2017; Goffman, 1962; Scott, 2010). Such institutions are heavily restrictive on outsiders' engagement, thus having minimal interactions with other organisations and individuals.

Material Resources

The findings of this study indicate that of all the five prisons, only Kipera had proper classrooms with desks. Uluguru prison had neither books nor learning spaces. Lubungo, Chinangali, and Kikuyu prisons had chalkboards fixed on walls outside of prison cells. These places were used as (classes) learning spaces. The outside learning spaces had no roofs. Learners did not have chairs; some sat on the ground and others on plastic buckets. These learning environments, and the situation at Uluguru prison – where there were no learning spaces – contradicted the Prison Education Guide which recommended conducive learning spaces in prisons (The United

Republic of Tanzania, 2011). The situation in these four prisons is a clear indication of poor implementation of the Prison Education Guide, hence suggesting a mismatch between policy and practice. This finding also contradicts Knowles's (1980) proposition that classrooms should provide physical comfort for adult learners. This study found that Chinangali and Kipera prisons had small libraries with a few books. It is noted here that by having library spaces, Chinangali and Kipera prisons were consistent with the Prison Education Guide and the Nelson Mandela Rules, which recommend prisons have rooms for library service (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011). Other prisons – Kikuyu, Lubungo, and Uluguru – did not have library spaces, indicating a gap between policy and practice. In more advanced societies e-learning and e-libraries in prisons would be a consideration (Hammerschick, 2010), but in the current Tanzanian context, they are barely relevant. Computers and internet services are not allowed in prisons.

Kikuyu and Chinangali prisons had special rooms with TV sets which were used to teach literacy skills through a special programme (*Yes I Can*). Kikuyu, Lubungo, Chinangali, and Kipera prisons had workshops for VET activities: mechanics (Lubungo and Kipera prisons); tailoring (Kipera and Kikuyu); carpentry, architecture, painting, and electricity (Kipera); ceramics (Chinangali); weaving (Chinangali and Kikuyu); and metalwork (Lubungo). In most of prisons these workshops could not accommodate all prisoners. Only a few prisoners accessed VET opportunities, except for Kipera prison. The findings suggest that a shortage of learning material resources was one of the major challenges that restricted prison education activities. The quotes below provide an idea of how extensive this problem was:

> *Our main challenge is the shortage of resources to run the programmes. Our prison doesn't have a budget for prison educational purpose. We can't afford even buying boxes of chalk,*

> *notebooks, pens, and textbooks. Sometimes, we completely run out of chalk. At times we turn into beggars; we walk around to seek assistance from people. We sometimes visit the Adult Education officer to ask for chalk. I don't like begging; sometimes I feel embarrassed. (Yahaya; Co-ordinator; Int.).Apart from a TV set, we don't have anything else that I can be proud of. We don't even have books. Our classes don't have chairs; learners sit on the floor as you have observed. Sometimes I don't have chalk to use in my class. My learners don't have enough notebooks and pens. It is really a problem. (Kidawa; Inmate-teacher; Int.)*

This study holds that the scarcity of resources negatively influenced the quality of prison education in the selected prisons. Also, it resulted in the closure of some classes at Chinangali prison. Although the Prison Education Guide (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011) suggests the running of educational activities in the prisons, it does not address how the TPS would fund education activities. Thus, the shortage of resources in this context could be attributed to unclear governmental fiscal policies on prison education.

Teachers

This study found that the majority of prisons recruited volunteer inmates to teach their fellow prisoners. One inmate-teacher said:

> *To be a teacher in this prison, you need to have one of the two criteria: you need to be either a professional teacher or have higher qualifications than the learners. It depends on the situation; it may be a form four or form six qualification. (Moses; Inmate-teacher; FGI.)*

Only Kipera prison recruited qualified prison officer-teachers to teach. Prison staff with teaching certificates, diplomas, or degrees taught in the literacy and primary school curriculum; those with VET qualifications taught VET courses. It is argued here that recruitment of volunteer prisoners was in accordance with the Prison Education Guide which allowed prisoners with higher qualifications to teach

their fellow inmates (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011). However, the main concern is that the volunteer prisoners did not have opportunities to improve their knowledge through professional development.

Access to Learning Opportunities

The findings of this study suggest that only a few inmates had access to educational programmes. Out of 1298 total prisoners recorded at the time of this study in the selected prisons, only 419 (32%) attended educational programmes. Attending educational programme at Kipera prison – a youth prison – was mandatory. Illiterate prisoners were allocated to literacy education programmes, primary school dropouts were allocated to primary school curriculum classes (starting at standard five), and secondary school drop-outs and literate primary school leavers were allocated to VET courses. This policy influenced prisoners' participation rates as all 67 inmates (at the time of this study) were allocated to various programmes. Allowing all inmates access to educational programmes, as observed at Kipera prison, is in line with the Nelson Mandela Rules (UN, 2016) and the Prison Education Guide (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011).

In Chinangali, Kikuyu, and Lubungo prisons, attending education programmes was not mandatory. In the literacy and general education programmes, inmates had a choice whether to attend or not. In VET, the criteria and procedures were different as there were some restrictions on joining the programmes; an inmate's sentence length and behaviour impacted on the possibility of participating in VET. A chance to attend VET was also dependent on the available spaces in a particular workshop. This suggests that access to VET in those three prisons was discretionary. Consequently, a few inmates had a chance to undertake VET courses. The failure to allow inmates' engagement in VET programmes contradicts the Kampala

Declaration on Prison Conditions in Africa. The declaration insists on the provision of VET to inmates, who arguably lack work skills, in order to reduce recidivism rates (The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2006, 2012).

Partnership with other Institutions

The Prison Education Guide (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011) and the Kampala Declaration (Penal Reform International, 2008) are clear on the importance of wider community participation in the process of prisoner rehabilitation. The argument is that community participation has a positive impact on offender's reintegration into society. In this study, some prisons had some partnerships with some institutions while others did not. Chinangali and Kikuyu prisons had a link with the District Adult Education Office. As a result, the two prisons benefitted in various forms. One prison staff member commented:

> *We have got a TV set and some books with assistance from the Municipal Education Office. Apart from the office of education, there is no other institution from which we receive sustainable assistance. (Yahaya; Co-ordinator; Int.)*

The TV set mentioned here helped the prison in running literacy education through the *Yes I Can* project. Kipera prisoners used Mlali Primary School as their centre for the National Primary School Examinations (PSLE). Also, Kipera prison had a connection with a VETA college where its prisoners were sent to take VET examinations and successful inmates were awarded VETA certificates. The kind of partnerships observed in these prisons is in connection with the Prison Education Guide recommendations (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011). Also, it is noted here that the partnerships that existed at Kipera prison enabled a link between the education provided by the prison and that provided by the VETA and the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE). Consequently, Kipera prison

put into practice the Rule 104(2) of the Nelson Mandela Rules (UN, 2016). Apart from the partnerships discussed above, this study suggests that the Tanzanian prisons are 'total institutions' and they are not easily accessed by outsiders. They were found to be highly closed. Participants from outside of the prison system complained that they faced some difficulties working with prisons. One participant commented:

> *Working with Tanzanian prisons is very hard; it is nearly impossible to secure permission to work with them. Our NGO assists ex-prisoners. To find these people [ex-prisoners] we need their information from the prisons. It is now difficult for us to find them because we don't have their information. We are not allowed into prisons where we can find prisoners who are about to be released; we work very hard to find them in the society [outside of prison]. (Mnyalu; NGO representative; Int.)*

Mbogo, a retired senior prison officer, also agreed that it was difficult for outsiders to work with Tanzanian prisons because the TPS is closed and rigid; he called it *the old fashioned prison system*. This is an indication that Tanzanian prisons did not fully involve stakeholders who were willing to participate in prisoners' rehabilitation. Limiting stakeholders' involvement is contrary to the Kampala Declaration (Penal Reform International, 2008) and the Prison Education Guide (The United Republic of Tanzania, 2011), suggesting inconsistency between policy and practice.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This paper has discussed prison education policies and practices with Tanzania being its main focus. It is clear that prison education is given more priority in international policy documents and less in local (Tanzanian) documents. The establishment of the Prison Education Guide, the participation of some prisoners in prison educational programmes, and the partnership elements found in some prisons show that Tanzania is attempting to adjust and follow

international prison education policies. However, it is argued here that there is a huge gap between prison education policies and practices in Tanzania. This study showed that most prisons did not adhere to the Tanzanian Prison Education Guide, suggesting a low priority given to prison education. One would also argue that the gap between prison education policies and practices in the Tanzanian context is largely contributed by the 'total institution' culture that Tanzanian prisons are said to be associated with (Amundsen, Msoroka & Findsen, 2017; Msoroka, 2018). It is probable that issues related to a shortage of resources could be reduced if prisons move away from being complete 'total institutions' to allow more collaborative approaches to prison education. Perhaps more institutions and individuals could contribute to prison education to improve quality and access.

It is also acknowledged that senior prison staff have a greater contribution to the mismatch between the Prison Education Guide and actual practices; the availability of educational programmes (in prisons) depends on the ideological perspectives of the head of a particular prison. This study suggests that some senior staff have a punitive view of prisons. At this point, advocacy for prison education to change people's perspectives on prisons and prisoners in general is proposed (Mezirow, 1991, 1997). This approach may improve the situation of prison education in Tanzania. Insisting on the use of volunteer prisoners as teachers could arguably be associated with valuing of peer teaching; however, in this study, this situation is interpreted as being forced by a shortage of funds. The TPS may have decided to use volunteer prisoners in place of professional teachers who cannot be afforded due to lack of funds.

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Exploring the Implemented co-curricular Activities and how they Revitalize Entrepreneurial Skills to Primary Pupils in Mbeya City in Tanzania

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Abstract
Primary education is a cornerstone and basic foundation for enhancing different skills and knowledge that expose children with opportunities and challenges within the society. This kind of education is implemented through core-curricular, co-curricular, extra-curricular and hidden curricular. While this is true, the majority of primary schools in Tanzania have discouraging performance in the implementation of co-curricular activities that enable pupils to be exposed in various entrepreneurship activities compared as to other countries. In raising the performance, Tanzania is now receiving a considerable attention through its policies to revitalize the implementation of co-curricular activities. In the effort to enhance success in the implementation of co-curricular activities to different primary schools, there is an intervention that currently the government is imposing to revisit the past mistake with an intention of comprehending what has made Tanzania to be where it is today. Thus, the purpose of this study is to assess the implementation of co-curricular activities and its reflection on enhancing entrepreneurial skills to primary pupils in Tanzania, particularly in Mbeya City. In achieving this study, the concurrent triangulation research design, and mixed research approach were employed which included 467 participants. The study was done in Mbeya City and involved 332 pupils, 125 primary school teachers, 8 heads of primary schools and 2 quality assurers. The findings indicate that majority of primary schools in Tanzania are implementing different co-curricular activities which relate to entrepreneurship and pupils gain the entrepreneurial skills and knowledge that are highly useful for them. However, the study findings show that majority of private primary schools had good system of enhancing

entrepreneurial skills to primary school pupils as compared to public primary schools in Tanzania. Therefore, it is recommended that, school owners whether private or public primary schools should emphasize the implementation of co-curricular activities and accord them similar status with core-curricula programmes with an intention of developing pupil in cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains.

Key: Co-curricular activities, Entrepreneurship skills and Primary Schools.

Introduction

The implementation of co-curricular activities involves the pupil practical oriented components of the curriculum occurring in the whole process of learning that enable pupils to grasp what they learn during class hours and connect them with other skills that are grasped and gained outside class hours (Ieorge & Thinguni, 2013; Coven, 2015; MoEST, 2016). These activities include music, arts, drama, sports and games, debate, subject clubs and vocational clubs. It is proved that co-curricular activities are as old as the education system itself and they can be traced back in the era of ancient Greece, China, India and Near East (Wuest & Bucher, 1999). These activities during that era aimed at maintaining religious issues, survival, health, active life, recreation and defense (Wuest & Bucher, 1999; Ndee, 2010). Later on, majority of the co-curricular activities were included in school curricula with intention of meeting the benefits developed through implementation of these activities (Coven, 2015). Various co-curricular activities were implemented in different countries worldwide with intention of saving different purpose to learners. For example, the United States of America (USA) implemented the co-curricular activities such as quiz bowls, musical groups, sports, games, student governments, school newspapers, science fairs, debate teams and clubs focusing on academic areas with intention of enriching different skills that enable their child to reflect the actual practical situations of what happened in the society (Haber, 2006; Storey, 2010; Dhanmeher, 2014). England has been

implementing co-curricular activities such as sports and games, debates, subject clubs and pupils' organizations' as an integral part of pupils' learning process and an essential mechanism for developing the psychological and intellectual abilities of learners (Ieorge & Thinguni, 2013; Coven, 2015). In Nepal, they believed that implementing co-curricular activities reinforces the whole process of learning to learners.

In East Africa, Kenya in particular, several schools have reported co-curricular activities to have achieved better results in various areas of learning (Wangai, 2012). Through co-curricular activities, pupils attain various skills such as creative problem solving, entrepreneurship, sports, games, cooperation, communication and leadership (Ndirangu, 2015). Uganda is also implementing co-curricular activities because believed that it prepares learners in all domains. In Tanzania, co-curricular activities hold a place of great importance in the field of education for developing different careers to learners (Shehu, 2001; Mafumiko & Pangani, 2008; Japhet, 2010; Makwinya & Straton, 2014; Lazaro & Anney, 2016). The Ministry of Education has insisted the implementation of co-curricular activities in and outside the schools since pre-colonial education, whereby children participated in informal co-curricular activities such as swimming, dancing, singing and playing by considering the experiences of the surrounding culture and they were informally acquired (Mafumiko & Pangani, 2008; Ndee, 2010). During colonial period, co-curricular activities were done in schools, whereby different sports and games were practiced (Kazungu, 2010; Machera, 2012). After independence, the government of Tanzania adopted and implemented co-curricular activities in schools (MoEC, 1995). Various policies such as Education for Self-Reliance (ESR) of 1967; Education and Training Policy of 1995 and 2014; Basic Education Curricular for pre-primary, primary and secondary education, as well as curriculum for teachers' education were supposed to be implemented parallel with co-curricular activities (MoEC, 1967 & 1995; MoEVT 2014; MoEST, 2016; Lazaro, 2015). The government of Tanzania has also

placed a strong emphasis on quality environment that aims at improving learning process and environment that enhances pupils' learning outcomes (MoEC, 1995 & MoEVT, 2014). For example, the Education and Training Policy (ETP) of 1995 insists on preparing the pupils with the foundation of self-creativity, self-advancement and self-confidence, which help them to enter into the world of work (MoEC, 1995 & MoEVT, 2014). With progressive emphases, it is therefore, justified that implementing co-curricular activities in schools is seen as the way of laying the foundations for instilling different principles, skills, knowledge, social aspects and attitudes patterning to entrepreneurship that stimulate and consolidate learning. It is from this background that prompted the researcher to investigate the role of co-curricular activities in revitalizing the entrepreneurship skills to majority of primary schools in Mbeya City in Tanzania.

Research Design

The study employed concurrent triangulation mixed research design. The design was used because it focused on collecting, analyzing, interpreting and reporting concurrently both quantitative and qualitative data. The central premise of using this design was to develop better understanding of a research problem being investigated rather than using a single approach (Creswell & Clark, 2011). The design helped the researcher to concurrently collect both qualitative and quantitative data, analysis, interpret and report the data at the same time (Onwuegbuzie et al, 2007).

Sampling Techniques

This study used purposive and stratified random sampling techniques in selecting the appropriate sample for the study as explained in the following subsections.

Purposive Sampling Technique

Purposive sampling technique was used to select Mbeya City. Mbeya City was selected because of its strategic location of being the heart of

the region. The city has an appropriate number of public and primary schools compared to other districts in Mbeya region. This was the target of this study. Hence, Mbeya City provided all the necessary information that was required for the development of this study. Moreover, the city was purposively chosen because it comprises many government offices including the quality assurance district and zonal offices that have the profile for quality assurers. Additionally, purposive sampling technique was used in selecting district educational officer, heads of school, teachers and experts from quality assurance office at the zonal and district level. All aforementioned respondents were selected because of their administrative roles and responsibilities of implementing and organizing primary education at the district and school levels.

Stratified Random Sampling

Stratified random sampling technique was used to select eight (8) primary schools from the strata of public and private schools. The advantage of using stratified random sampling is that it increases the likelihood and equal representativeness of the sample, and ensures that all key characteristics of individuals in the population are involved. The strata were based on the type of primary school ownership because, as per government policy, all primary schools are required to implement co-curricular activities. After dividing the schools based on ownership, they were randomly selected in the strata of public and private schools. Similarly, stratified random sampling technique was used to select primary school pupils of standard five and six based on gender (Male & Female) from both the public and the private primary schools. The reason for selecting standard five and six pupils was based on the directives of primary school curriculum that specified the kind of co-curricular activities that are to be implemented to standard five and six. Also, the researcher believed that standard five and six pupils are matured enough to provide relevant information on the actual situation in primary schools compared to other lower primary school levels. In each sampled school, fifty (50) pupils (25 boys & 25 girls) were selected. To get five (25) boys in each class the researcher prepared

ten (50) cards numbered (1) or (2) that were placed in the container and every card was randomly selected by standard five and six boys. The same procedure was done to girls. After that, a child who picked a card showing number two (2) had a chance to take part in the study.

Sample Size

The study population was grouped in two strata based on the type of school ownership in terms of public and private ownership. It is advised that sample size should match with the size of population of which the results are to be considered representative (Cohen, *et al*. 2006; Kombo& Tromp, 2006). Taking a larger sample than necessary is to waste time while taking small sample makes the results to be of less practical use (Kothari, 2004). On the basis of the number of the study population, a total of 535 participants were selected. As for teachers 10% of the target population was selected. In this regard, primary school teachers who were 1225, the selected sample was 125 respondents. As for primary school pupils of standard five and six, who were 19860, the formula proposed by Israel (2013) was used to select pupils of standard five and six to be involved in this study. The formula is based on 95% confidence level and p=0.05 read as:

$$n=\frac{N}{1+N(e)^2}$$

Whereby 'n' is the sample size to be calculated; 'N' is the total population of the study; 'e' the level of precision or margin of error measured by probability scale of 5%. Therefore, plugging data into the formula, the following was in order:

{Whereby n=? N=1980; e=0.05}

$$n=\frac{19860}{1+19860\,(0.05)^2}$$

Therefore, n (pupils) =400

The study required both primary and secondary data which were based on qualitative and quantitative approaches. The reasons of collecting the data from both qualitative and quantitative approaches

was to help the researcher to triangulate and confirm the finding by complementing one evidence with another evidence from different sources of data. This is supported by Ulin (2002) who notes that there is no single method that can provide the answers to research problems in all dimensions. Therefore, in this study the researcher applied four data collection methods, namely; interview, observation, documentary review and questionnaires.

Data Analysis Procedures

Data collected in this study were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. As for qualitative data, the data that were collected in the field were analyzed through content analysis. In this study, the analysis involved the extraction of the relevant data that was collected from the field and then compressed, organized and assembled. Finally, conclusion was drawn and verification was done. Furthermore, the collected data was coded and categorized in accordance with the research objectives and the respondents' arguments were presented through direct verbatim quotations. The use of content analysis indicated that it is a dynamic form of analyzing verbal and visual data that are oriented on summarizing the informational content of the data (Onwuegbuzie& Byers, 2014; Onwuegbuzie& Leech, 2005; Morgan, 1993). On the other hand, the quantitative data from questionnaires were analyzed with the help of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 20. The collected data were subjected to descriptive statistical analysis with interpretation that was given in terms of frequencies, percentages, mean scores and standard deviations. Finally, both qualitative and quantitative findings were mixed together during presentation, analysis and discussion of the results in order to corroborate.

Findings and Discussions

The current study was guided by two research questions which are to explore the co-curricular activities related to entrepreneurship being implemented in primary schools and how does the implemented co-curricular activities related entrepreneurship help to revitalize the

entrepreneurial skills to primary pupils. The findings and discussion are presented as follows:

The Implemented Entrepreneurship Activities in Primary Schools

In this category the purpose was to identify the co-curricular activities that relate to entrepreneurship activities, which were implemented in primary schools by reflecting the 2005 curriculum of primary schools and the Education and Training Policy of 1995 and 2014 in Tanzania. The entrepreneurship activities that were targeted by the researcher as per the curriculum of primary schools were gardening, farming, weaving, toy making, basket making, spinning, tailoring and kitting. The first item required the respondents to indicate whether they had entrepreneurship activities in their schools. The findings from pupils' questionnaires indicated that majority of primary pupils (254, 76.5%) agreed that entrepreneurship activities were implemented as co-curricular activities in their schools. In contrast, findings from teachers' questionnaire showed that although entrepreneurship activities were implemented in primary schools, there were variations between public and private primary schools. In public primary schools, entrepreneurship activities were rarely implemented as co-curricular activities where as in private primary schools' entrepreneurship activities were well implemented.

Furthermore, the researcher conducted an interview to heads of schools who were asked to respond on availability of entrepreneurship activities in their schools. In responding to this item, some schools' heads said that some entrepreneurship activities were implemented and pupils participated as part of learning process. On this note, one head of school said that:

> *…In my school, I insist to implement different entrepreneurship activities such as gardening, farming, weaving and pot making on a weekly basis. This is allocated in the school daily routine…* ***Source:*** *Field Data (August, 2018).*

The above excerpt implies that some primary schools implemented various entrepreneurship activities as part of co-curricular activities. On the other hand, other heads of schools said that entrepreneurship activities were not implemented because of limited school timetable, environment and challenges of facilities and equipment, which did not favour for implementation of some activities. In affirming this one head of public primary school was quoted saying:

> *…In this place we have two public primary schools, ours is the oldest school built in 2010. It was divided into two and now we have two primary schools in the same place. This does not allow us to introduce even a garden for vegetable. So, it is difficult to implement the entrepreneurship activities like farming, gardening, kitting etc… may be the schools that are located in rural areas may be doing those activities…Schools like ours, which are located in town it is* very difficult to have such activities… **Source:** Field Data, (September, 2018)

The above quotation implies that some primary schools failed to implement co-curricular activities due to limited school environment and time. Because of this, pupils had limited place for learning various activities associated with entrepreneurship activities. In regard to these findings, it could be said that besides the school curriculum insistence on having entrepreneurship activities, some surveyed schools did not have these activities. It was also noticed through documentary review that there were marked differences on the way public primary schools implemented the entrepreneurship activities compared to private primary schools as indicated in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Implemented Entrepreneurship Activities in Primary Schools

Types of Subject Club	Implemented entrepreneurship activities	
	Public Schools	Private Schools
Gardening	✓	✓
farming	x	✓
Weaving	✓	✓
Basket making	x	✓
Spinning	x	✓
Tailoring	✓	✓
Kitting	✓	✓

Source: Field Data (September, 2018)

Table 1.1 indicates that there were some inconsistencies in the implementation of co-curricular activities related to entrepreneurship in primary schools. Majority of private primary schools had all proposed entrepreneurship activities such as gardening, farming, weaving, basket making, spinning, tailoring and kitting activities. While in public primary schools there were gardening, weaving, tailoring and kitting activities. This implies that private primary schools implemented all proposed entrepreneurship activities while public primary schools implemented four out of the seven entrepreneurship activities. Furthermore, quality assurers were interviewed on whether entrepreneurship activity was implemented as a co-curricular activity in primary schools. In responding to this item, the quality assurers revealed that entrepreneurship activities were implemented in schools. However, not all primary schools managed to implement all the types of entrepreneurship activities proposed by the primary school curriculum. They indicated that when inspecting different schools, they also observed entrepreneurship activities like project activities. Through this process they found out that some schools implemented all entrepreneurship activities while others did not. For instance, one quality assurer was quoted saying:

> *…These activities are implemented in some primary schools especially private primary schools where they regard these activities as a self-reliance education. However, some public primary schools do not implement all proposed entrepreneurship activities as per curriculum…**Source:** Field Data (August, 2018)*

The above quotation implies that entrepreneurship activities were implemented in primary schools though some of schools did not implement all proposed activities by the primary schools' curriculum. The findings from various methods of data collection establish that entrepreneurship activities are implemented in schools, although the magnitude of implementation varied from private to public primary schools. These findings concur with those of Machera (2012), Juma (2015) and Lazaro (2015), who noticed that majority of the entrepreneurship activities such as project activities were implemented in many urban schools where students learned different production activities. Also, in a similar study, Machera (2012) indicated that in the years before 1995 majority of public primary schools had entrepreneurship programmes like school shop, farming activities, and other project activities. However, later they were abolished and efforts were vested in core-subject taught in schools. Therefore, this argument supports the finding of this study especially in the public primary schools where it was witnessed by the researcher to be selective in the implementation of entrepreneurship activities compared to private primary schools.

Theoretically, the findings of this study reveal that majority of primary school implemented the co-curricular activities. So, the findings are in line with the proposed view of the open system theory, which believes that the school system survives if their desired goals align with the environmental needs by considering the input, transformational process and output. According to this theory the input meant the resources that are received from the external environment and transformational process are the resources within a system while output is the value added or product that are exported

back to the environment as the feedback (Thien & Razak, 2012). In this regard, the findings of this study indicated that the implementation process of entrepreneurship activities was dependent on the inputs (available resources) in the school environment. Since private schools had enough resources it was possible to implement all proposed entrepreneurship activities.

The Role of Entrepreneurship Activities in Revitalizing Entrepreneurial Skills to Pupils

In this aspect the intention was to understand whether co-curricular activities related to entrepreneurship activities contributed to provision of entrepreneurship skills to primary pupils. The information that responded to this category was collected through questionnaires that were administered to pupils and teachers. The data that were presented through open ended questionnaire that were administered to teachers indicated that majority of teachers 92% replied that through implementing co-curricular activities that related to entrepreneurship activities enabled pupils to gain different skills of recognizing the business opportunities, developing specific local knowledge and knowing the networking system of production. Pupils were required to respond through Likert Scale that was administered with the scale aspect of Strong Disagree (SD), Strong Agreed (SA) and Neutral (N). The responses are presented in Table 1.2 below:

Table1.2: Pupils Responses on the Role of Entrepreneurship Activities in Schools

Items	SA	N	SD
• Participating in co-curricular related to entrepreneurship activities help you in raising awareness on various production opportunities	95%	2%	3%
• Participating in co-curricular related to entrepreneurship activities gives an opportunity to be creative and gain the recognition skills	85%	10%	5%
• Through participating in co-curricular related to entrepreneurship activities help in gaining specific local skills that connect with your environment	98%	1%	1%
• Participating in co-curricular related to entrepreneurship activities help in identification of business opportunities that will enable in establishing a business after finishing your studies	75%	14%	11%

The findings as indicated in Table 1.2, implies that majority of pupils were very positive with the implementation of co-curricular activities that relates with co-curricular activities. Majority of pupils recognized that through participating in those activities were in position of acquiring different entrepreneurial skills through being aware with various entrepreneurial opportunities, being active and creative, and they gained different local skills that enable them to understand the productive activities in their surrounding environment.

Generally, the findings in this item are in line with the findings of Linan (2004) who noted that if we want to reach in larger part of development, entrepreneurship education should integrate substantial awareness content through developing intention, creativity and business knowledge that would be the most relevant

way to our learners. Also, in the study of Lazaro and Anney (2016) insisted that participating in co-curricular activities increased an opportunity of realizing various production opportunities that in the long run enabled the learners to grasp different opportunities that surround in the local environment. This finding implies that through participating in different co-curricular activities that relate to entrepreneurship activities pupils gain different knowledge and skills that relate to identification of various opportunities of developing business and other productive activities that enable them to secure opportunities after completing their studies. This intention is in aligning with the Tanzania 2025 vision and the Sustainable Development Goal of 2030 that insist on eradicating ignorance to majority of Africans including Tanzania through giving them the education that is practical oriented.

Conclusion

Despite the government directive and policies on implementation of co-curricular that relate to entrepreneurship activities in all schools, the implementation process varies between public and private primary schools. More co-curricular that relate to entrepreneurship activities are implemented in private primary schools than in public primary schools. Therefore, the findings of this study proposed that there should be a balance in terms of implementation for both private and public primary schools.

Recommendation

For the aim of developing a pupil who learns holistically in primary education, there is a need for integrating the co-curricular that relate to entrepreneurship activities in the school curricula as compulsory programmes that make all educational stakeholders, value and implement in schools. Likewise, it is essential to emphasize the implementation of co-curricular that relate to entrepreneurship activities in all teacher training colleges and universities so as once teachers are employed, they can be able to implement well all school programmes including co-curricular activities.

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Secondary School Library Resource Centres in Tanzania: their status in Resource-Based Learning

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Abstract
The article examines the status of secondary school library resource centres in resource-based learning in eight districts of Njombe and Iringa regions of Tanzania. The study is grounded in the vital role of secondary school resource centres in providing infrastructure, information resources, technology and professional expertise to enable teachers and learners to effectively use the resources and services to foster resource-based learning and consequently improve the quality of education secondary school learners receive. The study used a pragmatic paradigm with a survey design. The results of the study reveal that the status of most secondary school resource centres is on the whole dismal. Very few secondary schools have functional resource centres. In order for School Library Resource Centres to contribute to resource-based learning and quality education, the study recommends that the government must make School Library Resource Centres a priority and provide them with the necessary human, infrastructural and financial support. A mechanism should be in place to reinforce the implementation of the Education and Training Policy of 2014 and the Education (School Library Resource Centres) Regulations of 2002.

Keywords
School library resource centres, status of school libraries, policy and legal framework for school libraries, staffing for school libraries, school library collection development, and Resource-based learning.

Introduction

The education sector in Tanzania has undergone radical reforms aimed at expanding access to education and the provision of quality education as the key overall reform objective (Sumra and Rajani,

2006). Access to and provision of quality education is essentially dependent on availability and access to teaching and learning materials. The provision of resources is a major portion of providing a decent education. A key component of the proposed educational reform calls for the establishment of school library resource centres (SLRCs) to give all teachers and learners access to materials that would enhance their teaching and learning experiences. Kargbo (2000) asserts that functional and effective school library programmes are potent factors in providing quality education. School libraries are learning support system pillars in schools to enhance the quality of education that learners receive. The increasing demand for secondary school constructivist student-centred learning (SCL), in which the provision of information resources becomes central to the education process, requires that secondary schools have in place functional libraries.

Given the Government of Tanzania's recognition of the centrality of SLRCs in the learning process and its importance to the educational system, the Education Act of 1978 (as revised in 2002) and the Education (SLRC) Regulations of 2002 were enacted. The Education and Training Policy (ETP) of 1995 was also formulated and a new policy of 2014 developed to lay down the functions of and guidelines for establishing and managing the SLRCs. This was done to formalize the significant role the SLRCs play in the education process in the country. The Education (SLRC) Regulations of 2002 require every school to have a well-resourced library resource centre, managed by a professional librarian. The regulations stipulate the function of the resource centre to be:

- providing support for curricular work and acting as an instructional tool;
- providing support, organization and maintenance of technical equipment for the school;
- providing opportunities for teachers and learners to learn how to use the relevant educational materials, and training in the exploitation of the facilities of a resource centre;

- providing a comprehensive collection of learning materials in different formats, so as to satisfy educational and informational needs and supplementary materials;
- facilitating consultation by the teaching staff on how to select the appropriate materials to achieve their instructional objectives;
- stimulating independent study, developing initiative and creative skills; and
- helping incorporate members of the community into the cultural life of the school (URT, 2002, Section 4)

Context and Scope of the Study

The study focusses on secondary school resource centres in Njombe and Iringa regions, Tanzania. Njombe region was formed in 2012 from Iringa region. The regions (Njombe and Iringa) are located in the Southern Highlands of Tanzania. Iringa region has four administrative districts: Iringa urban, Iringa rural, Mufindi and Kilolo. Njombe has five administrative districts: Njombe urban, Njombe rural, Makete, Ludewa and Wanging'ombe. At the time of the study, Wanging'ombe district was not well established and so the management of secondary schools in the district were done by the Njombe rural education department.

The education and training in Tanzania is undertaken by several ministries, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), communities and individuals. However, the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) has the legal mandate for policy formulation, coordination, monitoring, setting standards, quality assurance and quality control of the whole education system (URT,1995). The MoEVT has a school inspectorate unit that ensures adherence to the set policy, laws, regulations and standards of the education system by owners of schools. The Tanzania Institute of Education is responsible for curriculum development. The Institute prepares the programmes, syllabi and pedagogical materials such as handbooks and laboratory manuals (UNESCO-IBE, 2010/2011). The Local Government Authorities (districts, towns, municipal and city councils), through

the District Education Officers (DEOs) for secondary schools, assume full responsibility for the management and delivery of education services within their areas of competence. To meet the education goals of the country, the focus of the secondary school curriculum is competence based. The syllabi emphasize a learner-centred approach of teaching and learning with the view of enhancing participatory methods of learning. A learner-centred curriculum requires a synergy of all the key educational elements including a state-of the-art resource centre, laboratory, infrastructure and qualified teachers (Kafumu, 2010; UNESCO-IBE, 2010/11). The Education (School Library Resource Centres) Regulations of 2002 stipulate that every school shall engage a full-time, qualified librarian to manage the Resource Centre (URT, 2002). While Library and Information Studies (LIS) education in Tanzania is offered in several institutions, none of these institutions offer school library education as a professional programme. Instead they offer school librarianship as a course within a broad spectrum of LIS courses for certificate, diploma, bachelor and master's programmes. Teachers' education, according to the syllabus, focusses on the development of basic skills in understanding of the subject matter to be taught and inculcating pedagogical skills and competence to be able to teach in a learner-centred approach (Kafumu, 2010). Teachers' education with respect to the role of LIS is rarely emphasized for it is not part of the syllabus.

Statement of the Problem

Libraries are hubs for any learning environment, be it an elementary school or university. The SLRCs are critical to participating fully in supporting teaching and learning and facilitating access to information to enable learners to develop their individual potential. A critical look at the ETP of 1995 and 2014, the Education (SLRC) Regulations 2002, and the implementation of the first phase of Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP) 2004 to 2009 demonstrate that SLRCs are an important part of school life. Furthermore, SLRCs are required in secondary schools to allow learners to reach their full potential. Evidence indicates that learners do better when they have access to a library and use it (Newman,

2003). However, personal observations of the school system in Tanzania show that SLRCs are not doing well; their value in most schools is not clearly understood and their role in the learning process is undermined. Often school libraries are not considered important by school administrators and teachers, even though significant literature on their value exists (Hart & Zinn, 2007). The status of school libraries suggests that not much attention and priority has been placed on the development of SLRCs. The general objective of the study upon which this article is based was to explore the status of secondary school library resource centres in resource-based learning in Iringa and Njombe regions of Tanzania. With this general objective, the specific objectives were, first, to determine the status of school libraries in terms of infrastructure. Second, to explore the status of staffing in school libraries. Third, to find out the status in terms of use and services offered in school libraries. Fourth, to determine the status regarding the information resources. It was assumed that the study would reveal the status of secondary SLRCs in resource-based learning (RBL). The understanding of the status of secondary SLRCs in RBL is fundamental when gauging whether school libraries are instrumental in the educational process.

Policy and Legal Framework for SLRCs in Tanzania

The former Education and Training Policy (ETP) of 1995, the Education Act of 1978, and the Education (SLRC) Regulations (2002) form the basis for the establishment and management of SLRCs in Tanzania. The first ETP of 1995 was formulated to respond to shortcomings inherent in the provision of quality education. It was adopted to provide education that is responsive to the challenges of the day and suitable for the 21st century. Since its adoption in 1995, the policy had been a road map for achieving sufficient and effective education and training in the country. The policy was thought to be capable of guiding, synchronizing and harmonizing all structures, plans and practices; and ensuring access, equity and quality of education provision at all levels. It was also considered a proper and efficient mechanism for the management, administration and financing of education and training (URT 1995: xiii-xiv). In

recognition of the importance of SLRCs in enhancing quality education, the ETP of 1995 states that 'every secondary school shall have a library, adequate stock of books, well trained and competent library personnel' (URT 1995, p. 43). The current ETP of 2014 was a result of improvement and finally removal of all previous educational policies (URT, 2014). Unfortunately, the new ETP of 2014 does not have decisive statements on the provision of school libraries.

The enactment of the Education Act 1978 as amended in 1995 and revised in 2002, the development of the Education (SLRC) Regulations 2002, and the Secondary Education Development Programmes (SEDP) I 2004-2009 (URT, 2004) and II 2010-2015 (URT, 2010) were efforts to activate the policy. They were also important initiatives to address the emerging challenges in the education provision, and manage the implementation of the policy demands. These efforts indicate the willingness of the government to refurbish the secondary education provision and improve the state of secondary education in the country. The Education (SLRC) Regulations of 2002 specify that the funding for SLRCs should be done by the owners of schools through gifts, loans, fees, and grants (URT, 2002). For public schools, in addition to the funding mode described above, the capitation grants are provided by the district governments of which 50% is for teaching and learning materials (SLRCs).

The 2002 Education (SLRC) Regulations have been prepared on the basis of best practices and in line with the IFLA/UNESCO School Library Manifesto (2000) and School Library Guidelines (2002), to underline the Education Act 1978 and ensure appropriate development and management of the SLRCs (URT, 2002). The Education (SLRC) Regulations give directives and guidelines on how to manage the SLRCs in Tanzania. The Education (SLRC) Regulations 2002 are a huge step forward in the development of school libraries in the country. However, the regulations are rarely used because not all schools have libraries and those with libraries are in a lamentable state (Mgina & Lwehabura, 2011). The SEDP I was a major step

towards improving the quality of education. Some of the quality aspects of education include having adequate and appropriate teaching and learning materials in all schools and training librarians to manage schools and college libraries (URT, 2004). A review made of the SEDP I implementation has shown that the programme was successful in equity and access of secondary education (URT, 2010). But, crucially, there appears to be significant shortfalls in the implementation of the quality scenarios of the programme. Specifically, the secondary school library facilities continued to dwindle despite the implementation of the SEDP I (Ntulo & Nawe, 2008; Mgina & Lwehabura, 2011). The development of SEDP II can best be described as another attempt to redress the implementation shortcomings of its predecessor SEDP I. Nevertheless, my experience as education stakeholder shows that since 2010 nothing substantial has been implemented regarding school library development. This situation may lead to the conclusion that despite the ETP and the Education Act 1978 being the frameworks for the establishment of SLRCs in Tanzania, their implementation through the regulations and development programmes has remained a challenge due to a deficit of human and financial resources and lack of political will.

Review of Related Literature

This section aims at putting the study in context and providing an integrated overview of the field of research (Plowright, 2011). This section covers the status of SLRCs in Tanzania and other countries in Africa regarding infrastructure, staffing, and collection development.

School Library Infrastructure

The SLRC needs to have a dedicated building for its services. It should for convenience be located where it is easily accessible by the learners, teachers and communities who would like to use it. It needs to be accessible by everyone including people with disabilities. The size of the SLRC should be determined by the number of users and current and future planned activities in it (Healthlink Worldwide, 2003; Morris, 2010). In resource-based learning (RBL), the library facility is essential for it provides learners and teachers with adequate

teaching and learning materials, equipment used for instructional programmes and flexible space for learning in all aspects of the school curriculum. Most studies point to the centrality of infrastructure and equipment to effectively operate and manage school libraries in Africa (Ajegbomogun & Salaam 2011; Akporhonor, 2005; Hart & Zinn, 2007). A study by Ntulo and Nawe (2008) shows that the school library services in Tanzania do not meet teaching and learning needs due to inadequate, among other things, space and furniture. The same situation was observed ten years back by Rosenberg (1998) whose findings revealed that government-owned secondary and primary schools in Tanzania had no libraries and those that had were almost non-functional. The few existing school libraries were owned by private organizations.

Mgina and Lwehabura (2011) study in the Dodoma region of Tanzania portrays a similar status of school libraries. The study explicitly indicates that there are no decisive efforts to improve the poor conditions of school libraries in the areas of infrastructural development and equipment. Research done by Ajegbomogun and Salaam (2011) on the state of school libraries in Nigeria show that libraries face many problems ranging from declining financial support from the government to inadequate infrastructure and equipment. In the same vein, the World Bank (2008, p. 72) observes a "lack of adequate library premises, which were usually just converted classrooms with insufficient space, shelving, furniture, equipment or security" in francophone countries. A dedicated building for library services is essential to house the equipment, facilities, furniture and space for library staff and users. The location of the building for library services, the design and layout attract users to the library. The IFLA/UNESCO School Library Guidelines (2002, p. 6), emphasising the importance of location and space of SLRCs, state:

> *The strong educational role of the school library must be reflected in the facilities, furniture and equipment. It is of vital importance that the function and use of the school library is incorporated when planning new school buildings and reorganizing existing ones.*

In view of the reviewed literature, particularly that of African studies; one may conclude that the status of school libraries regarding infrastructure and equipment is on the whole gloomy. In the light of this situation, the role of SLRCs in supporting teaching and learning becomes obscured and hence the quality of education is undermined. The bottom line is that a lack of purpose-built SLRCs buildings or absence thereof suggests that the role of school libraries in RBL in the African context is undermined.

Staffing for School Libraries

Most African countries are moving from teacher-centred learning to learner-centred learning (Kafumu, 2010). This mode of teaching and learning requires not only adequate availability of multiple formats of teaching and learning resources but also qualified school librarians to support the learning process. Having a professional school librarian to manage a school library is a must. Morris (2010) points out that school library staff are the basis for a dynamic and effective library and the mainstay of a library programme. The primary role of the school librarian is thus to ensure that the SLRC is an integral part of the curriculum of the school and assumes the role as teacher, instructional partner, information specialist and library programme administrator (Morris, 2010; Woolls, 2010).

In contrast to what is most desired and recommended, in most African countries, the status of staffing for school libraries is a concern. Some studies suggest that the situation is relatively promising in high-cost privately owned schools, where school libraries employ qualified librarians with competitive salaries (Rosenberg, 1998; Otike, 2004). Otherwise, staffing is a great problem. Many schools are run by inadequately trained people and relatively few professional librarians with certificates and/or diplomas in library science (Mgina & Lwehabura, 2011). Poor staffing or staffing a school library with unqualified personnel has a detrimental impact on the use of school libraries and their resources. This is due to the fact that in RBL, where the resources are central to learning, such staff will

not be able to assist teachers and learners to utilize the resources and services of the library. This is because they are not equipped with the requisite education and expertise to fulfil such a responsibility (Ajegbomogun & Salaam, 2011). In the 1990s, this very point was stressed by Bawa (1996) as she says, by not having enough qualified librarians, the work of facilitating and integrating the resources and the curriculum effectively would be halted. The importance of school libraries having appropriate staff to manage the resource centre and offer programmes that are responsive to learners' needs is further stressed by IFLA (2002, p.11) in IFLA/UNESCO's school library guidelines:

> *The richness and quality of the library provision depend upon staffing and resources available within and beyond the school library. For this reason, it is of paramount importance to have a well-trained and highly motivated staff, made up of a sufficient number of members according to the size of the school and its special needs for library services.*

The unsatisfactory staffing conditions in SLRCs in Africa make school libraries fail to support the curricular needs of schools and supporting teaching and learning. In RBL, qualified librarians are a prerequisite not only for effective collection development but also for assisting in the curriculum development, and provision of instructional programmes aimed at learners' information skills development. A professional librarian is the mainstay for engaging learners with resources and assisting teachers in accessing information resources and teaching aids that would enhance teaching and learning. A professional librarian in a school environment is a vital link between learners and teachers and resources. The absence of professional school librarians in secondary schools where RBL is the focus means compromising the quality of education.

School Library Collection Development

School libraries are not just good-looking buildings with staff therein. The beauty and usefulness of school libraries are demonstrated by

adequate and accessible information resources contained in them and user-centred programmes and services. An appropriate, comprehensive collection is one of the attributes that contributes to quality services in any type of library. The collection needs to be balanced in terms of grade level, subject areas, and formats to meet the needs of all users, not just some. The collection and the format should aim at meeting the needs of all users within the school (Healthlink Worldwide, 2003; Simba, 2006).

According to Ajegbomogun and Salaam (2011), the majority of African school libraries have empty book shelves. Where books are available, they are foreign, outdated and irrelevant to the information needs of the learners. Such libraries are considered as warehouses for old books covered with dust. A study by Hoskins (2006b) also revealed that school libraries in KwaZulu-Natal did not provide a wide range of resources, both print and non-print. Emphasizing the poor state of school library collections in Africa, the World Bank (2008, p. 72) in its working paper highlights that:

> *Where library stock exists, it is generally old and often irrelevant to current curricula and teacher/learner interests. More often than not there is virtually no appropriate stock available at all and there are rarely budgets for stock upgrading or replenishment.*

School libraries are seen as a potential place for children to develop the habit of reading and perhaps eliminate illiteracy (Dent, 2006) and support child-centred learning (Magara & Nyumba, 2004). With most school library collections being obsolete (Adeyemi, 2010) the purpose of the creation of libraries in schools is defeated by the poor collection. This state of affairs makes school libraries marginal to the teaching and learning process. Schools are better placed for children in their early years to develop a culture of reading and acquire literacy skills, especially where there is no tradition of reading in the home. However, when school libraries are underfunded, inadequately staffed and poorly stocked, it cannot be expected that

children will develop a love of reading (Anderson & Matthew, 2010). It is unfortunate that the situation is further exacerbated by the dwindling budgets of schools due to government failure to provide funds for school library development (Magara & Batambuze, 2009).

RBL demands that SLRCs have in place adequate and curriculum based print and non-print information resources and qualified human resources. It is the resources and facilities that are capable of supporting learning and enhancing active involvement in the learning process by learners. Schools that are inadequately stocked with reading and learning materials of various formats, or schools that have irrelevant and obsolete materials for learning, end up not meeting the demands of the resource-based curricula. Undoubtedly, the education of the learners would be undermined.

Methodology

The current study used a mixed method approach to exploit the insights and strengths of both quantitative and qualitative methods and thus increase the overall confidence in the findings of the study (Ngulube, 2010). A cross-sectional descriptive survey design was employed to investigate the status of secondary SLRCs in resource-based learning in Njombe and Iringa regions. Four districts from each of the region were included in the study. The districts for Iringa region were Iringa urban and rural, Kilolo and Mufindi. Njombe region had the following districts: Njombe urban and rural, Makete and Ludewa. These regions and districts were chosen because they had all categories of schools and they had schools located in urban, semi urban and rural areas. The descriptive survey design was instrumental to describe and portray an accurate profile of the problem under investigation (Connaway & Powell, 2010) and thus served as a direct source of valuable knowledge (Singh, 2006). A stratified sampling technique was used to draw 148 participants from a population of 245 heads of schools. The population and the sample sizes for each stratum are shown in Table 1 below. Seminary schools are non-government schools but in this study are placed into different

stratum from non-government schools because it is believed that they are better placed in terms of library facility.

Table 1: Population and sample size of heads of secondary schools

District	Government		Community		Non-Government		Seminary		Totals	
	Population	Sample	Population	Sample	Population	Sample	Population	Sample	Population	Sample
Iringa Urban	2	1	10	6	12	7	1	1	**25**	**15**
Iringa Rural	3	2	24	15	4	2	-	-	**31**	**19**
Kilolo	-	-	24	15	10	6	-	-	**34**	**21**
Mufindi	1	1	43	26	6	4	3	1	**53**	**32**
Njombe Urban	1	0	12	7	13	8	1	1	**27**	**16**
Njombe Rural	-	-	31	18	5	3	1	1	**37**	**22**
Makete	-	-	16	10	2	1	-	-	**18**	**11**
Ludewa	-	-	18	11	2	1	-	-	**20**	**12**
Totals	**7**	**4**	**178**	**107**	**54**	**33**	**6**	**4**	**245**	**148**

Source: Researcher 2020

Of 148 heads of schools from community, government, private and seminary secondary schools surveyed, 140 completed the questionnaires yielding a high response rate of 94.6%. A census was used to draw District Education Officers (DEO) for secondary schools. All eight DEO for secondary schools from eight districts were interviewed. Two data collection instruments, semi-structured interviews and a questionnaire were used to collect data to answer the research question. Prior to the administration of the instruments to the sample population, they were peer reviewed and pre-tested to ensure clarity of instructions, layout of questions. The process helped also to identifying ambiguous and unclear questions, determining if relevant questions had been omitted, eliminating difficult questions for respondents, and collecting comments from the respondents (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). As a result of the pre-test, changes were made to the questions. While the self-administered questionnaires were directed to the heads of secondary schools, the

semi-structured interviews were orally administered to DEOs for secondary schools. The qualitative data were analysed using content analysis. The data collected were reviewed and preliminary codes were assigned to the data in order to describe the content. Patterns or themes in the codes across the data were sought. The themes were reviewed, defined and named. For numerical data the analysis was done using descriptive statistics to describe and summarize data.

The Results and Discussion of the Survey

This section discusses the findings from the cross-sectional descriptive survey design.

A General Condition of SLRCs

A sample of 140 heads of secondary schools drawn from all categories of schools for the study was asked to indicate whether they had a SLRC. A high percentage of heads, 87 (62.1%), indicated that their schools had no library resource centres and 53 (37.9%) indicated that they had. The results further showed that a majority of community secondary schools (80; 57.1%) had no library resource centres, and private secondary schools had the highest number of schools with libraries (26; 18.6%). The number of schools without libraries is alarming, suggesting that SLRCs in Iringa and Njombe regions are not prioritized. Further questions asked to the heads of secondary schools without SLRCs included: reasons for not having SLRC; about any plan to set up a school library; and how soon did they intend to set up the library. Table 2 indicates the results.

Table 2: Reasons for not having a SLRC and a plan to set it up
N=87

Statement	Response	Category of school				Total
		Com	Gov	Priv	Sem	
Reason for not having a SLRC	Not a priority	2	0	0	0	2
	Inadequate funds	77	1	6	0	84
	Under construction	1	0	0	0	1
Do you have a plan to set up a SLRC?	Yes	77	1	6	0	84
	No	3	0	0	0	3
How soon do you intend to Set up a SLRC?	Starting this year	2	0	0	0	2
	When funds are available	66	1	4	0	71
	Next year	4	0	2	0	6
	I do not know	8	0	0	0	8

Key: Com - Community; Gov - Government; Priv – Private; Sem - Seminary

Of 87 respondents, 84 (96.6%) indicated that the reason for not having SLRCs was inadequate funds; a majority of them were community schools (77; 88.5%). Two (2.3%) heads indicated that a SLRC was not a priority. A total of 84 (96.6%) respondents were planning to set up a school library and only three (3.4%) had no plan to set up a school library. The findings further indicate that 71 (81.6%) respondents were planning to set up a school library when funds were made available and 8 (9.2%) respondents did not know. Given that the major constraint facing schools is inadequate funds, secondary schools' plans to set up SLRCs when funds are made available are unrealistic.

Status of SLRCs Regarding Infrastructure and Equipment

Three questions were asked to heads of secondary schools with libraries. The questions focused on the status of SLRCs in terms of the type of a SLRC, furniture and equipment that facilitated access to information. Table 3 reflects the results.

Table 3: Status of SLRCs regarding infrastructure and equipment

N=53

Statement	Response	Category of school				Total
		Com	Gov	Priv	Sem	
Type of a school library	Purpose built	6	3	16	3	28
	Classroom	12	0	6	0	18
	Storage	1	0	3	1	5
	Teacher's office	1	0	1	0	2
The SLRC has all furniture for users, staff, shelving and displays	Strongly agree	1	0	3	1	5
	Agree	10	1	17	3	31
	No opinion	0	0	0	0	0
	Disagree	9	2	5	0	16
	Strongly disagree	0	0	1	0	1
The SLRC has computers, TV set photocopiers, Videos and printers	Strongly agree	0	0	1	0	1
	Agree	2	0	5	3	10
	No opinion	1	0	2	1	4
	Disagree	9	2	14	0	25
	Strongly disagree	8	1	4	0	13

Infrastructure such as library buildings, furniture and equipment are prerequisites for the provision of school library services in secondary schools. The findings indicate a few of schools with libraries: (28; 52.8%), had purpose-built libraries with space for library staff, users, shelving and other services, and 18 (34%) used classrooms as libraries to keep books and provide learners with reading space. Also, the findings indicate that private schools (16; 30.2%), had more purpose-built libraries than other categories. A few respondents (31; 58.5%), agreed that the library had all the required furniture. The findings further show that the largest proportion of respondents (38; 71.7%), either disagreed or strongly disagreed that their libraries had equipment such as computers, printers, photocopiers, video machines and televisions to facilitate library services. 11; 20.8% of the

respondents either strongly agreed or agreed that their libraries had such equipment to facilitate library services. This study argues that the use of classrooms, teachers' offices and stores for libraries do not conform to the requirements for libraries and cannot house all library services required for learners and teachers in secondary schools. It is clear that the use of these structures contravenes the Education (SLRC) Regulations 2002 which require that every school library to be established in premises exclusively set aside and designed for such purposes (URT, 2002). This practice hampers the effective operation and management of the school library and undermines RBL in secondary schools. Lack of essential equipment such as computers, printers, photocopiers, video machines and televisions in most schools implies that school libraries are lagging behind as far as technology is concerned. This prevents learners from engaging with technology and accessing information in diverse formats.

Status of SLRCs Regarding Staffing

The heads of secondary schools were asked three questions regarding staffing for SLRCs. Table 4 below shows the respondents' description of the type, number and qualifications of staff managing the SLRCs.

Table 4: Status of SLRCs regarding staffing for SLRCs N=53

Statement	**Response**	**Category of school**				**Total**
		Com	**Gov**	**Priv**	**Sem**	
Who manages a SLRC?	Full time Teacher-librarian	1	0	0	1	2
	School librarian	3	2	12	2	19
	Teacher chosen by school	14	1	11	0	26
	Temporary employee	2	0	1	1	4
	Staff other than a teacher	0	0	2	0	2
Number of staff working in a SLRC	One staff	16	3	19	3	41
	Two staff	4	0	7	1	12
	Three	0	0	0	0	0

	More than three	0	0	0	0	0
Qualification of staff working in a SLRC	No library qualification	14	0	12	1	27
	Elementary in LIS	6	2	8	1	17
	Certificate in LIS	0	1	6	2	9
	Diploma in LIS	0	0	0	0	0
	Bachelor in LIS	0	0	0	0	0

School libraries are vital educational institutions, requiring an appropriate management system to enable them to achieve the goals for which they were established. The success of school library services or programmes, regardless of how well designed, depends on the quality and number of staff responsible for such programmes (American Association of School Libraries, 2005). Morris (2010) asserts that library staff are the basis for a dynamic and effective library and mainstay of a library programme. Secondary school libraries need to have in place a well-educated professional librarian to manage the library and deliver quality service to users. In the same spirit, the Education (SLRC) Regulations of 2002, in recognition of the importance of staffing the school library, state that every school library should engage a full-time qualified library staff to [man] the resource centre (URT, 2002).

Contrary to the regulations, the findings revealed that of 53 heads, 26 (49.1%) indicated that their school libraries were managed by teachers chosen by schools and allocated some hours to manage libraries. 19 (35.8%) heads of schools stated that their school libraries were managed by school librarians. The majority of school librarians, 12 (63.2%), were from private schools. The findings also show that a majority of SLRCs, 41 (77.4%), had only one staff member and 12 (22.6%) had two staff members. A few of heads, 27 (50.9%), described the qualification of persons working in the school library as having no library qualifications. Seventeen (32.1%) had elementary studies in Library Science, and 9 (17%) had a certificate in Library Science. The findings show that no staff held a Bachelor or Diploma in Library

Science. Therefore, many SLRCs were managed by unqualified staff and their number in every library does not suffice. Low library qualifications among staff, and the shortage of library staff working in the school libraries are arguably indicators that schools accord a low priority to libraries and that library services are considered unimportant in secondary schools. Secondary school libraries require knowledgeable, skilled and enthusiastic staff to ensure that they remain integral to the education process (Morris, 2010).

Status of SLRCs regarding the use of SLRCs and services offered
Four questions were asked concerning the users, extent of use by the students, days the SLRCs were opened, and services offered. Table 5 provides the results.

Table 5: The use of a SLRC and services offered

N=53

Statement	Response	Category of school				Total
		Com	Gov	Priv	Sem	
Users of a SLRC	Students	0	0	1	0	1
	Teachers and students	19	3	25	3	50
	School community and others	1	0	0	1	2
Extent of use of SLRC by students	Not at all	0	0	1	0	1
	Used occasionally	3	0	2	0	5
	Used moderately	12	2	14	1	29
	Excellently used	5	1	8	3	17
	Not sure	0	0	1	0	1
Days a SLRC is opened per week	Once per week	0	0	1	0	1
	Twice per week	1	0	0	0	1
	Three days per week	1	0	0	0	1
	Four days per week	1	0	1	1	3
	Every working day	17	3	24	3	47
Services offered (multiple response)	Lending	18	3	26	3	50
	Reference	13	1	19	4	37
	User education	0	1	8	3	12
	Audio-visual	1	0	1	1	3
	Computer (Internet) access	1	0	0	1	2

The main objective of a school library is to enhance information access and improve the learning process for learners (Morris, 2010). Therefore, school libraries are critical institutions to facilitate RBL by not only collecting materials of various formats to support the curriculum, but also in making them available and accessible to learners and teachers through library information services and the provision of user education. Of the 53 respondents, 50 (94.3%) from all categories of schools responded that the school library was mostly used by teachers and learners. Regarding the extent of use, while twenty-nine (54.7%) of respondents indicated that the school library was used moderately, 17 (32.1%) indicated that the library was well used. Regarding the number of days their school libraries operated per week, the findings indicated that 40 (88.7%) responded that libraries were opened every working day and three (5.7%) said they were opened four days per week. The results further indicated that the services that were mostly offered by school libraries were lending, 50 (94.3%), and reference, 37 (69.8%).

Status of SLRCs Regarding Information Resources

The heads of schools were asked about the resources available in their SLRCs, adequacy, quality and currency (timeliness) of the resources. Table 6 reflects the results.

Table 6: Status of SLRCs regarding information resources

N=53

Statement	Response	Category of school				Total
		Com	Gov	Priv	Sem	
Resources available (multiple response)	Reference collection	17	3	21	4	45
	Curriculum books	17	3	20	4	44
	Non-curriculum books	13	2	18	4	37
	Fiction	6	2	16	3	27
	Newspapers	4	3	13	4	24
	Journals (print)	6	1	7	2	16
	Audio-visual materials	2	0	7	1	10
	Electronic resources	1	0	0	0	1
The SLRC has adequate	Strongly agree	1	0	4	1	6

Resources	Agree	12	0	15	3	30
	No opinion	1	0	2	0	3
	Disagree	6	3	5	0	14
	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0
Quality of library resources	Very good	0	0	0	3	3
	Good	18	2	20	4	44
	No opinion	1	1	2	0	4
	Poor	1	0	1	0	2
	Very poor	0	0	0	0	0
Currency of resources	Very up-to-date	0	0	4	0	4
	Somewhat up-to-date	14	2	17	4	37
	No opinion	3	0	3	0	6
	Somewhat out-of-date	2	1	2	0	5
	Very out-of-date	1	0	0	0	1

The potency of the school library lies in the comprehensiveness and currency of its collection. In order to determine the ability of a secondary school library to provide for the information needs of learners and teachers, the study explored the adequacy, type, currency, and quality of teaching and learning materials provided by the library. Resources described by respondents as mostly available in the school library were reference sources (45; 84.8%), curriculum books (44; 83%), non-curriculum books (37; 69.8%), fiction (27; 50.9%), and newspapers (23; 45.3%). The least available resources were print journals (16; 30.2%), audio-visual materials (video and sound tapes, CDs, DVDs and cassettes) (10; 18.8%), and electronic resources (One; 1.9%). Generally, a majority of respondents, 36 (67.9%), either strongly agreed or agreed that the SLRC had adequate resources for learners and teachers. Fourteen (26.4%) respondents disagreed that the SLRCs had adequate resources for learners and teachers. A comparison between categories of schools indicated that respondents from private schools had the highest response percentage of strongly agree and agree (19; 35.8%). The highest percentage of respondents, (47; 88.7%), rated the quality of resources available in the school library as either very good or good. A few respondents, (2; 3.8%), rated the quality of resources available in the school library as poor.

Of 53 respondents, 37 (69.8%) rated the currency of school library resources as somehow up-to-date and 6 (11.3%) had no opinion. While only 4 (7.5%) respondents from private schools rated the currency of resources in their school library as very up-to-date, 17 (32%) respondents from the same category of schools rated the currency of resources as somehow up-to-date. The findings suggest that the collection was not comprehensive and thus the adequacy of resource is questionable. However, the quality of resources in these libraries was relatively good and the currency of resources was somehow up-to-date. The findings are in line with other studies that describe the collection development in most African schools to be poor (Ajegbomogun & Salaam, 2011; Mgina & Lwehabura; World Bank, 2008).

The Status of SCLRs according to the DEOs

The semi-structured interview with the DEOs for secondary schools contained questions regarding the status of SLRCs in terms of infrastructure, staffing, services and information resources. All eight DEOs for secondary schools responded to the interview. Generally, the results of the interview with the DEOs for Secondary Schools revealed that the status of SLRCs was not good. Specifically, the responses of the DEOs regarding the status of secondary school library resource centres are summarized below: most secondary schools had no libraries; schools with libraries had inadequate teaching and learning materials; some government owned schools had old libraries which were in bad shape and needed renovation. Other responses included: schools with functional libraries provided lending services to learners; some school libraries did not have sufficient furniture, equipment and requisite technology for learners; most schools with libraries did not have qualified librarians to manage them; and while the results of the interview showed that the private and seminary schools were comparatively doing well; the community schools lagged behind in delivering quality library services.

Conclusions and Recommendations

In conclusion, the purpose of the article was to explore the status of secondary school library provision as an integral part of the education process. The process of investigation highlighted the poor condition of SLRCs. Most secondary schools function without libraries and in schools where libraries do exist; they are staffed by unqualified librarians and are not well-resourced. Some secondary schools had no purpose-built libraries and had a shortage of equipment that facilitates access to information. The services provided to these schools were not responsive to learners' needs. In view of the results and discussion of data it was found that secondary SLRCs in Iringa and Njombe regions have not been excelling in providing responsive services and programmes to secondary school communities. Given the poor condition of SLRCs, their role as supportive systems in the education process in competently and effectively facilitating RBL is undermined. This phenomenon has a detrimental impact on the quality of education for learners.

Finally, in order for SLRCs to contribute to RBL and quality education, the government must make SLRCs a priority and provide them with the necessary human, infrastructural and financial support. A mechanism should be in place to reinforce the implementation of the ETP of 1995 and the Education (SLRC) Regulations of 2002, consequently improve the SLRCs provision in secondary schools.

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Assessing the Nature and Impact of Organisational Communication in Government Secondary Schools in Tanzania

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Abstract

This study was conducted in order to investigate the behaviour of heads of secondary schools in how they use the administrative competence of communication and the impact of the observed communication practices to the objectives of organizational communication. Specifically, the study assessed how heads of schools are utilising specific skills for communication and how communication in schools is impacting teachers' performance. The study involved 326 teachers, twenty head of secondary schools, from twenty government secondary schools and two educational officers from Makete and Morogoro districts in Tanzania. Questionnaires and interviews were used to collect data. The quantitative data were analysed using computer software, Statistical Package for Social Sciences, version 18, in which frequencies and percentages of responses from respondents were computed. Qualitative data gained from interviews were analysed in themes according to the research objectives. The findings indicated that poor communication dominated in most of studied schools and heads of schools were found not competent in effective communication. On the ways of improving organisational communication in schools, Heads of secondary schools recommended, among other things, training organisational communication because they acknowledged the importance of communication in carrying out day-to-day administrative responsibilities.

Key words: Organisational Communication, Communication objectives, school Effectiveness

Introduction

Organizational communication is indispensable in any organization due to the fact that it allows each member in the organization to know the objectives of the organisation and what contribution is expected from each of them for the attainment of the organisational objectives. People in organization can generally increase production and commitment if they are able to communicate both horizontally and vertically to share information, experience and expectations. It is clearly explained that organisations, including schools cannot be effective if the issue of effective communication is not taken seriously (Lombardo, 2018; Juneja, 2016). Managers and administrators of the education system and schools, through communication, are required to ensure that the curriculum is understood and effectively implemented; resources are mobilised and equitably distributed and expended and policies for the school infrastructures are well understood and adequately implemented (URT, 2010). To manage organisations, schools included, require effective administrators who possess communication skills and competencies enabling them to function efficiently. It is through effective organisational communication, queries are clarified, trust is built, commitment is gained, community spirit is augmented, uncertainties are reduced, participation is enhanced and constructive feedback at work place is nurtured (Femi, 2014).

Referring to administrative competences, Koschmann (2012) clearly stipulated that an effective administrator must be competent in organisational and communication skills, client and business sensitive, planning skills, team builder and player and should possess judgement skills. It is now clear that effectiveness of schools, as organisations, will largely depend on how heads of schools apply the competence of communication. It is through effective communication, trust, commitment, satisfaction and motivation, to mention few, can be achieved. Thus, this study was specifically designed to investigate the impact of organizational communication on secondary school effectiveness. Specifically, the study sought to achieve two specific objectives: first, to assess how organizational communication in

secondary school is taking place and secondly, to analyse the bearing of the observed communication practises on the objective of organisational communication of conflict resolution, building community, trust, commitment, career development, participation and feedback in an organisation.

Literature Review

In the social context, two or more people cannot stay together without communicating. As such communication is very important employers, management and employees in any organisation to enable successful performance of different organisational duties. Kreps (1990) defined Organizational communication as the process whereby members gather important information about their organization, their duties and changes the organisation is expecting to bring about so as to ensure the objectives of the organisation are achieved. It is accepted that organisational communication has two main objectives: providing information to employee on what the organisation expecting from them and about policies guiding their performance and relationships and the second objective is form a community of members of the organisation (De Ridder, 2003; Chen et al., 2005).

Organisational communication is one of management aspects which have been widely studied to check on its effect on organisational effectiveness. Morley, et al. (2002) asserts that organisations which develop effective communication processes are more likely to both have positive work environment and more effective in achieving their objectives. Zwijze-Koning and de Jong (2005) emphasized the central position of communication to the achievements of any organisation. At the same time, Schyns and Schilling, 2013; Tourish, 2013 underscore that dysfunctional or destructive communication in organisations are always disastrous to organisational performance and success. In addition, (Husein, 2013) argue that communication is one of the major elements for successful change or reform. Organisations in general and schools in particular have two forms of communication. The first form of communication is external

communication which is directed to the actors in the business environment such as parents, the school board members and system managers at district, regional and system levels (Eunson, 2016). Those who are served by the school should know what, how and what means the school is doing and for what objectives to be achieved. At the same time, system managers and other school resources provider should be aware of how resources in schools are used. Also, the beneficiaries of schools, e.g., employers should know the quality of education being provided by the school and all of these are achieved through external communication. The second form of communication is internal communication which is directed to employees, meaning between head of the school and his or her staff members. Staff members should know policies guiding schools, their tasks and responsibilities and to whom and the school is accountable.

Lombardo (2018) stipulated out two typologies of organizational communication which are upward communication and downward communication. Upward communication is the type of communication in which information flows upward in an organization and usually feedback is required. If heads of an organization are able to listen to their employees and give feedback, this leads to an increase in employee job satisfaction and effectiveness in daily activities. The other type is downward communication in which information flowing down from heads of organization to different parts of the organisation. However, the dominance of upward communication reduces work efficiency and staff members feel not part of decisions. Alshurideh, *et al*. (2016) identifies the third type of communication in organisation as horizontal communication in which the flow of information is shared among employees who are on the same level of the organization. This type of directional communication enables people to interact with their peers without involving people at upper levels in the organisation. In schools, such communication allows teachers from different units and departments to share experiences related to their teaching responsibilities and tasks, students and resources. This type of

communication reinforces cooperation, commitment and teamwork on matters related to teaching, students' discipline and talents and the joint use of resources which are scarce. As a tool of management, organizational communication needs managers to establish an effective communication system which will connect all members of organization (Spaho, 2007). Downward, upward and horizontal communication networks are important in an organisation if communication has to be effective. In a school for example, staff members and other stakeholders are expected to communicate within themselves in different departments and units of the school, with parents and with the head of school (Lombardo, 2018). According to Lombardo, effective organisational communication motivates employee and increases morale, productivity and commitment.

As Spaho, (2007) pointed out, for communication to be effective, it has to target to achieve a number of objectives which are enshrined in the positive organisational culture. Femi (2014) outlines seven objectives of an effective organisational communication which include community spirit, trust, employee participation, employee commitment, lesser uncertainty, settling employees' queries and feedback. If organisational communication is not addressing these objectives, the effectiveness of organisations will remain a wishful thinking. It is by addressing these objectives for communication, administrator and managers of organisations, including schools can demonstrate to be competent in communication. In the first place, communication should address the queries of employees. A good manager is also a good communicator because communication addresses the information of employees, the management of changes and the motivation of employees (Dolphin, 2005). Effective communication means that all members of the organization, at all levels, understand the need for organisational change and that change is the only way to bring about organisational competitiveness and development. As such, communication should address queries of employees on matters of what each member should do, with what, when and to achieve which objectives. Another aspect

communication should address is how to generate community spirit. According to De Ridder (2003), community spirit is an important precursor of the self-categorization process, which helps to define the identity of individuals in a group and to generate a community spirit, resulting into the organisational culture of performance and commitment. It this community expressed by De Ridder, (2003) and Postmes *et al.,* (2001) as the community of which fits into organizational requirements of a school. Back in 1994, Sergiovanni argued for a school community which will bind together teachers, parents and students and other stakeholders. The school community of which is described as one which is self-understanding committed to higher performance and bound together by shared values, and by ideals of togetherness as opposed to individualistic tendencies. Schools should not be conceived as formal organisations but they should strive to become communities by kinship, which means transforming from being mere organisations to become communities of kinship which he called *gemeinschaft*, meaning communal, with shared values; democracy in which all stakeholders will be invited to share the responsibility for regulating their own behaviour.

As such, the head of the school through communication will be redefining their relationships to build a caring community with support from parents and other stakeholders. Furthermore, to become an effective communicator, the manager should build trust between management and subordinates. Trust is said to be the dominant perspective in literature (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001) which results in unique outcomes of positive attitudes, higher levels of cooperation, and higher levels of performance (Jones & George, 1998). Chia (2005) affirmatively states that trust makes subordinates to be keen on information they receive related to work, making them committed because communication makes the relationship among employees good. Trust is built and conveyed through effective communication through openness and concern (Mishra & Mishra, 1994). Communication practices within an organization are expected to have an important influence on the degree to which employees trust

their managers and the organization's top echelon, as well as their commitment to the organization. Organisational communication should also target at motivating the employees. Motivation is a drive in an individual which consistent with energy, direction and sustainability (Kroth, 2007). It is argued with support from research findings that good or effective communication is an effective tool for commitment of employees to the work to improve performance. This relationship of good communication and improved performance is proved by studies which show that adequacy of information which is provided by the organization becomes an encourager and contributes to an employees' job satisfaction (Luecke, 2003). This is quite obvious since, as observed previously, communication addresses employees' queries which might hinder satisfaction and motivation.

Furthermore, communication should aim at facilitating, encouraging and empowering employees to participate and be involved in decision making. A study by Parker et al. (1997) showed that employee participation is associated with higher job satisfaction and improved performance when they have opportunities to provide input into how decisions are made. Hyo-Sook (2003) stated that excellent organizations enclose management structures that empower employees' participation in decision-making. It is argued by Parker et al. (1997) that increased participation in decision-making by junior staff has been found to have a positive effect on the efficiency of the decision-making process. Employees who participate in the decision-making process have higher levels of satisfaction and commitment to the organization. It goes without saying that participation is facilitated by communication. When discussing some issues that effective communication should address, we have cited employee commitment. A number of studies have highly associated commitment employee with voice, ideas and arguments which are related to their concerns (Husein, 2013). It will be impossible for employees to be committed to work when they have little knowledge and understanding of what to do and what they will gain from the work. Communication needs to be effective so that at any time in the

production process confusion is avoided through clear, accurate and honest information, by using a variety of media with high coverage and impact (Abraham et al., 1999). For example, it is impossible for teachers, even students, to be committed to a school project if they lack information on what the project wants to achieve and what will be the benefits from the project. Reduction of uncertainty is another important issue communication should achieve especially during the time of introducing change. It is pointed out by Terry and Jimmieson, (1999) that information is not only a pre-requisite to the ability of influencing the outcomes. In education for example and in developing countries in particular, change and reforms are inevitable. As such, knowledge about the motives for change and reforms will definitely facilitates reducing uncertainty and creating readiness for change. Effective change communication can be viewed as a way to manage uncertainty. Unfortunately, many reforms in education have failed to achieve their objectives because teachers at the school level who are implementers of change, are not well informed of change process and of the objective of change or reform (Mulengeki, 2014).

The last but not least is the provision of feedback. A good communicator waits and sometimes solicits feedback to be assured that communication has taken place. Without feedback, one cannot be sure whether the information has reached the receiver and whether it has been properly understood (Husein, 2013). The feedback can tell the sender either to supplement the earlier provided information to make it clear and avoid distortion. Without feedback, different employees can have different perception on the information given and thus, different responses taken and this will definitely result into the failure to achieve the objective of the organisation. An effective administrator will wait for feedback before implementation is started and when implementation is taking place. If feedback is not sought, heads of schools might think they are saying one thing while teachers and other stakeholders feel they mean something entirely different. This can have detrimental effects on the organisation performance (Korde, 2018). For example, teachers can get halfway

through a school project and find out they misheard the directions. This impacts time and money spent for the teacher to finish the project. Communication contributes to the overall bottom line, so heads of schools should recognize its connection to teachers' performance, and create strategies to improve lapses in communication. It is this type of the situation of not waiting for feedback when education stakeholders in Tanzania had different understanding of the vision which was expressed in Education for Self-reliance (ESR) (Mosha, 1983). According to Mosha, some though ESR is *shamba* work, others thought it is about culture and traditional dances, some understood ESR as outside the classroom activities and others perceived it as a political initiative to prepare Tanzanians for rural life.

Research on organisational communication has revealed a number of things including lack of communication competence among managers (Johansson, 2007); majority of managers perceiving communication as only means of transmission of information rather than a management tool (Spaho, 2007); downward (top-down) communication to dominate other types of communication, making managers unable to exploit other types, media and modes of communication which are effective in making the organization improve (Spaho, op ct.); middle managers or supervisors at different levels in organizations not having enough knowledge of co-workers or other middle managers responsibilities and their boundaries in the organization, things which bring gap of information vital for whole organisational development (Richmond *et al*., 2005). Studies on the contribution of organisational communication to school effectiveness revealed that effective organisational communication depend on school culture, communication abilities of the head of school and the school structure (Arlesting, 2008). Papescu and Olteanu (2014) studied the effect of internal communication in educational institutions and discovered the underutilisation of some modes of communication especially information technology (IT) in developing dialogue on important organisational issues which required

involvement of majority of employee but which require immediate decisions. While organisational communication is observed as vital to organisational development due to improved performance of employees, still this competence is not exploited because administrators and managers, including heads of schools, are lacking skills for effective communication.

Methodology

The mixed approach was used in this study in which both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to collect and analyse data. The adoption of this approach was based on two reasons: First, one among the objective of this study sought to collect data which were in numerical form from the participants. Secondly, the study sought to collect data on the perception of members on communication process and the value judgement of staff members on how good or bad is the head of the school when it comes to communication. Descriptive survey design was used and this allowed the researchers to collect data leading to an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon (Gall, et al.1996). The study was conducted in two districts of Makete and Morogoro located in Njombe and Morogoro regions respectively. Participants in this study were 326 teachers from twenty government secondary schools, twenty heads of secondary schools and two district education officers from Makete and Morogoro districts. The two regions were randomly selected to represent rural (Makete) and urban (Morogoro) environment. Questionnaire to teachers and interviews to heads of schools and education officers were the instruments used to collect data. The quantitative data were analyzed using computer software: Statistical Package for Social Sciences, version 18, in which frequencies and percentages of responses on the communication behaviours of heads of schools and on the impact of organizational communication to the communication objectives were computed. The qualitative information collected through interview were organised in themes according to research objectives.

Findings

Findings are presented in two subsections. The first subsection presents data on how heads of school are using the communication competence in their schools, i.e., the nature of communication. The second subsection is on the extent to which the organisational communication objectives have been achieved in schools.

The use of Communication Competence

Competence in communication can be demonstrated through a number of behavioural characteristics known as skills or abilities. In this study, nine behavioural characteristics related to communication were studied. Teachers were asked to agree or disagree to the statements which assessed the way heads of schools were communicating to subordinates and other stakeholders. Table 1 provides the assessment of teachers on the behaviour of heads of schools on the aspect of communication.

Table 1: Nature of Organisational Communication in Schools

Behaviour	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Decided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Provides information timely, accurately and appropriately	50 (15.3%)	99 (30.4%)	4 (1.2%)	144 (44.2%)	29 (8.9%)	326 (100.0%)
Expresses well both orally and written	41 (12.6%)	104 (31.9%)	9 (2.8%)	143 (43.9%)	29 (8.9%)	326 (100.0%)
Builds convincing arguments	29 (8.9%)	99 (30.4%)	10 (3.1%)	151 (46.3%)	37 (11.3%)	326 (100.0%)
Listen ideas very carefully and respectively	28 (8.6%)	91 (27.9%)	6 (1.8%0	150 (46.0%)	51 (15.6%0	326 (100.0%)
Ensure information is correctly understood	37 (11.3%)	85 (26.1%)	6 (1.8%)	135 (41.4%)	63 (19.3%)	326 (100.0%0
Very open when explaining issues	39 (12.0%)	70	7 (2.1%)	123 (37.7%)	87 (26.7%)	326

		(21.5%)				(100.0%)
Ready to be asked and ready to provide answers	31 (9.5%)	85 (26.1%)	8 (2.5%)	111 (34.0%)	91 (27.9%)	326 (100.0%)
Always involve others in generating new ideas	36 (11.0%)	75 (23.0%)	13 (4.0%)	95 (29.1%)	107 (32.8%)	326 (100.0%)
Ready to accept defeat by juniors	26 (8.0%)	68 (20.9%)	18 (5.5%)	105 (32.2%)	109 (33.4%)	326 (100.0%)

Table 1 summarises the findings on the nature of communication in surveyed schools in Makete and Morogoro districts in Tanzania. On the communication skill of providing information timely, accurately and appropriately, the data revealed that less than half of participants (149 out 0f 326) either agreed or strongly agreed that their head of schools provides information timely, accurate and appropriately. However, the majority of respondents assessed their heads of schools not providing information timely, accurately and appropriately since 53% either disagreed or strongly disagreed heads of schools to provide information timely, accurately and appropriately. The above finding can be interpreted that either information was provided late giving employees no time to prepare themselves for tasks ahead and sometimes, falsified, meaning some information was suppressed.

Effective heads of schools are expected to be good in expressing themselves. As such, this study wanted to find how heads of secondary schools express themselves both orally and in writing. Results in Table 1 indicated that very few which is 12.6% who makes a total number of 41 respondents out of 326 strongly agreed that the heads of their secondary schools are able to express themselves well both orally and in writing. Nevertheless, 104 respondents out of 326 which make total percent of 31.9 agreed that their head of secondary school can express themselves both orally and in writing. Also, very few participants which are nine out of 326 which make a total percent of 2.8 they were not decided whether their head of secondary school

are able to express themselves. Generally, the results indicate that 55.6% of respondents disagreed that heads of their secondary schools can express themselves well.

Good expression goes together with convincing language and arguments. Convincing language and arguments is a sign of confidence and competence in leadership. A leader cannot build and shared a vision if she/he fails to explain and convince. Table 1 indicates that very few respondents who are 29 respondents out of 326 respondents which is 8.9% strongly agreed that their head of secondary school can builds convincing arguments. Also 99 respondents out of 326 respondents which are 30.4% agreed on the statement that their head of secondary school can builds convincing arguments. Ten respondents out of 326 respondents were not decided on whether their head of secondary school do builds convincing arguments or not. More than half of the respondents either strongly disagreed (37) or disagreed (150) on the statement which said that head of secondary schools builds convincing arguments. This makes the percentage of those who are on the negative side of the statement to be 60.7%.

In management, you either convince or force and to convince requires confidence. These observations had an indication of having a good number of heads of schools who, instead of convincing, they confuse and command and builds fear to subordinates because, they themselves have no confidence. Lack of confidence to some of heads of schools was confirmed by data from interviews. In interviews, teachers showed that a good number of heads of schools are incompetent, lacking confidence and always defensive, a sign of inferiority complex. One teacher said: *"I have come to conclude that heads of schools are appointed without ensuring they are good academically and professionally"*. Another said that competent, qualified and experienced teachers are not appointed and instead, inexperienced or incompetent are appointed heads. *"How do you expect one not understanding himself give meaningful information to others which is clear, constructive and straightforward? He will resort to giving orders and*

confusing statement and when it is too late. Experienced and confident teachers are seldomly appointed as heads".

Being incompetent and not confidence is some of behaviours which were observed to some of heads of schools. Being doubtful and feeling inferior felt by some heads of school could be signs of inexperience and incompetence. On this aspect, one teacher said what seems to summarise what others said. He said:

> *.... In providing information you need to be sure of what you are communicating and being careful because we teachers are always teasing. In many cases we see no difference between some of inexperienced teachers in this school and our head and, he [the head aster] knows this. In many schools you find subordinate teachers to be good than their boss. In about three schools which I happened to teach, heads fail to communicate and cannot choose words or explain something clearly. They will wait until they are asked by the DEO it is when they will give orders which cannot be clarified because they avoid challenge.*

This type of communication was confirmed by one head of school when he said: *Teachers always resists and I have to order them if they don't comply, I will simply report them to the authority. What can I do when something or a report is soon needed?* This language is of the helpless individual, the one who cannot convince others, implementing orders mechanically because of failure to internalise and contextualise some of the directives from the upper level of the school system. Lack of ability to convince others and the use of convincing language and the logical arguments makes some of the heads of schools to give orders which are met by resistance from teachers, as one teacher said:

> *He always gives commands and we simply keep quiet. We know he will report and the most he can do is to make some of us transferred to another schools*.

This study has revealed that a significant majority of head of secondary school cannot contextualise directives from upper levels of the school system, know the importance of these directives to the achievement of education objectives and make convincing arguments before fellow subordinates. The Results in Table 1 indicates the same pattern of responses along the remaining six communication skills of listening to others, ensuring the information provided is correctly understood, being open when explaining issues, be questioned and provide answers, involving others to generate new ideas, and being ready to accept defeat, the majority disagree or strongly disagree while the minority agree or strongly agree.

Thus, in all nine skills of organisational communication which were assessed, the pattern of responses is squad toward the negative side of communication and the pattern is consistent. This made the researcher to disaggregate the data to individual schools in both districts. The results indicated that schools that their teachers assessed communication to be positive in the first aspect of communication, assessed the same in all other aspects except two schools in Makete district and three schools in Morogoro municipality. The implication of such findings is that there are few schools in which organisational communication was assessed better and in the majority of schools, such communication was poor.

Achievement of Organisational Communication objectives

After observing the nature of communication in sample schools, the study wanted to know how the objectives of communication, which are indicators of effective management, are achieved. Table 2 summarises the findings on how organisational communication in these schools have achieved the objectives of conflict resolution, building community, trust, commitment, career development, participation and feedback.

Table 2: Achievements of the Objectives of Effective Communication

Communication Outcome	**Strongl y Agree**	**Agree**	**Not Decid ed**	**Disagre e**	**Strongl y Disagre e**	**Total**
Queries and conflict are quickly and constructively resolved	48 (14.7%)	83 (25.5%)	2 (0.6%)	161 (49.4%)	32 (9.8%)	326 (100.0%)
We live as community, helping each other when fulfilling our responsibilities and on social issues	56 (17.2%)	93 (28.5%)	12 (3.7%)	131 (40.2%)	34 (10.4%)	326 (100.0%)
We trust each other. Teachers trust the school administration which also trust teachers	22 (6.7%)	108 (33.1%)	12 (3.7%)	144 (44.2%)	40 (12.3%)	326 (100.0%)
We are committed to teaching and the school administration is very supportive	30 (9.2%)	104 (31.9%)	5 (1.5%)	139 (42.7%)	48 (14.7%)	326 (100.0%)
We are assured of our development in the teaching career.	54 (16.7%)	56 (17.2%)	80 (24.5%)	*120 (36.8%)*	16 (4.9%)	326 (100.0% 0
We are involved in making decisions related to our work and on management issues	40 (12.3%)	70 (21.5%)	6 (1.8%)	133 (40.8%)	77 (23.6%)	326 (100.0%)
On school policy	41	65	9	123	88	326

issues, we have a common understanding and when clarification is needed it is willingly provided by the school administration.	(12.6%)	(19.9%)	(2.7%)	(37.8%)	(27%)	(100.0%)

As it was on the nature of communication in these schools, the pattern of the results on the outcomes of communication seems to be the same, i.e., negatively assessed. Majority of respondents were negative in all seven outcomes of communication. More than 55% of respondents in all aspect either disagreed or strongly disagreed that their schools resolve conflict quickly, living as a community, trusting each other, being committed to their work and developing their career. Also, the majority disagreed to participate in decision making and to have a common understanding on school policy issues. Since communication was not effective as observed in the nature of communication, it was not surprising to also observe the negative outcomes of communication.

Discussion of Findings

It was observed that communication in secondary schools is not effective at all. Opinions from teachers strongly suggest that information, to the majority of schools, is not timely and accurately provided, feedback is not sought and the majority of heads of schools are not open and listening. As argued by a number of scholars (e.g., Abraham, et al, 1999; Arlesting, 2008; De Ridder, 2003; Femi, 2014 & Koschmann, 2012), communication plays a vital role in the performance of any business, so the success of any organization is generally depending on communication. Communication helps the organization members to achieve both personal and organizational goals. Yamaguchi (2009) pointed out that ineffective communication makes the organization less effective due to underperformance.

Bradshaw (2011) clearly explained that among the most central aspects of any organization is communication and the success of any organization has much to do with effectiveness in communication. Through communication, knowledge is shared, ambiguities are clarified and contradictions in the performance process are solved. In schools were this study was conducted on 60.7% of respondents disagreed that goals and objectives were effectively communicated. It is argued that human activities are always directed by a want or need which is essentially an objective. As such, all activities in the organisation should be contributing to the achievement of certain need. That is why it is properly argued that the first task of any administrator is to ensure the organisational goals and objectives are effectively communicated to all members in the organisation (Balyers, 2012). Goals which are properly communicated to all school stakeholders leads to effective schools because those goals are the ones which draws the map on what should be done and at what time it should be done. An employee can know if he/she is doing the right thing if what is intended to be achieved is known.

Teachers will know they are in the right direction if they know where they are going. Also, in the study area teachers felt that their head of secondary schools does not communicate effectively instead they only giving orders on what is supposed to be done and how to be done instead of allowing discussion with others on what and how to be done. Basing on that teachers felt that there is no effective communication in their secondary schools, it can be concluded that performance in these schools is negatively affected. In addition, it was observed in the findings that heads of schools are not open to develop health internal communication. Proctor (2014) in his study based on how organizational communication can bring about effectiveness in an organization, stipulated out that effective communication at all levels and directions of the organization improve organizational success and employee relations and vice versa is true.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Effective organisational communication is positively related to trust, satisfaction, motivation, commitment and good relations among employees, things which are central to organisational effectiveness. In this study, these outcomes of communication are absent, putting doubts on school effectiveness. Generally, schools cannot meet their objectives unless heads of these schools adopt and enhance effective communication practices. Organisational communication, which is the exchange of information between head of secondary schools, staff members and other school community members will play a significance role in making school administration effective and this will result into school effectiveness. Without effective communication, we should not expect schools to be effective. Although there are other factors which may affect school effectiveness, ineffective communication is one of these factors which affect school effectiveness

Recommendations

Theoretical Recommendation

In most cases and as the practice shows, heads of the school are appointed from among the serving teachers in school. Most of the literature in educational administration suggests that those to be appointed as heads of schools should be professionally qualified, with good behavioural background and sufficient experience and good performance as a teacher in school. Other qualities which are mentioned include disciplined person with positive attitude. Findings in this study show that although these qualifications are basic and necessary, they are not sufficient. Education and training in management and administration is another indispensable qualification for one to be appointed the head of the school. The findings in this study also emphasize an important area for education and training of educational and school administrators in particular, the area of administrative competences.

Policy Recommendations

Heads of secondary schools are the major actors in their schools and success or failure of schools will depend on how competent they are in carrying out their responsibilities. To administer and manage is to make sure that each individual in the school is fulfilling his/her responsibilities which is done through communication. As such appointment of heads of school should ensure that those appointed have qualifications not only in the teaching profession but also in management and administration. Another recommendation is that, since heads of schools are appointed from among teachers in schools, the curriculum for teacher education and training of pre-service and in-service teachers should include a substantive dose in management and administration of education.

Recommendation for Further Study

Since this study was conducted in two regions and on one administrative competences of communication, a study on a large area and on other administrative competences is recommended. Also, the recommended study can include private schools which, for the past decade have been performing better in examinations if compared to public schools.

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Why do Adolescents smoke? Investigating the Cognitive Determinants of Tobacco Smoking Behaviour among Secondary School Adolescents in Ilala District

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***Abstract*:**
This paper is based on the study which explored the cognitive determinants of tobacco smoking among secondary school adolescents in Ilala district in Tanzania's largest city, Dar Es Salam. Specifically, the study sought to explore the relationship between smoking, self-esteem, and self-efficacy. A cross-sectional survey was conducted among 400 secondary school adolescents, aged between 12 and 22. The findings revealed that there was significant a strong positive association between smoking and Self- efficacy [r = .80 p<.01] and a weak positive relationship between smoking and Self-esteem [r = .11, p<.05]. The study concluded that adolescents with low self - efficacy is more likely to smoke tobacco and adolescents with high self-esteem are more unlikely to smoke tobacco. Based on the findings the paper recommended that self-efficacy and self-esteem must be taken seriously when considering intervention programs to prevent smoking. These intervention programs may include guidance and counselling services in and outside school settings.

Keywords: Cognitive, determinants, tobacco smoking, self-efficacy, self esteem

Introduction

The World Health Organization Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (WHOFCTC) was adopted unanimously by the 56th World Health Assembly on May 21, 2003. It became the first World Health Organization (WHO) Treaty under Article 19 of the WHO

constitution. The treaty came into force on the 27th of February 2005. It had been signed by 168 countries and is legally binding in 154 ratifying countries representing over 3 billion people. The United Republic of Tanzania (URT) signed the WHOFCTC treaty on January 27, 2004 and ratified it on April 30, 2007 (WHO, 2007). The objective of the WHOFCTC treaty is to protect the present and future generations from the devastating health, social, environmental and economic consequences of tobacco consumption and exposure to tobacco smoke. Moreover, the treaty provides a framework of national, regional and international tobacco control measures, including the setting of broad limits on the production, sale, distribution, advertisement, taxation, and government policies on tobacco.

In URT the implementation of the WHOFCTC raises some concerns about its effectiveness. One of the areas is on how the precautions against smoking are dealt with. For example, the warning *cigarette smoking is dangerous for your health*, shown on cigarette packets, is written in relatively small writings and people may not consider the warning since it is not stressed. However, even if the warning was legible, only a few people of the developing URT can afford to buy a packet of cigarettes. In fact, most smokers buy one or two cigarettes which do not carry the warning as it is written on the packet. This means that the warning is concealed from the smokers of cigarettes.

One of the major obstacles to tobacco-control measures is the economic importance of tobacco industries in many countries around the world (Altman, Levine, Howard, & Hamilton (1996). Tobacco industries have been an important sector in creation of employment opportunities let alone the foreign currency earned through exportation of tobacco products. The economic value attached to tobacco has led to this crop being grown in more than 100 countries, including about 80 developing countries. China, USA, India, and Brazil are the largest producers of tobacco in that order and they account for about two-thirds of production world-wide (Thun, and Luiza da Costa e Silva, 2003). The United republic of Tanzania (URT)

is one of the biggest producers of tobacco in Africa, ranked third after Zimbabwe and Malawi (Hammond, 1997). About 0.08 percent of URT's land (about 34,000 hectares) caters for growing tobacco (Mackay, Eriksen&Shafey, 2006). Tobacco is one of the cash crops that helps boost the country's foreign exchange earnings, contributing about 60 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (Jacobs, Gale, Gaperhart, Zhand, &Jha, 2000). URT's tobacco output increased seven-fold between 1975 and 1998 and continues to grow (Jacobs *et al.,* 2000).

Prevalence of Tobacco Smoking in United Republic of Tanzania

In 2011 the World Health Organization revealed that there were about one billion smokers worldwide. It is estimated that current smokers consume about six trillion cigarettes annually. Information about tobacco use in URT is described as "sparse", with data on smoking prevalence available only from scattered surveys in a few regions (Jagoe, Edwards, Mugusi, Whiting, &Unwin 2002; and Kaduri, 2008). This implies that the surveys are not nationally representative. Bovet, Ross, Gervasoni, Mkamba, Mtasiwa, Lengeler Whiting and Paccaud (2002) found that the prevalence was 11.8 percent in men and 1.1 percent in women in Temeke district, while Jagoe *et al.,* (2002) observed that the prevalence was 27 percent in men and women in Ilala district. Furthermore, Kaduri (2008) found that the prevalence was 10.3 percent among male adolescents and 3.4 percent among female adolescents in Kinondoni district.

In 2003the Global Youth Tobacco Survey (GYTS) of Dar Es Salaam-Tanzania, conducted a school-based survey of students in Class 6 & 7, and revealed that 17.9 percent of boys and 8.5 percent of girls had smoked cigarettes. Furthermore, 19-31 percent of students reported living in homes where other people smoked in their presence, and 26-38 percent reported that they were used to being exposed to tobacco smoke in public places. The prevalence of tobacco smoking seems to be higher among males than among females. However, the low prevalence of smoking by females found in these studies should not encourage complacency because there is a substantial evidence of

aggressive tobacco marketing in URT (Jagoe, *et al.,* 2002). The tobacco companies are increasingly targeting women in developing countries at a time when many cultural prohibitions on women are easing with the effects of globalization, putting these women at risk of becoming regular smokers (Jagoe *et al,* 2002).

Problem Relating to Tobacco Consumption

Health related problems caused by tobacco use are not only associated with direct use of tobacco but also the exposure to the second-hand smoke. Almost 6 million people die from tobacco use and exposure. It is reported that 6% of all female and 12% of all male die each year in the world, in other words about 600000 deaths are associated with second-hand smoke and about 5 million deaths are directly associated with tobacco use (WHO, 2011). By 2020, tobacco-related deaths are projected to increase to 7.5 million, accounting for 10% of all deaths in that year. Smoking is estimated to cause about 71% of all lung cancer deaths, 42% of chronic respiratory disease and nearly 10% of cardiovascular disease. Smoking is also an important risk factor for communicable diseases such as tuberculosis and lower respiratory infections (WHO, 2011).

Health problems related to the use of tobacco are even less well documented in URT. Tobacco smoking seriously threatens sustainable development of the world's poorest nations through disability and premature death. In URT, for instance, the Ocean Road Cancer Institute estimates that there are over 20,000 new patients diagnosed with cancer and three out of the diagnosed cancers are known to be tobacco related (ORCI,2009). It is estimated that deaths from tobacco use occur among persons in their most productive years (35-69) (Kaduri 2008) and the overall mortality rate for URT from such cancers is unknown. The fact that about 60 percent of cancers are related to tobacco makes it a matter of serious concern for public health and the general economic development of URT.

The onset and Phases of Adolescent's Smoking Tobacco

More often smoking starts during adolescence and the longer the onset of smoking is delayed, the less likely a person is to become addicted (Santrock, 2005). Young people who smoke may acquire the habit of smoking and become addicted before reaching adulthood. Experimenting remains a characteristic of adolescence and as a young person moves through this period the likelihood of smoking increases (McCool, Cameron & Petrie, 2003). Tobacco use among adolescents is a critical indicator not only of the beginning of tobacco use, but also of future trends in tobacco addiction and tobacco-related disease in adults. Smoking may occur during pre-adolescence and those who become smokers usually do so before the end of adolescence. The transition from being a non-smoker to becoming an addict is viewed as a process rather than a single event. This process generally takes place in five stages; preparatory, trying, experimenting, regular, and finally addiction. For those who become addicted smokers, progression through these stages is seen to occur over a two-to-three-year period, regardless of age (Ling &Glantz, 2002).

The preparatory stage is when a prospective smoker forms attitudes and beliefs about the utility of smoking and advertising. The trying stage is characterized by the person taking a few puffs at the cigarette. The experimental stage is when the person smokes repeatedly but irregularly. During the fourth stage the person moves into the regular use of cigarettes, where they are smoking at least weekly, across a variety of situations and personal interactions. The final, stage is when the person becomes an addicted smoker; at this point the person has developed the physiological need for nicotine (Ling &Glantz, 2002).

Determinants of Smoking

The physiological, psychological and sociological challenges faced by adolescents put them at a greater risk of using tobacco as well as the use of other drugs. Once smoking has begun, and dependence is established, giving up is difficult (Santrock, 2005; Cobb, 2001; and Taylor, 2003).

Cognitive Factors

The Relationship between Self-Efficacy (SEF) and Tobacco Smoking

Looking at self-efficacy in relation to a range of health behaviours has been extremely useful to help explain addictive behaviours and how to treat them (Hasking & Oei, 2002; Staring &Breteler, 2004). Researchers have extensively examined the role of SEF in smoking cessation programs. Mudde & Strecher (1995) and Schwarzer& Fuchs (1995) posit that SEF has consistently been shown to have the stronger predictive strength when looking at the intention to quit smoking. The study by Staring &Breteler (2004) also confirmed previous findings which observed that perceived high SEF is the best predictor to those individuals quit smoking and consequently individuals with high SEF scores tend to be successful at quitting the use of tobacco. Likewise, individuals with lower SEF scores tend to be unrealistic in quitting tobacco smoking and relapses occur after failed attempts.

Frazier (2001) observed that students with lower levels of SEF reported smoking cigarettes more frequently and smoking greater quantities of cigarettes at any given time. In another study, Kear (2002) found that SEF significantly helped students to resist tobacco smoking. Kvis, Clark, Crittenden, Warneccke, Freels, (1995) found that increased high levels of SEF is an important predictor in helping 18-29-year-old to quitting smoking. The relationship between SEF and future smoking depends upon the population studied and the timing of the SEF assessment. For instance, the study by Gwaltney, Metric, Kahler, and Shiffman (2009) observed that the relationship between SEF and future smoking was modest when SEF was assessed prior to the attempt to quit. SEF scores were .21 standard deviation (SD) units higher for those not smoking at follow-up than for those who were smoking. The relationship was stronger (0.47 SD) when SEF was assessed after quitting. In another study, the factorial validity of the measures and the cross-sectional correlations among SEF, beliefs and intentions were examined among 9th–12th grade smokers (N=2767, mean age 16.2; 61.2 percent white, 6.2 percent Black, 17.8 percent Hispanic, 5.0 percent Asian, 3.5 percent other; response rate 70

percent from a convenience sample of 22 Texas schools). 13.8 percent of them reported smoking ≥1 cigarette in the previous 30 days and the confirmatory factor analyses supported evidence of factorial validity for the scales in this sample. Structural equation modelling analysis suggested that youth smokers have low confidence in their ability to avoid smoking, believe smoking offers emotional or social benefits, and intend to continue smoking (Shiffman, et al. (2007).

Furthermore, De Vries & Backbier, (1994) also observed that SEF was linked to smoking. This was demonstrated in a sample of 103 pregnant women smokers and relapsers were found to have the lowest SEF. Ludman, McBride, Nelson, Curry, Grothaus, Lando, (2000) echoed other findings on the relationship between SEF and smoking by asserting that those who continue to smoke have decreased confidence to quit. With regards to the relationship between SEF and smoking cessation, Mullen (1999) found that SEF is linked to smoking cessation and has been shown to predict smoking cessation as reported by Moore, & Gullone (1996). Since most of the studies linking SEF were conducted in developed countries, those findings do not show whether they can be generalized to adolescents across various cultures. What is more, SEF in relation to smoking has hardly been investigated in the Tanzanian context.

The Relationship between Self-Esteem (SES) and Tobacco Smoking

Generally, SES is considered as an evaluative component of the self-concept, a broader representation of the self that includes cognitive and behavioral aspects as well as evaluative or affective ones (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). While the construct is most often used to refer to a global sense of self-worth, narrower concepts such as self-confidence or confidence or body-esteem are used to imply a sense of self-esteem in more specific domains (WHO,2005). It is widely assumed that SES functions as trait that is stable across time within individuals. SES is an extremely popular construct within psychology, and has been related to virtually every other psychological concept or domain, including personality (e.g., shyness), behavioural (e.g., task performance), cognitive (e.g.,

attribution bias), and clinical concepts (e.g. anxiety and depression) (Santrock, 2005). Much of the research about the relationship between SES and health appears to have been done in terms of its influence on health-compromising behaviour. According to the WHO (2005), SES, self-image and tobacco uses are directly linked. An adolescent often sees smoking as a way to cope with feelings of stress, anxiety and depression that stem from a lack of self-confidence. This implies that an adolescent who smokes tends to have low SES, and low expectation for their future development. Studies done in Taiwan explored the factors that lead adolescents to start smoking. Yen, Huang, Ma, Young, and Cho, (1996) directed a smoking survey in junior high school to determine the relationship between psychosocial factors and smoking. The results showed a strong association between SES and smoking.

Furthermore, Young & Werch (1990) posit that low SES caused adolescents to start smoking. Other studies in USA found smoking for black adolescents with low SES (Botvin, Dusenbury, Baker, James-Ortiz, Botvin, &Kerner, 1992) and for primarily black and Hispanic adolescents (Botvin, Epstein, Schinke, & Diaz, 1994). In the United States, Lewis, Harrell, Bradley, & Deng, (2001) surveyed 1,200 ten to fifteen-year-old living in three tobacco-producing countries in North Carolina. Among girls, smokers had significantly lower SES than non-smokers. Among boys, the smoking and non smoking groups did not differ in SES. A sample of more than 8,000 children (which shrank to 6,530 by the 4th year of the study) in Calgary, Alberta, Canada, was studied by Abernathy, Massad, & Romano-Dwyer, (1995). These researchers revealed that for girls, low SES in grade 6 predicted a substantially greater likelihood of smoking by grade 9. Indeed, girls with low SES were about 3 times more likely to try cigarettes than other girls. Among boys, SES had no relationship to smoking. In the study that investigated a large group of high school students using a multistep, stratified cluster sampling method and using a subscale analysis of SES, it was found that there was an important degree of low SES in current, predominantly male smokers in Switzerland (Diler, 2003). In a younger sample of about 1,500 third-grades and

fifth-grade students in central North America, studies have suggested that SES is linked to smoking, but unfortunately none of them shows that low SES clearly leads to subsequent smoking. Pederson, Koval, McGrady, and Tyas (1998) surveyed more than 1,600 Canadian eighth graders, distinguishing multiple categories of smokers. The current smokers had lower SES than the adolescents who had never smoked. The SES of ex-smokers was in between, and experimental smokers (i.e., those who tried smoking occasionally without becoming regular smokers) had nearly the same level of SES as the eighth graders who had never smoked. Jackson, Henriksen, Dickinson, & Levine, (1997) found that children with lower SES were more likely to admit to having smoked on occasion.

In one Scottish study of two cohorts of 13 to 14 years apart, examining for an association between SES and smoking produced inconclusive results (Glendinning & Inglis, 1999). In addition, a Canadian sample of more than 1,500 sixth graders conducted by Koval and Pederson (1999), observed no correlation between smoking and SES. As it appears to be the case in other countries, some studies show the relationship between smoking and SES while other studies fail to draw a conclusion. Most researches on adolescents' tobacco smoking focusing on relationship between tobacco smoking, self-efficacy and self-esteem have been conducted in developed countries. The findings emanating from these studies may seem to vary due to, among other things, the nature of the study, context, and methods and methodology employed. It may therefore seem impractical to generalize these findings to all adolescents across various cultures of the world. In particular, the findings may not seem to be generalizable to a developing country like Tanzania where SES in relation to adolescents smoking has hardly been investigated. Therefore, this paper explores the relationship between tobacco smoking, self-efficacy and self-esteem among secondary school adolescents in Tanzanian context in the Ilala district of the city of Dar es Salaam.

Materials and Methods

Ilala district was selected for this study because of high prevalence of smoking in Ilala district as compared with Temeke and Kinondoni districts (Jagoe, et al 2002). This enabled the study to get rich information and hence revealed the determinants of smoking among secondary school adolescents. Another reason for selecting Ilala was because the relationship between self-efficacy, self-esteem and smoking tobacco among secondary school adolescents have hardly been investigated as compared to other districts, namely Temeke and Kinondoni. A cross-sectional survey design was considered to meet the demands of the study because it allowed the collection of various data from secondary school adolescents with different socio-demographic characteristics, such as age and form (grade level). It also helped in the collection of information on adolescents' self-efficacy and self-esteem within a relatively short period of time and at one point of time for establishing the relationships (Bryman, 2004; Gay, Mills, & Airrasinan, 2006).

Simple random sampling was employed in the selection of 4 schools and 400 participants for the study. This was done to ensure an equal chance of selection and representation of participants in the study at school and form levels (Leedy & Ormord, 2001; Koul, 1997). In addition, the simple random technique paved the way for the study to employ test of statistical significance that permit inferences to be made about the population from which samples were selected (Bryman, 2004). Questionnaires were used for data collection and the information obtained through questionnaires was coded and total scores computed. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was employed in the data analysis. From the SPSS, descriptive statistics, t-test for independent samples, and Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient were obtained.

Findings and Discussion

Characteristics of Participants' Sample

Form one to form four students of all schools had a minimum age of 12 years and a maximum age of 22. The mean and standard deviation of age were found to be 16.65 and 1.68 respectively. This suggests that the majority of the participants were already in adolescent age when they start trying various things, including smoking (Santrock, 2005).

The Relationship between Self-Efficacy (SEF) and Tobacco Smoking

One of the objectives of this study was to explore the relationship between SEF and smoking. In exploring the relationship, smoking was treated as a dependent variable and SEF was treated as an independent variable. Pearson's product moment correlation was used to explore the bivariate relationship. In the two-tailed test of significance, the result showed that there was significant strong positive association between smoking and SEF [r = .80 p<.01]. This implies that those who had high SEF had the ability to control tobacco smoking when exposed to a smoking environment, while those with low SEF were likely to smoke tobacco when exposed to a smoking environment. This study provides further descriptive information about the scores of SEFs.

For example, 64.8 percent (259 adolescents) had high SEF, which implies that they were more likely to resist smoking. 35.3 percent (151 adolescents) were revealed to have low SEF, hence they were vulnerable in a tobacco-smoking environment. This observation is supported by Bandura (1997) who noted that SEF can have an influence on person's health through two different mechanisms, namely; bio-psychosocial responses (such as an individual's ability to control stress, etc.) and behaviour change (such as the ability to resist narcotic consumption). Moreover, this study found that there were different scores for SEF between smokers and non-smokers. An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the SEF scores for smoking and non-smoking adolescents. The results showed that

there were significant differences in scores for smokers (*M* = 101.32, *SD* = 28.38) and non-smokers (*M* =36.02, *SD* = 20.08, *p*<.000). The magnitude of the differences in the means was large effect [eta squared= .6]. This implies that differences in the means scores of SEF between nonsmokers and ever smokers still prove that adolescents with low self-efficacy were more likely to smoke when exposed to a smoking environment than adolescents with high SEF who were likely to resist tobacco smoking when exposed to a tobacco smoking environment (refer to *M & SD* of smokers and non-smokers).

With reference to this study's correlation coefficient and the t-test obtained, it is concluded that adolescent smokers among secondary schools in Ilala failed to resist tobacco smoking when exposed to a tobacco smoking environment. The adolescent non-smokers had the confidence to resist smoking when exposed to a tobacco smoking environment. The assertion that the first step in the role of SEF in changing an unhealthy practice to a healthy one is to believe that you have the ability to do so, may serve as the possible explanation of these findings. For instance, Bandura (1997) observes that often people are concerned about the health consequences of their smoking cigarette, but perceive themselves as unable to do anything about it. If an individual believes that he/she can resist smoking cigarettes, the next step is to believe that he/she can continue do so, because behaviour change does not matter unless the change is sustained.

Another possible explanation for the observed association of SEF and smoking is that the influence of significant others especially close friends may mould SEF. About 17 percent (67 adolescents) of the 154 secondary school adolescents who had smoked in Ilala district had reported that they were persuaded to do so by their close friends. This implies that the low SEF of adolescent smokers in Ilala district increased with pressure from close friends. This phenomenon supports Bandura theory that SEF can be created through reinforcement by others (Cobb, 2001; Santrock, 2002). Therefore, the interaction between adolescents and their close friends, who smoke cigarettes, may put adolescents at risk of starting to smoke. It follows

that, the significant strong positive association [r = .80] between smoking and SEF proves that low SEF among secondary school adolescents in Ilala district was likely to lead them to fail to resist smoking, while at the same time adolescents with high SEF are more likely to resist smoking cigarettes.

These findings are consistent with other previous studies done in developed countries that showed that there is a link between smoking and SEF. Frazier *et al.,* (2001) found that SEF emerged as the single most important predictor for tobacco smoking among students who reported lower levels of SEF reported smoking cigarettes. Similarly, Bovtin, (1994) found that youth smokers who have little confidence in their ability to avoid smoking, believe smoking offers emotional or social benefits, and intend to continue smoking. Ludman *et al.,* (2000) confirmed that high SEF is related to the decision to stop smoking and low SEF is related to a lack of control over smoking among adolescents. These findings provide empirical evidence to suggest that SEF has a strong link with secondary school adolescents who smoke. Hence attempts to explain the cognitive determinant of smoking among secondary school adolescents in Ilala district should pay attention to the association between smoking and SEF. Hence proper intervention program which focus on strengthening SEF are strongly recommended, whereby adolescent will learn on how to resist smoking when exposed to a tobacco smoking environment.

The Relationship between Self-Esteem (SES) and Smoking

The relationship between SES and smoking among secondary school adolescents in Ilala district was also explored by this study. The findings reveal that there was significant low positive correlation of [r = .11, p<.05] between smoking and SES. This implies that the relationship between smoking and SES is low. In other words, positive or negative evaluations of an individual (personal evaluation) had minimal correlation with tobacco smoking among secondary school adolescents in Ilala district. In addition, 62.3 percent (249 adolescents) who had high SES are more unlikely to smoke

tobacco, while about 38 percent (151 adolescents) who had low SES, are more likely to do so. Differences in scores of SES between smoking and non-smoking adolescents were also noted. These differences in scores support the fact that the relationship was weak between SES and smoking. An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the SES scores for smokers and non-smokers. The findings show that there are significant differences in the score for smokers (M *=19.23, SD = 9.63)* and non-smokers (*M =17.12, SD = 8.17, p<.148*). The magnitude of differences in the means was small [eta squared= .01]. This implies that the differences of means and standard deviations of SES between those who smoked and non-smokers among adolescents were small. This attests that SES has little effect on secondary school adolescents' decision to smoke in Ilala district. In addition, the obtained SES t-test emphasizes the possibility that low SES may lead to adolescents deciding to smoke and high SES may encourage adolescents not to smoke (refer to *SD* and *M* of smokers and non-smokers).

The weak positive relationship between smoking and SES found in this study suggests that, since SES is the self-evaluation of an individual in different spheres of life, the majority of participants tend to evaluate themselves positively Feldman (1997), this may result in both smoking and non-smoking adolescents showing slight differences in the sample t- test. However, people with high SES claim to be more likable and attractive, to have better relationships, and to make better impressions on others than people with low SES (WHO, 2005). It follows that, if high SES could help prevent smoking, even among adolescents, that would be a valuable contribution to individual welfare and society at large. It is also possible that smoking affects SES rather than the reverse, because the SES of smokers who feel stigmatized may suffer. Smoking has generally been measured by self-report, and findings that people with high SES smoke less than others might be an artifact of self-report bias. Hence SES is either irrelevant to the question of why adolescents start smoking or it is a best weak risk factor in this regard. This study is consistent with previous studies which revealed that there is

significant relationship between SES and smoking. A longitudinal study by Andrews and Duncan (1997) tracked more than 400 adolescents, whose age at the start of the study was between 11 and 15, for 13 years. The researchers were particularly interested in whether SES and other variables would mediate the relationship between academic motivation and tobacco smoking (among other variables). SES did not mediate this relationship, but it was an independent predictor of smoking. When SES and smoking were measured at the same time, the correlation between them was found to be weak [r = .18]. This finding is similar to the weak correlation of [r = .11] between smoking and SES among secondary school adolescents in Ilala district.

In contrast, Yen *et al.* (1996) found that there is a strong association between SES and smoking in Taiwan, while other studies found no relationship between SES and smoking whatsoever. The possible link between SES and smoking was the specific and primary focus of research by Glendinning and Inglis (1999). They reported findings from Scottish surveys, which included nearly 3,000 young people, aged 13 and 14. The data showed no significant relationship between SES and smoking. Also, Koval and Pederson (1999) found that SES did not have significant relationship to smoking among a Canadian sample of more than 1,500 sixth graders.

Apart from having a positive relationship as found by other studies, the level of association of this study mirrored very closely the findings of Andrews and Duncan (1997). This may be linked with the methodological aspect, especially sample size and self-administered questionnaire and the slight differences may be due to, among other things, the differences in culture. This finding is also contrary to the study conducted by Yen *et al.* (1996) who found a strong correlation between SES and smoking. While this seem to suggest that the differences in findings may be attributed to differences in the context of the studies, further empirical investigations may ascertain the genuine cause of differences. Nevertheless, differences in methodology may also explain the inconsistencies of the findings. For

example, findings of by Glendinning & Inglis (1999) and Koval& Pederson (1999) are from longitudinal data, while findings of this study were from a cross-sectional survey. It therefore seems imperative that a longitudinal study is conducted in Ilala district to gather the evidence that will shed more light on the correlation between SES and smoking.

Conclusion and Recommendation

This study concludes that both SES and SEF have a role to play with regards to secondary adolescents in Ilala district smoking journey. However, special attention should pay to Self-efficacy, since the study has found to be the strong determinant of smoking among secondary school adolescents in Ilala district. Based on the research findings, this study makes the following recommendations for further actions by responsible practitioners and investigators. Due to self-efficacy being highly associated with smoking, it is imperative that there should be programs that focus on improving SEF as an effective tool for reducing the starting, frequency and amount of tobacco smoking among secondary adolescents in Ilala district. Through these programs, adolescents would be expected to learn how to resist smoking when exposed to tobacco smoking environments.

Organs responsible for designing the curriculum should strive to prepare a curriculum that will take care of adolescents' educational needs like psycho-educational intervention programs. The programs may comprise of various aspects like assertive behavior skills which are important in building confidence or self-control in adolescent period. Special attention should consider that adolescence is a period of experimentation of non-conventional behaviour including tobacco smoking. Since adolescent smoking is a problem that may prove difficult to control if joined efforts are not in place, it takes the efforts of governments, non-governmental organizations, religious groups, pressure groups, parents, and teachers etc., to successfully educate adolescents to avoid getting involved in experimentation and health-compromising behaviors.

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Book review

Education Policy and Reforms in Tanzania: A Reflection On Globalization Impacts and Research Use Experiences.

By Kyando, N. M. (2016). Dar Es Salaam: TREECare Association. Pp.x +199, price $20, ISBN 9987-696-16-3

This book is a comprehensive work in the field of policy studies that suits the contexts of developing countries. The book has shown light on education policy reforms issues in Tanzania, pinpointing the root causes of policy implementation failure right from formulation stages. It is richly illustrated with policy models, explaining the relationship of education policy to countries' development endeavours. Salient development examples as the result of mobilization of resourced to education are drawn from the TIGER countries, the BRICS, and few African countries such as South Africa, Namibia, and Tunisia

The book attempts to give the understanding of connectedness of education to development of a country, unveiling development challenges in Tanzania (p.1) as far as education reforms are concerned. The author has explained the subjugate roles of education reforms and economy in response to globalisation at global level and Tanzania in particular. Centrally to the book the deliberations of the author to explore globalization impacts on education reforms and research use in education policy process, highlighting the interplay of the three organs under triple helix model; the government, industry and universities how they relate to each other and to the production of education worth knowledge economy. As the title of the book suggested, the author has indeed tried to explain the root of education policies in developing countries, Tanzania among, as attributed to Breton woods institutions.

Under reflection on globalization impacts and research use in education policies in Tanzania, the book gives detailed explanation of the swinging waves of education reforms in the country as the result of country's attempt to react to globalisation and partly as the failure to make full use of research institutions in policy process. The book

highlights the next move of all countries if economic growth and development is the theme, as the improvement of education policy or rather reforming education policies that will deliver highly competitive, good and quality education to attain knowledge economy. The argument throughout the book is that knowledge economy should be the goal of any country as now education is one among economic good or item under three grounds; growing acknowledgement that education is one major item of international trade, is one of major country's' economic expenditure, and that, it plays a great role in global competitive advantages.

Finally, the book gives rich and prime information of the economic lag in developing countries, most in Africa and Tanzania among that is attributed to negligence to enough investment in education. One of the clearly discussed issues in the book is government spearheading in policy process, with the powerful unseen and indirect force on ruling party manifesto as the impediments to successful policy reforms in Tanzania. Universities as supposed to be one and equal organs in the policy process according to triple helix model used in the book, has received very scant recognition in the process of reforming education policies albeit the fact the they are institution with think tanks and among responsibilities, vested to research and consultations.

The book suggests the need for government to underscore the importance and central role of universities in knowledge creation and take initiatives to fund universities so that they fulfil research and consultancies role as opposed to current situation where universities are traditionally used for teaching purposes only and if they do research, it is that kind of research which is requisite to learners' fulfilment of the study. The author has delineated that in the context of globalization, knowledge for its own is the fourth hand of the production factor on top of capital, land, labour and entrepreneurship. It is further urged that community organisations, Nongovernmental organisation and interest groups should be given room to participate in policy process rather than lobbying practices by these groups via parliamentarian members.

However, the book has left a room for uncompleted explanation of the link of education policy to development. It just shows the integral part of education to development but the how part of education policy to development is not delved in satisfactorily. There is also a need to clearly and uncontradictory explain the roles of the organs of the triple helix model in the entire process of policy cycle, which one does create new knowledge, which transmit and which organ disseminate. The book contains a lot of issues which informs a reader on the policy precursors, impediments and future in Tanzania and denial of country's prerogatives in agenda setting which lies on the Terms of References (TOR) from donors. A lot need to be explained but the volume of the book is limited to few chapters leaving some of issues with little explanations.

The book is worth academic, prime and a foundation to novel policy analysts as well as experienced one as it gives a complete picture of policy reforms in developing countries, indicating the relationship of developing and developed counties in the policy formulation process. As compared to other policy books, this is yet another stuff that adds to existing literature on policy studies. It is worth for scholars and students who are taking policy studies. Key issues such as knowledge economy and globalization have been defined and explained in auspicious to policy models. Personally as a scholar, the book has given an amazing experience, notably how ruling party has the monopoly on the policy process and the excludability of important auxiliary to knowledge creation that has from the institution vested with that responsibilities. It also has given factual information on the rubber-stamping use of universities to fulfil propolicy deliberations.

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Guide for Authors

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