

JIPE

Journal of Issues and Practice in Education

Volume 13 No. 1, June 2021. ISSN 1821 5548



The Open University of Tanzania Faculty of Education

P. O. Box 23409 Dar es Salaam

Tanzania

Email: jipe@out.ac.tz

Website: www.out.ac.tz

Editorial Board

Chief Editor

Dr Mohamed Msoroka: Lecturer in the Department of Educational Foundations, Adult and Distance Education, Faculty of Education, the Open University of Tanzania

Managing Editor

Dr Maulid Maulid: Lecturer in the Department of Educational, Policy, Planning and Administration, Faculty of Education, the Open University of Tanzania

Technical Editor

Dr Diana Amundsen: Senior Lecturer in Adult Development and Adult Learning, School of Education, University of Waikato, New Zealand

Associate Editors

Dr Banchakarn Sameephet: Lecturer in Applied Linguistics, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University, Thailand

Prof. Elinami Swai: Professor in Adult Education, Faculty of education, Open University of Tanzania, Tanzania

Dr Chandan Boodhoo: Lecturer in the School of Education, Mauritius Institute of Education (MIE), Mauritius

Dr Godlove L. Kyakwe: Lecturer in the College of Education, University of Dodoma

Dr Lester Brian Shawa: Senior Lecturer in Higher Education Training and Development at the University of KwaZulu Natal, South Africa.

Prof. Issa H Ziddy: Professor of Curriculum and Teaching, Faculty of Education, State University of Zanzibar, Tanzania

Dr Michael Ng'umbi: Senior Lecturer in Adult and Distance Education and Director of the Institute of Adult Education

Advisory Board

- Prof. Michael A. Peters: Distinguished Professor at Beijing Normal University, China,
- Prof. Wally Penetito: Professor of Māori Education at Victoria University, New Zealand
- Prof. Elifas T. Bisanda: Professor in Material Engineering and Vice Chancellor, the Open University of Tanzania, Tanzania
- Prof. Deus Ngaruko: Professor in Economics and Deputy Vice Chancellor Academic, the Open University of Tanzania, Tanzania.
- Prof. Alex B. Makulilo: Professor in ICT Law and Deputy Vice Chancellor LT& RS, the Open University of Tanzania, Tanzania.
- Prof. Modest D. Varisanga: Professor in Biotechnologies, the Open University of Tanzania, Tanzania.
- Prof. E.mmanuel Kigadye: Professor in Biological Sciences, Director of Research, Publications and Innovation, the Open University of Tanzania, Tanzania.
- Prof. Jumanne D. Kalwani: Professor in Geography studies, Managing Editor of The African Resources and Development Journal (ARDJ), The Open University of Tanzania, Tanzania.
- Prof. George Oreku: Professor in ICT and Deputy Vice Chancellor PFA, the Open University of Tanzania, Tanzania
- Dr Josephat A. Saria: Senior Lecturer, Environmental Chemistry, Faculty of Science, Technology and Environmental Studies, the Open University of Tanzania, Tanzania.
- Dr Athumani S. Samzughi: Senior Lecturer in Library Studies, the Open University of Tanzania, Tanzania.

The Journal of Issues and Practice in Education (JIPE) is a property of the Open University of Tanzania and is operated by the Faculty of Education.

The journal publishes research articles that add new knowledge in the field of education.

All correspondence should be addressed to:

The Chief Editor –JIPE

The Open University of Tanzania

P.O. Box 23409

Dar es Salaam, Tanzania or

Email: jipe@out.ac.tz

©The Open University of Tanzania, 2017 All rights reserved

Note: Opinions expressed in this journal are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the publisher- The Open University of Tanzania

The Purpose of the Publication

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.

Journal of Issues and Practice in Education Volume 13 No. 1, June 2021
ISSN 1821 5548

Editorial

Dear readers, on behalf of the editorial board, kindly allow me to introduce to you this Issue Number 1, Volume 13 of the Journal of Issues and Practices in Education (JIPE), of the Faculty of Education – the Open University of Tanzania. I take this opportunity to acknowledge the contribution of the authors and reviewers who dedicated their time to write and review the manuscripts. I know that JIPE publication process puts more pressure on reviewers, because the editorial team believe on the contribution of peer reviewers to quality publication. With recommendation from reviewers, the editorial team was able to make informed decision on the value and contribution of each manuscript; thus, we (at JIPE) consider reviewers as important team-players in the whole process of JIPE publication.

The Journal of Issues and Practice in Education (JIPE) is a refereed journal. It is published twice a year – June and December. The journal is designed to inform both academics and the public on issues and practices in the field of education. The current issue comprises of seven (7) articles which delve on: *Frameworks Used to Link TVET Institutions with Labour Market Skill-Requirements; Awareness and Perception of Mobile-Learning Apps as E-learning Platforms in ODL Institutions; Guidance and Counselling Need in Tanzania; and Internal Quality Assurance Mechanisms at the Open University of Tanzania*. Other areas include *Teachers' Perception on Community Participation in Financing the Development of Primary Schools; Availability and Utilisation of Educational Resources in Public Secondary Schools; and Elimination of School Fees and Parental Contributions in Tanzania*. It is the expectation of the editorial team that you will benefit reading the articles published in this issue.

I appreciate the hard work of the Editorial Board of JIPE and the secretariat team for bringing out this issue of the Journal. I look forward to receiving more articles for the forthcoming JIPE issues.

Dr Mohamed Msoroka
CHIEF EDITOR

TABLE OF CONTENTS

<i>Elimination of School Fees and Parental Contributions in Tanzania:</i> <i>Z. J. Uvambe & M. Msoroka</i>	1
<i>Assessing the Availability and Utilisation of Educational Resources</i> <i>J. Shumbi., & K. J. Mrema</i>	25
<i>Assessment of Teachers' Perception on Community</i> <i>O. O. Okoji¹., A. O. Olawuni², F. Ozoagu</i>	47
<i>An Assessment of the Internal Quality Assurance Mechanisms</i> <i>M. Njihia., & N. Chilumika</i>	62
<i>Guidance and Counselling Need in Tanzania: Needs Assessment for Primary School Pupils of Iringa Municipality</i> <i>D. Lubawa</i>	86
<i>Awareness and Perception of Mobile-Learning Apps as E-learning Platforms</i> <i>C. O. Adeniyi; E. O. Oladele., E. Bamgbade & A. Y. Fashina</i>	101
<i>An Analysis of the Frameworks Used to Link TVET Institutions</i> <i>H. E. Bitegera., E. T. Bisanda</i>	112

Elimination of School Fees and Parental Contributions in Tanzania: Implications on Parental and Community Commitment to Support Primary School Activities in Songea Municipality, Tanzania

Zuena Joseph Uvambe¹ & Mohamed Msoroka²

Email: zuenuvambe@gmail.com¹ mohamed.msoroka@out.ac.tz²

msorokakabomah@gmail.com²

ABSTRACT

This study explored the impacts of eliminating school fees and parental contributions on parental and community participation in primary school activities. The study was guided by two research questions: (1) what is the impact of eliminating school fees and parental contributions in primary schools on parental and community participation in school related activities?(2) How do parents view their participation in primary school activities in the context of fee-free education? The study was mainly qualitative and employed a multiple holistic case study design. A total of 31 participants were involved. The participants included teachers, heads of schools, parents, and Ward Education Officer. Data were collected through interviews, FGDs, and documentary reviews. Themes and subthemes were inductively developed through thematic analysis. The study suggests that, due to poor perception of the policy, the implementation of FFEP resulted in a significant reduction of parental participation in school activities. Most parents thought that the government was responsible for everything. The study also found that parents had mixed feelings regarding their participation in primary school activities in the context of FFEP. However, most of them thought that FFEP had provided them with a room to escape from contributions and other school responsibilities. The study recommends that strategic measures should be taken to educate parents on FFEP. Also, the government should find a way to restrict too many contributions which may lead to parents' negative attitude towards FFEP. Likewise, there is a need to improve the existing policy so as to plug loop holes that discourage parental participation in school activities.

Keywords: Parental participation, community participation, school activities, fee-free education, school fees

INTRODUCTION

The campaigns to policies in favour of free education at global level are arguably spearheaded by the realization of user fees and other mandatory contributions as a pervasive obstacle to primary school enrolment and completion for millions of children (Kattan, 2006). For instance, in 2012, UNESCO (2015) indicated that 58 million children were out-of-school due to charges which were still prevalent in schools. Parents in Indonesia, China and many African countries cite user fees as a major obstacle to enrolling their children in schools (Kattan, 2006). Dropout rates were also high in schools and were caused by parents' non-payment of school fees for their children. In 32 countries, mostly in sub-Saharan Africa, at least 20% of children enrolled in schools are not expected to reach the last grade (UNESCO, 2015).

In understanding that, Tanzania attempted to offer free education in 1963 (HakiElimu, 2017). The purpose was to reduce enrolment disparity between children from rich and poor households. In this respect, the government took the responsibility of financing education system; it provided fee-free primary education. The abolition of school fees (in Tanzania) for basic education was re-featured in 2002 as a response to problems of cost-sharing policy of 1995. During this time, the country implemented Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP). The PEDP had three phases – 2002-2006; 2007-2011; and 2012-2016 (Daven, 2008). PEDP aimed at improving primary education by ensuring that girls and boys from rich and poor families, and children with disabilities were not left out. The PEDP's goals were to improve quality and equity in primary education, improve retention in the seven years of primary education and build school capacity (Dennis & Stahley, 2012). This suggests that PEDP had an intention to reach all

children in the country so as to improve access to primary education. In order to ensure that no child is denied access to school, the government made primary education free; it abolished all school fees and compulsory cash contributions (Daven, 2008; Dennis & Stahley, 2012). It can be argued here that the abolition of school fees and all other mandatory contributions was a government's strategy to expand enrolment in primary education (Rajani & Omondi, 2003; Dennis & Stahley, 2012). Despite the fact that removing school fees reduces a significant burden on poor families, but it has also adverse effect on parents and community participation (Hakielimu, 2017). According to Kattan (2006) and World Bank and UNICEF (2009), a wide range of challenges within the context of abolishing school fees are evident. Kattan (2006) raises an argument that although the abolition of school fees has many promising outcomes, it has some challenges including the decrease of parental participation. Similarly, reporting the lessons of abolishing school fees in Africa, the World Bank and UNICEF (2009) mentioned the issues of parents and community participation as a major challenge that must be confronted with great urgency. This emphasis was among the reasons which encouraged the current researchers to conduct this study.

The Theory of Overlapping Spheres of Influence

The theoretical perspectives of the current study are drawn from the Epstein's theory of "overlapping spheres" of influence related to parental involvement. The theory assumes that there are three major contexts in which students learn and grow (Epstein, 2009). These are the family, the school and community. These contexts/spheres may be drawn together or pushed apart (Epstein, 2009; Epstein et al., 2002). This suggests that there are some practices that schools, families and communities work separately and others they work jointly to influence children's learning and development. The theory assumes that family, school and community partnerships must be designed to

engage, guide, energize and motivate pupils to their own success. Parents, family and community form important elements of the three overlapping spheres. Thus, parent/community involvement and cooperation with the school is essential for effective functioning of the school. This study takes the view that the three spheres (family, school and community) work jointly. In this view, family, school and community work as partners. They recognize their shared interests in responsibilities for children and they work together to create better programmes and opportunities for pupils. Epstein's theory was found to be relevant to the current study because of its insistence on partnership between the three spheres/contexts which are significant for pupils' learning. It is this partnership that forms the area of interest of the current study – parents' participation.

Fee-free basic Education

As noted earlier, fee-free education has been considered as a tool to advance education to all citizens and minimize the number of out of school children, so as to balance the education differences between the haves and the have not (Uvambe, 2021). Studies suggest that majority of the European countries have been providing fee-free basic education for nearly 100 years or slightly longer. Bulgaria offers a good experience of European countries implementing fee-free basic education. Education in state owned schools is free of charge and it is compulsory until the age of 16 (UNESCO, 2010). In Asia, countries are catching up, and most of them offer fee-free basic education to the best of their ability. Taking China for example, great achievements are evident in universalizing compulsory education. Sub-Saharan Africa has benefited greatly from fee-free basic education. For example, in Ethiopia, the most readily available tool to promote enrolment is the removal of schooling fees (Chickoine, 2016). In Tanzania, the abolition of school fees and all other mandatory contributions is considered as a strategy to expand enrolment and improve completion rates in

primary education (Rajani & Omondi, 2003). Evidence suggests that, under PEDP scheme, enrolments in primary schools increased. In one year, after the implementation of PEDP, the enrolments raised by 43.3%, from 1,139,334 in 2001 to 1,632,141 in 2002 (Hakielimu, 2017). Similarly, Msoroka (2010) observed the same when he argued that the rate of enrolments in primary schools was increased following PEDP initiatives. However, some studies established that the strategies which were opted to enhance fee-free basic education such as Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) did not show clearly how parents' participation in education activities were to be (Joseph, 2014).

Parental/Community Support to School Activities

Parental/community support to school activities involves parents/community interaction and participation with school and their children to promote academic success (Hill et al, 2004). Limited parental/community support to school activities has been considered part of the shortcomings of children's education (Nyembeke, 2016). Although lack of parental/community support to school activities may be contributed by many factors, existing empirical evidence links it with the abolition of school fees and other parental contributions (Kattan, 2006; World Bank & UNICEF, 2009). Kattan (2006) raised an argument that although the abolition of school fees has many promising outcomes, it has some challenges including the decrease of parental participation in school activities.

Methodology

This study examined the impacts of elimination of school fees and other parental contributions on parental and community participation in primary school activities. The study addressed the following research questions: What is the impact of eliminating school fees and parental contributions in primary schools on parental and community participation in school related activities? and how do parents view

their participation in primary school activities in the context of fee-free education? The study was guided by interpretivist research paradigm, which assumes that “reality is subjective and multiple, as seen by participants in the study” (Creswell, 2007, p. 17). With this understanding, this qualitative study investigated the impacts of elimination school fees on parental/community participation in school activities from multiple participants selected from three cases (schools). The three schools involved in this study were selected based on the performance on National Examinations in the previous year. The first school was from the best five performing schools; the second one was from the five poor performing schools, and the last one was from a middle group. A total of 31 participants were involved; they included 18 teachers (six from each school), one (1) ward education officer, three (3) heads of schools and nine (9) parents (three from each school).

Researchers were involved physically and mentally during individual and group interviews. In the process, meanings were made from the raw data collected based on the interpretations of participants’ words and feelings. This allowed the researchers to understand participants’ experiences on parental involvement on school activities in this era of fee-free education. The current study employed multiple holistic case study design. In this respect, relevant data from all three (selected) schools were treated as a whole (multiple holistic) (Msoroka, 2018; Yin, 2014). Data were collected through interviews, Focus Group Discussions and documentary reviews. The collected data were analysed using content analysis approach with the aid of Miles and Huberman’s framework for qualitative data analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). With this framework, the following five stages of analysis were used: firstly, the researchers transcribed the voice recorded data. This was followed by translation stage. At this stage,

the verbatim in Kiswahili were translated into English language by researchers. Thereafter, the data reduction stage was followed. In this stage, the bulky data from the field were rechecked, sorted, and re-examined the verbatim transcriptions so as to reduce and compress them without losing the key messages. Then, the data display stage was followed. During this stage, the reduced/summarized data were organized into data display sheets with the most recurring or common themes being identified. Lastly, conclusions were drawn out of data patterns established with verifications made using secondary data from documents (Komba, 2010).

Discussion of the Findings

This section discusses the findings related to the impacts of eliminating schools fees and mandatory parental contributions on parental/community participation in public primary school related activities. For the purpose of clarity of discussion, the discussion is sectioned accordance to the major themes developed from the analysis.

Parents' Involvement in Decision-making Meetings

The findings suggest that parents' attendance in parents' meetings in the selected schools was poor. During interviews, one of the heads of schools revealed poor parents' participation in decisive platforms which provided direction for school management. He said:

We have a school committee here, but I can assure you it is not active as such. I have evidence that there are members who attend meetings rarely and those who have never attended. These are ones who when decisions are made, they go way round complaining about the decisions made by a few fellow representatives who attended the meeting. I remember one case at my school...parents decided that examination classes (standard IV and VII) be provided with food at school to help them stay long

at school in order to prepare themselves for national examinations. The decision to contribute was parents based but the implementation of the programme had been a slip. Some parents who contributed came one time at the school with sacks to collect their maize and beans contributed for their children...some even shouted that education was for free so no need to contribute anything!

One teacher commented:

Nowadays, participation has dwindled especially when compared to what it was some years back. Things have been worsened since the government declared fee-free primary education. Many parents do not participate in meetings saying that these are bygone practices; the government is doing everything for their children on their behalf.

Interview with parents showed similar pattern of responses to those of head school. One parent said:

I am a member of a school committee in our school... I am sorry to say that this is the third year since I was appointed to be a member of the committee... if I remember well, for the entire time; I have managed to attend only two meetings... I have been very busy with shamba work. After all, the fee-free policy has made us relax because the government is doing everything for us.

The issue of low parents' participation in meetings was also articulated by one parent in one of the selected schools. He said:

The participation of parents is very low as compared to past days. Nowadays, only a few of them show cooperation. I can give you one experience, we have a tendency to conduct parents' meetings to discuss important decisions that affect daily running of the

school, but only a few of us attend. Sometimes, in the parents' meetings, we agree to contribute workforce and money in support of school activities but the turn up is poor. Majority of the parents claim that they have been relieved by the government's decision to offer free education.

During an interview, the WEO commented:

When parents' meetings are called, parents do not turn-up. Sometimes a call may be made thrice, yet parents do not respond...only a few do attend.

Evidence from the selected schools indicates that parents' number in school meetings has never turned positive despite the importance of parents meetings. This finding contradicts the theory of overlapping spheres of influence (which guided this study). The theory insists on bringing together the three spheres – family, the school and community – for school prosperity (Epstein, 2009). However, it is clear in this study that, with fee-free policy, parents kept themselves away from schools' decision making organs (meetings). It is argued here that this finding concurs with the findings of Kimu (2012) who found that most teachers attributed the lack of parental involvement to parents themselves. Again, this finding is in connection with Action Aid (2010) which found that most parents, who were members of the school committees, did not know their role in school governance. Also, the finding is in line with those of Fitriah (2010) who found that the characteristics and the extent of parents' participation in school management have changed and decreased significantly as a result of a new Free School Programme (FSP) introduced by the government in 2009. For this reason, one would argue that parents in the selected schools (and those in other studies) were not aware of their

responsibilities in parents' committees or being members of parent-teacher associations.

Reasons for poor parents' involvement in decision-making meetings

As discussed in the previous section, parents' attendance to meetings in the selected schools was not satisfactory. This section discusses the reasons learnt from the field for parents' poor attendance to meetings. The findings suggest three reasons (3) for parents' poor involvement to meetings. They include poor understanding of fee-free education policy (FFEP), other socio-economic commitments, and avoiding contributions.

Poor understanding of fee-free Education Policy (FFEP)

In this study, several participants attributed poor parents' attendance to meetings with poor understanding of the FFEP itself. To them, FFEP refrained parents from school activities. One parent argued:

Most of us (parents) have not understood the fee free education policy. Some of us think that everything should be done by the government. Hence, it is time for parents to relax.

Similarly, another parent said:

When we were told that education is free, many of us understood that parents were no longer supposed to participate on issues concerning schools; it was parents' time to rest and concentrate on other businesses of life. If the government take over the responsibility, then what is our role in meetings?

In the same line, one head of the school commented:

When called in meetings, they raise the concern that they don't see the reason to attend because everything is carried out by the government...the government has banned all forms of parents' contributions in schools.

One parent commented:

What do parents need to do? We have been told it is free education...all contributions have been restricted. So, what are we going to do in meetings? We used to attend meetings because it was from meetings where contributions were initiated. Ever since we were told that education was free, I have never attended any parent meeting.

The findings of this study are close to Hakielimu (2017) which observed that some parents perceived fee free basic education to mean that they were no longer required to contribute or participate in any activity related to education of their children. This suggests a purely misunderstanding of the FFEP. Ideally, it was assumed that freeing parents from fees and other parental contributions would motivate and bring parents closer to school. This would be shown by parents engaging in various school activities such as participation in decision making meetings, support learning at home and volunteering to school activities/projects, but the study findings have suggested a different perspective. Hence, one would argue that poor understanding of the policy has by far jeopardized parents' engagement in these school practices.

Parents' Commitments to Other Socio-economic Issues

This study found that some parents did not attend school meetings because of the nature of their day to day life commitments. For instance, one parent at school C argued:

In my experience, sometimes when you attend meetings people talk a lot and consume much time. They don't consider our (personal) responsibilities.

You attend the meeting and the whole day goes by without doing any income earning activity. So, if you have other commitment you can't choose attending the meeting, you simply go to your work.

Similarly, another parent said:

You know, it is discouraging that you are called to the meeting and you find that you are alone at the meeting; people are busy with their daily activities. You know what, life is very challenging; if you don't go to work then hunger knocks at your door.

A teacher from school C said that *"many parents are peasants; they are busy with their farming and other earning activities"*.

Based on the findings of this study, one can argue that a few parents who managed to attend parents' meetings might have been those with good educational or economic background and were eager to help their children learn comfortably. For parents who did not care for their children, their attendance to parents' meetings was poor; they focused on other socio-economic commitments. Sheehy (2006) argues that most parents are unable to attend school meetings during the school day due to varying factors. He mentioned low income, parental depression, economic and educational differences between parents and their children's teachers as factors that hindered parents' attendance to school meetings. From this perspective, one can hold that the poor parents' attendance in the current study might also have been influenced by illiteracy or economic status of the families. This argument is consistent with Back (2010) who found that parental involvement practices differ based on parents' level of education in the sense that parents with more formal education are more active than less educated parents. Hence, it can be argued that parents with

low formal education are insecure about their knowledge regarding academic matters and thus this works as a barrier for their attendance to school meetings.

Avoiding contributions

This study found that avoiding contribution was another reason for poor attendance to school meetings. For instance, one parent from school 'A' held that

Some parents fear contributions. Whenever they are called to attend school meetings they think that they are going to be asked for new contributions.

Another parent added:

I wish the payment of school fees could continue. I am bored with today's contributions; they bring chaos to poor families. Look, the parents' meetings do not discuss other issues related to school; they have turned into sources of contributions. As a result, majority of the parents do not see the value of fee-free education.

The same argument was raised by a teacher of school 'B' during FGD.

She said:

In my view, I think parents dodge meetings simply because they know that parental meetings have turned into a platform for many contributions in schools. However, these parents fail to understand that contributing for school is one of the ways to get involved in school issues, bearing in mind that schools are community properties.

Another teacher argued:

FFEP has relieved parents of becoming hostages of school contributions including school fees. If you hold a meeting that reintroduces contributions do you think parents will be positive to that? They will avoid the kinds of such meetings.

Examining the data above, one would conclude that many parents were not happy with school contributions. So, any practice that reintroduces contributions was resisted. Arguably, this contributed to poor parents' attendance to school meetings. Ideally, one would think that the elimination of school fees and parental contributions would eventually raise commitment of parents to school activities, including attending meetings. Arguing from the findings of this study, it is clear that the tendency of asking parents to contribute for school activities in the meetings has demoralised parents from attending school meetings. According to Epstein's theory, parental involvement in school activities is expected to improve the partnerships between family, school, and the community. However, the current findings oppose such an assumption as parents' participation in school meetings in the current study was low. From this perspective, one would assume that there was poor partnership between the community and the selected schools as a result of fee-free education policy. Arguably, the parents in the current study perceived that fee-free basic education removed them from participation on any activity related to education of their children (Hakielimu, 2017).

Parents' support on Children's School Requirements

Taking care of one's children is one of the things that determine parents' involvement on school activities. Responsible parents usually ensure that their children are well equipped with school uniforms and all learning materials, including exercise books and textbooks. Also, responsible parents are concerned with discipline and attendance of

the child to school. They take measures in case they find that the child's behaviour does not support academic achievements. In this study, it was found that the elimination of school fees and other contributions in public primary schools lowered parenting spirit of parents. The findings show that some parents were totally turned into irresponsible parents as they did not supply necessary school needs to their children. During interviews, some heads of schools agreed that parenting behaviour of some parents was changed. Some students were not well supported as if they had no parents or guardians to take care of them. On this particular observation, one head of school commented:

In my view, fee-free education has lowered parents' spirit of caring for their children. Nowadays, children in our school are not supplied with the needed basic provisions such as uniforms, and exercise books. Can you imagine, we have children coming to school with civilian clothes! We communicated with their parents; they said that they thought everything was supplied by the school because the education is free, then everything ought to be free including wearing clothes of one's choice.

The head of school 'C' also said:

Parents' commitment to their children is very low...to me I can see that poor understanding of FFEP has brought all these troubles. Now, parents think that the task of taking care of children has turned out to be the government's responsibility.

Interview with parents provided similar results. Some parents complained about the behaviour of some of their fellow parents who seemed to be irresponsible since the implementation of fee-free

education policy in primary schools. One parent noted this with a concern:

Honestly, most of the parents have become irresponsible. How dare a child of your own goes to school without any learning materials? Some pupils have no uniforms. When we agreed to contribute for food, there was a great opposing force from parents who always claim that the government has stopped all sorts of parents' contributions. The government has taken the burden instead.

On the same regard, another parent said:

Only a few parents have contributed, but many have not. They don't bother their daughters and sons staying at school hungry. Their song is, 'it is free education', and the government has banned all parents' contributions at schools. They think it is their time to relax and enjoy.

Similarly, another parent from school 'B' argued:

We see some children going to school without school uniforms, exercise books and text books. We conclude that their parents do not care for them...these are actually irresponsible parents. How dare you just let your son or daughter go to school without any proper school uniforms? Has free education grabbed our role to support our own children? In my view, this is indeed a poor understanding of the policy. Some parents think that the government has taken our role of caring for our children. So, children will get everything from school; this is wrong.

The quoted findings above suggest that parents' parenting behaviour has fallen down. Consequently, school managements have been facing

challenges in their quest to provide quality education and school management. It should be noted that when teachers do not feel a parental support, they often believe that it is a waste of their time to contact parents (Uvambe, 2021). The findings from this study show the existing weaker forms of participation of parents in caring for and supporting their children. This does not support the theory which guided the current study. Family/community relationship could not reinforce the importance of the school that would be realised through helping and supporting their children. These findings are close to the findings of Hakielimu (2017) which hold that majority of the parents had heard about fee-free education on radio or through newspapers and they were unclear about what it meant and thought that they would not have to make any contribution for the education of their children. Mbawala (2017) found 67% of the parents who registered their students in schools did not involve themselves effectively in their children's academic activities such as guiding students in attempting home works, checking daily the student's work, tracking students attendance, volunteering in school activities and communicating with teachers and other personnel including heads of schools.

Parents' Support on Home Learning

Pupils' academic achievement is dependent on the efforts of the pupil on one hand and teachers' and parents' on the other hand. Usually, parents are expected to play a major role in supporting children's learning at home. Literature suggests that the effectiveness of children's learning at home depends on the engagement of parents, grandparents and overall family members within the home environment (Ingram et.al, 2007). Equally important, children with high academic support from parents have shown high academic performance. In this study, it is clear that FFEP affected parents' role

in supporting learning at home. For some parents, FFEP gave them the relief when it came to helping children at home. These parents believed that since education was completely free, parents were not supposed to do anything because the government had covered what they were supposed to do. This notion was evident in the interview with the WEO who commented:

I have evidence about some parents who say that they don't support their children's learning at home simply because they are not teachers. If they do the work of teachers, what will teachers do at school? The government is paying them to teach our children. Some go far thanking the FFEP for removing chaos and disturbances of school fees and contributions. They claim that the government is doing everything on their behalf and thus they have been relieved such that they have time to engage in other businesses.

Similar finding was pointed out by a head teacher of school C who said:

Many parents are standard seven leavers. Due to their low level of education, they don't support their children with their homework or supervise their studies at home...Once children are back from school they are given a number of activities to do. They claim that they have spent much time at school and when back home they must assist them in household chores.

Interview with parents showed that parents rarely supported their children's learning at home. One parent commented

"...most of we parents are not responsible...I wish we could continue paying school fees and all mandatory

contributions we could feel the pinch and thus we could support children both at home and school wholeheartedly.

However, there were some parents who held different views. They said that FFEP had relieved them such that they could now take time to support their children in all that could not be offered by the government. They said they had time to support children learning at home and provide them with necessary provisions such as buying the exercise books, school uniforms and supplying them with food. This is what one parent argued:

I am happy that the FFEP has relieved us from a heap of commitments. Look! I have time now to inspect my child's exercise books to check whether he writes all the notes and do the homework. Where necessary, I support him to do correctly his homework.

Similarly, another parent at school A argued:

At least I studied to form four secondary educations. When my son comes back from school I have a tendency of sitting with him trying to assist him academically. If he has questions on some subjects of interest, I support him. I feel rather good to see that he trusts me.

It is argued here that supporting children's learning at home is attributed to by many factors such as educational background and socio-economic status of the parents. This is why Hill and Taylor (2004) argued that parents from lower socioeconomic backgrounds faced many more barriers in their bid to involve their children in learning, including having nonflexible work schedules, lack of resources and stress due to residing in disadvantaged neighbourhood.

The findings by Mbawala (2017) affirms that many parents did not involve themselves effectively in their children's academic activities such as guiding them in attempting home works, checking their daily academic activities and tracking their attendance. It is argued here that lack of parents' involvement in school activities both at home and school is an increasing problem which leads to teachers' frustrations (McDermott & Rothenberg, 2000).

Parents/Community Volunteering in School Development Activities

Parents' volunteering to school activities may include helping schools as volunteering teachers in case of shortage of teachers, fundraising or offering labour for construction projects (classrooms or toilets building) at the school (Durisic & Bunijevac, 2017). This study found low parents' volunteering spirit in schools' activities. While visiting schools, current researchers found some existing school projects initiated by parents many years ago, but were incomplete. In the interview with one of heads of schools he noted that parents' volunteering spirit had dwindled, in comparison to what it was in the past years (prior to FFEP). He commented:

The way I see, prior to FEP parents were taking schools as theirs...so volunteering for school activities was very high...Parents were volunteering in brick making, fetching water for school projects. Some parents volunteered to teach some subjects they were able to...During sports, parents volunteered to teach traditional ngoma and songs...They also offered labour power in construction of classrooms and toilets. However, since the implementation of FFEP the argument has been that the government has paid for the school to hire experts to undertake such activities...volunteering in schools is seen as a bygone practice. Nowadays, it's very rare to see parents

volunteering. If they do, they do it unwillingly fearing punishment from the local government. In fact, they don't do it willingly.

The heads of schools had similar observation. One of them commented:

Today, it is hard to see parents volunteering in school activities. Take an example, my school has inadequate toilets. In 2016, parents launched toilet construction project...as I speak now the project has not yet been completed; it has almost come to a complete stop. There is a lot of complaints from the construction committee that parents refused to contribute as they agreed.

One parent had a similar view. This is what she said:

I don't participate in all school activities. I just attend those activities which I can manage...we had a building that we were required to make bricks for ... I only attended twice...from there, I stopped because I was discouraged by poor attendance. Only a few parents attended in that brick making activity. I have a lot of commitments too.

Another parent said: "...

I have never volunteered in any school project despite the fact that my son studies here...I'm busy with shamba activities...the government has been doing all work for our children on our behalf.

The above findings relate to the findings of Mbawala (2017) and Gregory (2018) who found that the majority of parents who registered their children to schools did not effectively volunteer in school activities. Hence, the current researchers have the opinion that parents

need to be made aware that their voluntary and meaningful involvement is important as it plays a decisive role in developing their children's potential; they need to be guided to fulfil their role. The data collected from the documentary review also indicated low status of parents' participation in school activities. The reviewed documents included parents' *attendance register to voluntary activities, documents on existing voluntary projects, school committee reports, parents' meeting register book, parents' contributions record book, parents meetings minutes/reports, and academic progressive report*. Table 1 below summarizes the findings from the reviewed documents.

Table 1: Status of Parents' Participation from 2016 to 2020

SNO	Indicators of parents' participation	Status from 2016 to date		
		School A	School B	School C
1	Parents' attendance register to voluntary activities	4	Nil	2
2	Parents' meeting minutes	6 out of 20	3 out of 20	4 out of 20
3	Parental voluntary/support projects at school	2 classrooms, 10 pits toilet	4 classrooms	Desks contributions and 2 classrooms building
4	Presence of school committee	Available	Available	Available
5	Parents-teachers communication records	Nil	Nil	Nil

Source: Field data

From Table 1, it is clear that parental participation in school activities varied substantially from activity to activity. Participation was relatively high in parents’ voluntary activities that involved building of classrooms and toilets when compared to other activities. In general, the attendances of parents in school activities were relatively low and varied considerably. It can be argued that the attendance, therefore, affected in one way or another parents’ engagement in school activities.

Parents’ Perceptions on FFEP

Parent’s views on their participation in school activities within fee-free basic education context, was one of the issues captured by this study. The assumption behind was that understanding parents’ views was vital so as to gauge their understanding of fee-free education policy. Data related to this aspect were captured using interviews. The findings showed mixed perceptions of parents with regard to fee-free education policy in relation to their participation in school activities. The major perceptions are summarized in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Parents/Community’s Perceptions of FFEP

Policy Statement	Parents/community perception
The Government shall ensure a free basic education in public system.	FFE policy as a kind of freedom from operational costs
	Shift of roles and responsibilities from parents to the government – community acts as mere beneficiaries in the new realm of relationship
	Increase of family expenditure on education for the poor

Source: Field Data

This study suggests that the parents had three different views on FFEP. For some, FFEP has relieved parents from the burden of mandatory contributions; parents become free from school operational costs. On this aspect, for instance, one parent said:

I am very grateful to the current government. It cares for us (poor families). Paying school fees was a heavy burden for us.... Now things are okay; there is absolutely nothing to worry about. No school fees, no contributions for security, water, desks. All of these have been banned. I am very happy.

This view could arguably be contributed due to the fact that parents were relieved from responsibilities of paying school fees and other mandatory contributions. Other parents had the opinion that fee-free education policy shifted roles and responsibilities from them (parents) to the government. On this aspect, one parent noted:

I'm very happy with the FFEP. This policy has relieved us (poor parents) from a multiplicity of commitments, including paying school fees and other mandatory contributions. I can see that the government decided to carry the parents' load. The role of financing the education for our children has shifted to the government. Now, the government has been supplying to school all what students need in schools, including capitation grants, supply of books, building of school infrastructure and other facilities.

This perception could arguably be tied to the fact that prior to the FFEP, parents used to pay school fees and other mandatory contributions. This brought them close to school issues. Currently, they feel a gap between them and schools. Some of the parents viewed

FFEP as a policy which increased expenditure for the poor. In some schools, parents (themselves) discussed and introduced contribution such as food programme for students, evening classes, security, and classroom construction. With these non-mandatory contributions, some parents found themselves. They felt that these contributions added up to the costs of uniforms and exercise books incurred by parents. On this aspect, some parents commented:

Although the FFEP has freed us from school fees and other mandatory contributions, the policy has somehow increased the burden to (us) parents. As a parent of two children studying in this school, I have been vulnerable to unplanned contributions. They just come up from parents' meetings for the name of school activities and projects. I note similar complaints from fellow parents. We feel that the FFEP has added costs of education in a different way. It is better to pay school fees. Take an example; we are needed to pay a lot of contributions initiated by parents' meetings or school committees. We are told to contribute for school feeding programme, utilities, graduations and constructions of classrooms and toilets.

Another parent noted:

In my view, despite the presence of FFEP, education has never been free as many people think. There is still a range of other emerging contributions that cumulatively have added to education expenses that (we) parents have now been charged.

With such parents' perceptions (relieved from the burden of mandatory contributions, shift of roles and responsibilities from

parents to the government and Increase of family expenditure on education), two conclusions can be arrived. One, it could be argued that parents had poor understanding of the FFEP. Believing that they were relieved from the burden and the shift of roles and responsibility are arguably connected to poor understanding of the policy (Uvambe, 2021). This is due to the reason that parents cannot be relieved by anyone their responsibilities as parents. FFEP does not cover direct costs such as child feeding and school uniform. Second, the capitation grant provided by the government is not sufficient to cover school needs (Uvambe, 2021). Consequently, schools (through parents' meetings) have to seek other ways to funds their activities; there comes non-mandatory contribution. The non-mandatory contributions somehow distort the meaning of FFEP and raise parents' complaints. Thus, it is recommended that government should ensure that enough funds is allocated for capitation grant, and they should be disbursed on time.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This study addressed two research questions: What is the impact of eliminating school fees and parental contributions in primary schools on parental and community participation in school related activities? and How do parents view their participation in primary school activities in the context of fee-free education? As mentioned earlier, the first research question of this study investigated the impacts of eliminating school fees and parental contributions in primary schools on parental and community participation in school related activities. On this aspect, the study concludes that the implementation of FFEP resulted in a significant reduction of parental participation in school activities.

This study holds that the reduction of parental involvement in school activities has been influenced by poor perceptions of parents towards a newly established fee-free education policy in the country. Most parents thought that the government was responsible for everything. The second research question explored the parents' views on their participation in primary school activities in the context of fee-free education. On this aspect, the study concludes that parents had mixed feelings regarding their participation in primary school activities in the context of FFEP. However, most of them thought that FFEP had provided them with a room to escape from contributions and other school responsibilities. Hence, calling them to volunteer in anything was regarded as increasing the burden to parents, especially for poor households. As a result, such kind of parents did not involve themselves in anything related to school development and their children learning. Based on the arguments developed in this article, it is recommended that strategic measures should be taken to educate the public (parents) on FFEP with their respective roles and responsibilities. The government should find a way to restrict too many contributions which may lead to parents' negative attitude towards FFEP. Also, there is a need to improve the existing policy in order to plug loop holes that discourage parental participation in school activities; a model of parental participation in schools activities within the context of FFEP need be established. Other studies need to be conducted to establish an engaging model which can motivate and attract parents' participation in issues related to schools.

References

- Action Aid (2010). *Politics of Participation: Parental support for children's learning and school governance in Burundi, Malawi, Senegal and Uganda*. Action Aid
- Back, U.K. (2010). Parental involvement practices in formalized home-school cooperation. *Scandinavian Journal of Education Research*, 54, 549-563.
- Chikoine, L.E. (2016). *Free primary education, schooling and fertility: Evidence from Ethiopia*. IZA Discussion paper No. 10387
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (2nd Ed.). London, United Kingdom: Sage.
- Daven, J. (2008). *Free primary education in Tanzania? A case study on costs and accessibility of primary education in Babati Town*. Copenhagen: Södertörn University College.
- Dennis, L. & Stahley, K. (2012). Universal primary education in Tanzania: The role of school Experiences and opportunity costs. *Evans school Review*, 2 (1), 47-58
- Durisic, M. & Bunijevac, M. (2017). Parents involvement as a important factor for successful education. *C.E.P.S Journal*, 7, 137-153.
- Epstein, J. L., Sanders, M. G., Simon, B. S., Salinas, K. C., Jansorn, N.R., & Van Voorhis, F.L. (2002). *School, family and community partnerships: Your hand book for action*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.
- Epstein, J.L. (2009). *School, family and community partnerships: Preparing educators and improving schools*. Philadelphia, PA: West view.
- Fitriah, A. (2010). *Community participation in education: Does decentralization matter?* (Master's thesis, Massey University, Massey: New Zealand)
- Gregory, S. (2018, December, 11th Tuesday). *Pros and cons of fee free education three years on*. The Citizens.
- HakiElimu. (2017). *The impact of implementation of free education policy on basic education in Tanzania: A qualitative study*. Dar es Salaam: HakiElimu.

- Hill, N.E & Tylor, L. (2004). Parental school involvement and children's academic achievement: pragmatics and issues. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 13 (04): 161-164
- Ingram, M., Wolfe, R.B., Lieberman, J.M. (2007). The role of parents in high achieving schools serving low income at risk populations. *Sage Journals*. 39(4) 479-497.
- Joseph, C. (2014). *Factors hindering parents' participation in school activities in Tanzania: A case of Arusha district*. (Master's dissertation, The Open University of Tanzania, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania)
- Kattan, R. B. (2006). *Implementation of free basic education policy*. Washington, D.C: World Bank.
- Kimu, A. M. (2012). *Parents' involvement in public primary schools in Kenya*. (Doctoral thesis, University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa),
- Komba, A. (2010). *The role of forms of family in engagement with primary school: Implications for poverty alleviation through education in Tanzania*. (Doctoral thesis, University of Bath, Bath, UK)
- Mbawala, M. B. (2017). *An assessment of the implementation of fee free basic education in Tanzania: A case of Ruangwa district Council, Lindi region*. (Master's dissertation, The Open University of Tanzania, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania)
- Mcdermott, P. & Rothenberg, J. (2000). Why urban parents resist involvement in their children's elementary education. *The Qualitative Report*, 5(3), 1-16.
- Miles, M., & Huberman A.M. (1994). *Qualitative Data analysis: expanded source books* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, US: Sage.
- Msoroka, M. (2010). *Financing education in Tanzania: Policy transformations, achievements and challenges*. Dodoma: The University of Dodoma
- Msoroka, M. (2018). *Prison education in Tanzania: An exploration of policy and practice*. (PhD thesis, The University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand)
- Nyembeke, I.V. (2016). *Parental involvement on students' academic activities in community secondary schools in Tanzania*. (Master's

- dissertation, The Open University of Tanzania, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania)
- Rajan, R., & Omondi, G. (2003). *The primary education development plan (PEDP): A summary*. Dar es Salaam: Hakielimu, Working Paper
- Sheehey, P. H. (2006). Parent involvement in educational decision making: A Hawaiian Perspective. *Sage Journals*, 25(4), 3-15
- UNESCO. (2010). *World data on education: Bulgaria*. Paris: UNESCO
- UNESCO. (2015). *EFA global report on education for all 2000-2015: Achievement and challenges*. Paris: UNESCO
- Uvambe, Z. J. (2021). *Impacts of fee-free education on parental and community participation in primary school activities in Songea Municipality, Tanzania*. (Master's dissertation, The Open University of Tanzania, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania)
- World Bank & UNICEF. (2009). *Abolishing school fees in Africa: Lessons from Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi and Mozambique*. Washington D.C: The World Bank.
- Yin, R.K. (2014). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Assessing the Availability and Utilisation of Educational Resources in Public Secondary Schools in Singida Municipality, Tanzania

John Shumbi¹ Karoli John Mrema²

Email: johnshumbi@yahoo.com¹

The Open University of Tanzania

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the availability and utilisation of educational resources in public secondary schools in Singida municipality. The descriptive survey research design was used for the study. The study involved 336 students who were randomly selected and 42 teachers who were purposively chosen from public secondary schools. The instruments used for the study were questionnaires, interview checklists, observations, and document reviews. The study found that some educational resources like computers, projectors, and bulletin boards were unavailable in most of the secondary schools visited. Also, the study findings indicated that educational resources were inadequate. Furthermore, the study findings revealed that the utilisation of educational resources is at a low level. The study concludes that some educational resources were not available in public secondary schools, and the available resources were not adequate and were not being utilised perfectly. Among others, the study recommends that the government should ensure access to educational resources in schools, capitation grants provided per student should be raised, and ensure effective utilisation of the available resources.

Keywords: *Availability, educational resources, physical resources, public schools, and utilisation*

INTRODUCTION

This study is focused on assessing the availability and utilisation of educational resources in public secondary schools in Singida Municipality. Education is a powerful driver of development and one of the most powerful tools for poverty eradication, health improvement, gender equality, peace, and stability (World Bank, 2021). Education fosters economic growth and improves people's lives in various ways, including boosting labour force efficiency, an individual's earning potential, and strengthening democracy ([Barro, 1999](#)). According to [Sakmurzaeva \(2018\)](#), no matter whether it is a developing or developed country, its socio-economic development is greatly influenced by its educational system. The country's development is not possible in the true sense unless people's education is given priority. By recognising the role of education, various governments and non-government organisations have been investing a lot of capital in addressing infrastructural challenges in educational institutions.

It should be noted that educational investment is an attractive opportunity for investment in today's world – both privately and socially ([Psacharopoulos, 1994](#)). In 2020, the World Bank Group (WBG), which is the main sponsor of education in developing countries, provided \$5.2 billion for education initiatives, technical support, and other projects aimed at improving learning and ensuring that everyone has access to the education they need ([World Bank Group, 2021](#)). Sub-Saharan African countries also recognize the importance of basic education for economic and social development. All have agreed to the Dakar World Education framework and universal educational goals ([UNESCO, 2000](#)). In the case of Tanzania, the situation is much the same as in other countries in the world. Since 1960s, after independence of Tanganyika and Zanzibar (later they

formed Tanzania), there have been various efforts to ensure that the education provided to Tanzanians is of quality and meets the needs of society. For instance, since independence, curriculum reforms have been made four times. These reforms include the 1967 curriculum reform, the 1979 curriculum reform, the 1997 curriculum reform, and the 2005 curriculum reform ([Nzima, 2016](#); [TIE, 2013](#)). These changes have been fuelled by various factors, such as changes in national policy and international implications such as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Education for All (EFA). These curriculum improvements and policy changes have successfully raised the number of enrolled students, the number of educational institutions, the number of educational infrastructures, the number of professionals in various fields, and finally reduced illiteracy. The current state of education is not the same as in the 1960s.

For example, currently the number of scholars in different cadres, including teachers, has increased. With regard to primary and secondary schools, the number has grown significantly in almost every village and every ward respectively. Universities have also increased considerably compared to the number of universities existed when Tanganyika and Zanzibar gained their independence. Changes in curriculum and the government's policies have been the driving forces for the growth of education in the country. For example, in implementing "The Primary Education Development Plan" (PEDP) in January 2002, all fees in primary schools were eliminated. This enabled more students to be enrolled in primary schools ([Hoogeveen & Rossi, 2013](#)). On the other hand, education development has been accompanied by a growing need for more investment in education infrastructure. The availability and utilisation of educational resources are related to perceived students' learning outcomes in educational institutions ([Ibukun, Akinfolarin, & Alimi 2011](#)). Students' learning

outcomes in schools primarily depend on the availability and appropriate administration of resources ([Neill, 2001](#)). School facilities such as classrooms, laboratories, libraries, furniture, latrines, human and financial resources are essential in ensuring effective teaching and learning activities. All human, financial, physical, nonphysical, audio-visual, educational institutions' environments and community materials available in an academic setting have to be employed in the educational process to achieve particular goals ([Usman, 2016](#)). Although there has been a large increase in the number of public secondary schools and the number of students enrolled in primary and secondary schools; yet, students' performance is low ([Brandt & Mkenda, 2020](#)). Various studies have linked the declining performance and quality of education with teacher's motivations (salaries/other incentives) and the availability of human, financial and material resources ([Kaya, 2016; Mkalagale, 2013; Sifuna, 2007](#)). Nevertheless, very few have focused on the utilisation of available resources. Although certain facilities may be available and sufficient, but teachers and students may not use them effectively. This study, therefore, filled the gap; it assessed the availability and utilisation of educational resources. Specifically, the study:

1. Assessed the availability and adequacy of educational resources using the minimum quality criteria for teaching and learning in secondary schools.
2. Examined the degree to which teachers and students utilized the available educational resources.

Literature Review

Theoretical Literature Review

This study was underpinned by the System Resource Theory on Organisational Effectiveness, suggested by [Yuchtman and Seashore](#)

(1967). This theory looks at the effectiveness of an organisation as the bargaining power; it suggests that effectiveness of an organisation is an organisation's ability to exploit its surroundings in the acquisition of valuable resources, in either absolute or relative terms. The theory emphasizes that an organisation's overall capabilities as a resource-getting system are concerned with the number of resources it provides to its relevant environment. In schools, like any other organisation, their effectiveness is measured in terms of their ability to acquire resources and use them to achieve their objectives. Yutchman and Seashore (1967) also emphasized that resources are essential for the company's efficacy. Furthermore, they viewed an organisation as an open system that focuses on how internal processes mediate the relationships between inputs and outputs. Hence, the system resource theory of organisational effectiveness is highly relevant to this study because it explains the schools' interaction with their environment in the acquisition of scarce educational facilities.

Empirical Literature Review on the availability of Educational Resources

Experience from outside Tanzania

According to Sifuna and Sawamura (2010), most policymakers in developing countries focused on school access and enrolment during the 1970s and 1980s. An increase of the number of students enrolled in primary schools led to an increase in the number of students in secondary schools. In one way or another, this increase of students' number led to a shortage of educational resources, especially in developing countries. Thus, it became apparent that simply going to school was not enough to assure a decent level of fundamental education. Governments and other stakeholders noted that an increased number of enrolled students alone is not enough; the quality of education provided to the learners is also essential. The World Conference on Education for All, held in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990,

and the World Education Forum, held in Dakar, Senegal in 2000, reflected a growing concern regarding the quality of education (Rao, 2003; Windham, 1992). Pareek (2019) researched the availability and utilisation of a science laboratory for science teaching and learning at secondary level in India. In this study, they found no science laboratories in most schools involved in the study. Many teachers had difficulty in conducting practical activities due to overcrowded classrooms and insufficient equipment and materials. Based on the study's findings, the study noted that it is crucial that laboratories have the necessary equipment and thus insisted the government, in collaboration with other education stakeholders, to ensure that laboratory equipment is available in schools. Obidile and Obi (2020) assessed the adequacy, availability, and extent of utilisation of teaching materials in the delivery of business education in secondary schools in Anambra State, Nigeria.

The study revealed that secondary schools lacked the necessary instructional materials to teach business studies. There was also a lack of adequate instructional materials and a low utilisation level. The study recommended that the government and donors should assist public secondary schools and make instructional materials available and adequate for successful teaching and learning of business studies. In the Nyamasheke district, Rwanda, Harindintwari, Veraeli, and Ogondiek (2020) studied the impact of educational resources availability and educational resources utilisation in implementing the competence-based curriculum. The study revealed insufficient physical and educational resources in nine years of primary education. They argued that school materials availability and utilisation are critical in every country's education system for students to gain new knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values.

State of Educational Resources in Tanzania

In Zanzibar, Masoud (2012) examined the availability and utilisation of educational materials, as well as the competence of teachers in the Urban West district. The study revealed poor distribution, accessibility, availability, and utilisation of educational resources. Teachers in these schools were incompetent; this resulted into poor academic performance of students. Based on the study's findings, it was recommended that the government's education budget be increased to provide sufficient teaching and learning materials to public secondary schools in Urban West, Zanzibar. Kapinga (2017) discussed the core aspects of quality in education in Tanzania. He used proxy indicators such as pupil-teacher ratios and pupil-book ratios. He found insufficient number of textbooks, reference books, maps, and globes in Tanzanian public schools due to the increase in the number of students.

Further, he reported that most public schools in Tanzania had a shortage of facilities like classrooms, desks, and chairs; the available classrooms were found to be poorly constructed with insufficient space. Based on the findings, it is suggested that curriculum developers (the Tanzania Institute of Education) should collaborate with policymakers to develop a policy guideline that will improve the provision of instructional materials and physical facilities (Sephania, et al. 2017). Chipana (2018) conducted a case study to explore the influence of library resource utilisation on secondary school students' academic performance in Tanzania. He revealed that the few existing school libraries were insufficient to facilitate effective student learning. The condition of these school libraries was poor in terms of space for books and library users. The study concluded that inadequate seating facilities, shortage of qualified librarians, and shortage of up-to-date reading resources were among the issues faced by the school libraries.

Malekani (2018) conducted a study on ICTs access, use, and challenges in Secondary Schools in Tanzanian. The study revealed that the status of ICTs in secondary schools was poor. Further, schools did not have enough ICT facilities, and even those available were underutilised. Based on the study, it was suggested that, deliberate efforts needed to be taken to overcome the existing issues so as to effectively introduce and utilize these emerging technologies.

Synthesis and Knowledge Gap from the Literature

Various studies explain the existing relationship between educational resources' availability and utilisation with effectiveness of educational organisations and students' performance. They point out that educational resources such as classrooms, libraries, latrines, furniture, and teaching and learning materials are essential tools for improving education quality and students' performance. Further, various studies have been conducted in this area and have highlighted the importance of the availability and effective utilisation of educational resources. They have described the relationship between educational resources' availability and utilisation with student performance. Their findings have highlighted various challenges related to availability and utilisation of educational facilities. Very few studies examined this topic in Tanzania ([Malekani, 2018](#); [Masoud, 2012](#)); none of them has researched on the availability and utilisation of educational resources in general, in secondary schools. Therefore, this study sought to fill that gap; it assessed the availability and utilisation of physical, financial and human resources.

Methodology

A mixed-methods research approach was employed in this study. In the mixed-methods research, both qualitative and quantitative aspects are used. The research was carried out in Singida Municipality, Singida region. The target population was 11,845 (370 teachers and

11,475 students) from 18 public secondary schools. Simple random and purposive sampling techniques were used to sample schools, teachers, and students. With simple random sampling (balloting without replacement), fourteen public secondary schools were selected. Based on Krejcie and Morgan's Table, 378 respondents were selected (336 students and 14 academic teachers, 14 deputy heads of schools, and 14 heads of schools). Simple random sampling was used to select 336 students, and purposive sampling was used to obtain the remained participants. Heads of schools, deputy heads of schools, and academic teachers were purposively chosen because they were believed to be familiar with the availability and utilisation of all the educational resources in their schools. Data were collected through questionnaires, interviews, observation, and documentary review.

Questionnaires were used to collect information from students and teachers. After a short introduction from the researcher, teachers and students were given the questionnaires to fill out. The study also employed a face-to-face interview technique, in which the researcher personally asked questions to the heads of school. Education statistics ledger from the district education officer, student registration book, teachers' roster, and teachers' workload from the office of the heads of schools were among the documents examined. The instruments were validated by consulting research experts and peer group members. Validity was further maintained by using triangulation in the data collection process. Cronbach Alpha statistics were used to test the reliability of the instruments. The reliability correlation coefficient of 0.859 was obtained. A 100% return rate was recorded after the administration of the questionnaires. The data were computed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). In adhering to ethical issues, the researcher sought permission from Singida District Executive Director (DED) to collect data from the target population.

Furthermore, the researcher enrolled participants in the study based on their own voluntary informed consent. In addition, the issues of privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity of the involved participants were considered.

Findings and Discussion

This article determines the adequacy and utilisation of the available educational resources. The study focused on three categories of educational resources, which are financial, human, and physical/material resources.

Availability and Adequacy of Educational Resources

Availability and Adequacy of Financial Resources

In assessing the availability and adequacy of financial resources, semi-structured interviews were used in a conversation with the heads of schools. The researcher asked about the availability, adequacy and sources of financial resources. All heads of schools admitted to receiving capitation grant from the government; it is the main source of schools' income, which is provided based on the number of students. However, they noted that the provided funds were not adequate to meet the needs of the school.

One of the heads of schools noted:

Our budgets for school operations are heavily dependent on government capitation grant provided per student. The government has been providing monthly grants for twelve months of the year, despite the availability of these grants but the running of the school is still challenging due to the fact that the capitation grant given does not meet the needs of the school. It has been difficult to buy teaching and

learning material due to insufficient grants. (Interview with the head of school, 2022).

As seen in the data, capitation grant is the main source of school funds, it is not sufficient. Due to insufficiency of funds, schools failed to purchase sufficient teaching and learning materials. Since financial resources are used to carry out the business's main operations like purchasing goods and services and making a long-term investment ([EconomicPoint, n.d.](#)), the school, like any other business-oriented institutions, needs financial resources to run itself. Shortage of this was found to be a threat to the quality of education since the quality of education would be determined by educational resources; whereas all those resources depend on the presence of financial resources. These findings align with the reports of several researchers that examined the availability and adequacy of funds in public secondary schools in Tanzania ([Kassim, 2021](#); [Mndeme, 2020](#); [Munisi et al., 2021](#)). All of them have noted that the allocated fund in public secondary schools was insufficient. Therefore, they recommended that the government should revise the budget allocated per student.

Availability and Adequacy of Teachers

Table 1: Teachers' availability in Singida Municipality

Subject	Frequency/Percent	Teachers required	Teachers available	Teachers deficiency
Science teachers	Frequency percent %	208 40.3	113 21.9	95 18.4
Arts teachers	Frequency percent %	308 59.7	257 49.8	51 9.9
Total	Frequency	516	370	146
	percent %	100	71.7	28.3

Source: Singida Municipal Secondary Education Statistical Ledger (2022)

The study also assessed teachers' availability as one of the key educational resources. The findings indicate that there is a shortage of teachers in public secondary schools. It was found that the number of teachers available did not match the needs of those schools. It was noted that the situation was even worse for science subject teachers. In the schools visited, none of the schools had adequate teachers. The data revealed that Singida Municipality had a deficit of 146 teachers, which is equivalent to 28.3% of the required teachers. During interviews with the heads of schools, they all noted that teachers were available but not adequate to meet the needs. For instance, one of the heads of schools stated:

To some extent, I would dare to say that the government's efforts are promising on the issue of teachers' availability compared to previous years. Despite these compliments but the challenge of teachers' shortage still exists. The number of the available teachers does not match the school's needs. There has been an increase of the number of students enrolled in secondary schools, while the number of teachers remained the same or even declining. (Semi-structured interview with head of school, 2022).

This suggests that the shortage of teachers in secondary schools is still huge and need to be given priority in addressing it. From these results, it is clear that the government and other education stakeholders should take deliberate steps to address this problem since the quality of education depends mainly on the presence of competent teachers. These findings are in line with those reported by other scholars ([King, 2013](#); [Lawrent, 2020](#); [Munisi et al., 2021](#)). All these scholars have found deficit of teachers, particularly science teachers, in public secondary schools. This negatively impacted the

students' academic success and achievement. The System Resource Theory used in this study emphasises that an organisation's overall capabilities, as a resource-getting system, are concerned with the number of resources it provides to its relevant environment. On this basis, the adequacy of teachers in schools is a critical issue in strengthening the capacity of educational institutions so as to provide education that meets the expectations of the clients. Thus, for effective teaching and learning, adequate teachers are needed to facilitate the entire teaching and learning process.

Availability and Adequacy of Educational Physical Resources

The educational physical resources assessed in this study include library chairs, tables, projectors, computers, printing machines, duplicating machines, display boards, bulletin boards, whiteboards, charts, maps, models, pictures, and globes. The results show that physical educational resources were inadequate and some resources like computers, projectors, display boards, bulletin boards, and whiteboards were not available at all. Of all the physical education facilities investigated, chalkboards, offices, and classrooms were adequate in most of the schools. It was found that all other physical education facilities were inadequate in the schools visited. The table below summarises the data from teachers and students.

Table 2: Availability of Physical Resources

S/N	Variable	Variable description			S/N	Variable	Variable description		
		Sufficient	Short	Not Available			Sufficient	Short	Not Available
1	Classrooms	61%	39%	0%	14	Chalkboard	79%	21%	0%
2	Libraries	19%	67%	14%	15	Whiteboard	0%	10%	90%
3	Lab & lab equipment	22%	65%	13%	16	Bull. Board	4%	16%	80%
4	Latrines	32%	68%	0%	17	Display Board	16%	43%	41%
5	Offices	56%	41%	3%	18	Charts	13%	68%	19%
6	Student's table	36%	64%	0%	19	Models	18%	73%	9%
7	Student's chairs	36%	64%	0%	20	Maps	13%	73%	14%
8	Office table	43%	57%	0%	21	Projectors	5%	25%	70%
9	Office chairs	40%	60%	0%	22	Computers	2%	49%	49%
10	Lab. tables	28%	61%	11%	23	Printers	7%	69%	24%
11	Lab. chairs	19%	59%	22%	24	Globs	13%	68%	19%
12	Lib. tables	16%	54%	30%	25	Pictures	10%	71%	19%
13	Lib. chairs	14%	58%	28%	26	Duplicating machine.	10%	61%	29%
AVERAGE OF VARIABLE DESCRIPTIONS							24%	54%	22%

Source: Field data (2022)

As seen from the data, generally, the findings show that educational physical resources in secondary schools were inadequate. Since it was obvious that schools endowed with more resources perform better than schools that are less endowed (Adeogun, 2001), one would argue that the performance of public secondary schools was likely to be affected by inadequate educational resources. The findings of this

study are conquer with those obtained by [Naisiyaki et al., \(2017\)](#), Sephania et al., (2017), Victorini and Wambiya (2016) and Mgaya (2021) who found that most public secondary schools had inadequate physical facilities for class work. Hence, this was an obstacle to the implementation of the curriculum. This study was guided by the System Resource Theory of organisational effectiveness, which emphasizes that an organisation's overall capabilities as a resource-getting system are concerned with the number of resources to its relevant environment. It is argued here that the adequacy of educational resources, such as financial, human, and material resources, plays an essential role in the effectiveness of teaching and learning. Therefore, the researcher urges the government to see how it can improve the grants provided to schools based on the number of students. The government should expand investments in infrastructure and equipment to meet the demand.

Utilisation of Educational Resources in Secondary Schools

Utilisation of Teachers

Data on the utilisation of teachers were gathered from documentary review of teachers' workload per week and the Pupil/Student-Teacher Ratio (PTR) retrieved from heads of schools. [Figure 1](#) presents teachers' workload and PTRs.

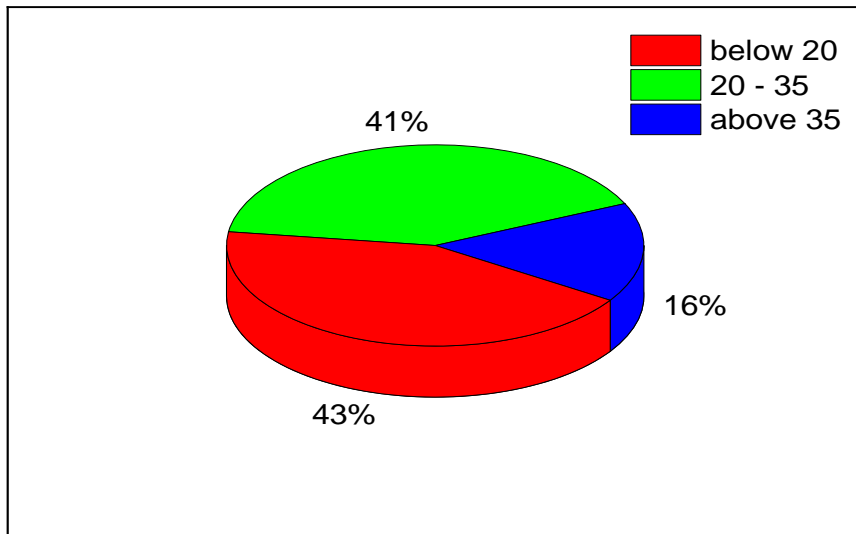


Figure 1: Distribution of Teachers' Workload

Source: Field data (2022)

The findings of this study show that workload is still not as per Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP)'s targets. One of the SEDP's targets was to optimize the utilisation of teachers and teaching load at 30 periods per week (URT, 2004). Contrary to the SEDP'S targets, results in Figure 1 show that sixteen 16% of the teachers had more than 35 periods (class sessions) per week. This was due to the large number of students as compared to available teachers. The data indicate that 41% of the teachers had between 20 and 35 class sessions per week. This is considered as optimum class sessions as it is within the range of the 30 periods suggested by SEDP. It is also noted that 43% of the teachers had below 20 class sessions per week. This is arguably the result of large number of teachers in a particular subject in a school. Based on the study findings, one would argue that teachers were not well utilised. For this reason, the effectiveness of teaching and learning activities in schools was probably affected. It

should be noted that, on one hand, overloading teachers with a large number of class sessions affects students' performance ([Chirimi, 2016](#)). On the other hand, teachers having significantly fewer periods per week is a misuse of the few resources available.

Table 3: Government-owned Schools and Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR) (2016-2021)

YEAR/ITERM	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021
Schools	3,614	3,604	3,632	3,742	3,863	3,873
Students	469,589	1,565,201	1,814,686	2,023,205	2,172,257	2,379,945
Teachers	89,554	89,475	82,023	84,106	84,614	87,621
PTR	16	17	22	24	26	27

Source: [URT \(2020\)](#)

Table 4: Student-teacher Ratio (PTR) – Singida Municipality

School	Students	Teachers	PTR
School 1	1011	30	34
School 2	431	18	24
School 3	406	19	21
School 4	774	22	35
School 5	951	25	38
School 6	651	20	33
School 7	513	13	39
School 8	766	17	45
School 9	376	13	29
School 10	1079	25	43
School 11	612	22	28
School 12	389	13	30
School 13	749	28	27
School 14	646	20	32
AVERAGE	668	20	33

Source: Field data (2022)

On the aspect of student-teacher ratio, the data show that, national wise, there has been a significant increase in PTR. The data shows that the ration worsened from 1:16 in 2016 to 1:27 in 2021 ([Table 3](#)). The data from the schools visited in Singida Municipality in 2022 have shown a ratio of 1:33 ratio of students to teachers. The government, through Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP), set a target that by the year 2009 the pupil-teacher ratio should be 1:30 ([URT, 2004](#)). Based on the current findings, it is clear that the said target has not yet been achieved. The highest PTR was 1:45 recorded from school 8; the lowest was 1:21 recorded from school 3. These findings are corresponding to those reported by [Lyanga and Chen \(2020\)](#) who noted that in most classrooms, the student-teacher ratio was unbalanced.

Based on these findings, it should be recalled that the number of secondary schools has been increasing year after year as a result of the government's efforts to ensure that Tanzanians have access to education. Also, there has been a significant increase in student enrolment; however, this success has not been matched with the increase in the number of qualified teachers. Instead, the number of teachers has been decreasing year after year. This has worsened the pupil-teacher ratio from 1:16 in 2016 to 1: 27 in 2021, thus posing a challenge to effective teaching and learning. Literature suggests that reducing the class size has an overall positive effect on students' achievement, whereas worsened the student-teacher ratio (PTR) negatively affects students' achievement ([Achilles et al., 1998](#)). In this study, it was learnt that teachers were not being utilised well since for some subjects, teachers (in certain schools) were many compared to the needs, while in other schools they were scarce. Generally, as it was observed, teachers in schools were poorly allocated because in certain

schools there were too many teachers of a particular subject, while other schools had a shortage of teachers in the same subjects.

Utilisation of Educational Physical Resources

Questionnaires were used to collect data on the utilisation of the physical resources. The teachers and students were asked to rate the utilisation of the physical resources by indicating whether the physical resources were utilized to the maximum, to some extent, or not utilized at all. Their responses are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Utilisation of Physical Resources – Teachers’ and Students’ Responses

Item	Item Utilisation			Item	Item Utilisation		
	Maximum	To some extent	Not at all		Maximum	To some	Not at all
Classrooms	85%	15%	0%	Chalkboard	85%	12%	3%
libraries	37%	44%	20%	Whiteboard	3%	2%	95%
Laboratory	53%	45%	3%	Bulletin Board	8%	20%	73%
Latrines	64%	35%	2%	Display Board	14%	30%	56%
Offices	67%	25%	8%	Charts	36%	51%	13%
Student Table	86%	14%	0%	Models	29%	63%	8%
Student	86%	14%	0%	Maps	20%	69%	12%
Office Tables	75%	24%	0%	Projectors	3%	30%	67%
Office Chairs	80%	20%	0%	Computers	17%	38%	51%
Lab Tables	48%	35%	2%	Printers	18%	48%	39%
Lab Chairs	54%	26%	20%	Globs	28%	54%	18%
Library Tables	30%	32%	39%	Pictures	20%	64%	16%
Library Chairs	30%	30%	40%	Duplicating machine	27%	42%	31%
AVERAGE					42%	34%	24%

Source: Field data (2022)

The study found underutilisation of physical resources such as libraries, library chairs, tables, projectors, computers, printing machines, duplicating machines, display boards, bulletin boards, whiteboards, charts, maps, models, pictures, and globes. The results show that utilisation of the available physical resources was low (less than 50%); the maximum utilisation was only 42%. This shows low level of utilisation of physical resources. Materials like projectors, computers, printers, bulletin boards, whiteboards, library and library materials, and laboratory equipment were found to have been rarely used. The findings suggest that, the available resources were not being utilised to their maximum. It should be noted that poor utilisation of resources such as laboratories, libraries, computers, and other teaching and learning materials may affect the process of teaching and learning, hence poor performance. Again, it should be recalled that good outcomes in education depend on the availability of resources and how the available resources are utilised ([Bukoye, 2019](#); [Olufunke, 2012](#)). These findings concur with those obtained from interviews. For instance, one of the participants stated:

We have laboratory buildings, but we rarely use them. Often, the form four students who prepare for exams are the ones who use the laboratory the most. Regarding the library, the situation is the same; it is not used much since most of the time it is closed. In general, it is used as a place just for storing books. Teaching and learning materials such as globes, charts, maps, computers, and projectors are also rarely used." (Interview with the student, 2022)

The findings of the current study are in line with those observed by ([Mayaka, 2019](#); [Pamela & Mwila, 2022](#); [Wanjiku, 2013](#)). They all found that the available physical resources in secondary schools were underutilized; most schools lack the resources. As a result, proper

mechanisms for assuring the administration and utilisation of educational resources should be implemented. As noted earlier, this study employed the system resource theory of organisational effectiveness which focuses on how internal processes mediate the relationships between inputs and outputs. With this theoretical framework, it could be argued that the availability of educational resources alone is not enough; there must be an effective utilisation of those resources. In the researcher's opinion, effective utilisation of teachers, financial resources, and material resources is the basis for success in providing quality education in the community. Thus, teachers should be evenly distributed based on the needs, also financial and physical resources should be well utilized.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study indicates that, information and communication technology (ICT) facilities like computers, projectors, and duplicating machines were not available in most schools. In contrast, educational resources such as classrooms, latrines, student tables and chairs, office tables and chairs, chalkboards, capitation grants, and teachers were available in almost every school. However, it is noted here that, their availability did not mean they were adequate. The shortage of teachers, financial resources, and material resources in the selected secondary schools was clear. Thus, it is concluded here that resource utilisation in the selected schools was at a low level. It is recommended that the Tanzanian government (through the Ministry of Education Science and Technology – MOEST, in collaboration with the President's Office Regional Administration and Local Government – PO-RALG), should ensure that teachers are adequately available and that the balance of teachers is maintained. Also, students should have access to adequate physical resources while at school. The government should also make sure that the capitation grants provided is sufficient

and reasonably used. Schools should establish a good system for students to use laboratories and libraries.

References

- Achilles, C. M., Sharp, M., & Nye, B. A. (1998). *Attempting to understand the class size and pupil-teacher ratio (PTR) confusion: A pilot study*. ERIC. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED4 19290.pdf>
- Adeogun, A. A. (2001). The principal and the financial management of public secondary schools in Osun State. *Journal of Educational System and Development*, 5(1), 1–10.
- Barro, R. J. (1999). Human capital and growth in cross-country regressions. *Swedish Economic Policy Review*, 6(2), 237–277.
- Brandt, K., & Mkenda, B. (2020). The impact of eliminating secondary school fees: Evidence from Tanzania. *Development Economics Research Group Working Paper*, 06–2020.
- Bukoye, R. O. (2019). Utilisation of instruction materials as tools for effective academic performance of students: Implications for counselling. *Proceedings*, 2(21), 1395. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.3390/proceedings2211395>
- Chipana, B. R. (2018). *The influence of library resources utilisation on students' academic performance: A case study of public secondary schools in Dodoma Municipality*. [The Open University of Tanzania]. Retrieved from <http://repository.out.ac.tz/id/eprint/2222>
- Chirimi, D. O. (2016). *The impacts of teachers' workload allocation on teaching and learning effectiveness of science subjects in secondary schools: The case of Hanang district, Tanzania*. Mzumbe University.
- Economic Point. (n.d.). *Financial resources*. Retrieved from <https://economicpoint.com/financial-resources>
- Harindintwari, J., Veraeli, E. S., & Ogondiek, M. W. (2020). Availability of materials and school materials utilisation in implementing Competence Based Curriculum in selected nine years basic education of Nyamasheke District, Rwanda. *European Journal of Sciences Studies*, 5(5).

- Hoogeveen, J., & Rossi, M. (2013). Enrolment and grade attainment following the introduction of free primary education in Tanzania. *Journal of African Economies*, 22(3), 375–393.
- Ibukun, W. O., Akinfolarin, C. A., & Alimi, O. S. (2011). Correlate of resource utilisation and students' learning outcome in colleges of education in South West Nigeria. *International Education Studies*, 4(3), 178–184. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v4n3p178>
- Kapinga, O. (2017). Assessment of school facilities and resources in the context of fee free basic education in Tanzania. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 5(6), 93–102.
- Kassim, K. M. (2021). Challenges facing stakeholders in implementing fee free secondary education in Tanzania. *Ruaha Journal of Arts and Social Sciences*, 7(2), 202–210.
- Kaya, A. ihsan. (2016). Differences between literature and arts in the context of language. *Global Journal on Humanities & Social Sciences*, 3, Glob. J. Humanit. Soc. Sci. G
- King, N. A. S. (2013). Investigation of factors hindering quality education in secondary schools in Mbeya, Tanzania. *International Journal of Learning and Development*, 3(6), 52–63.
- Lawrent, G. (2020). School infrastructure as a predictor of teacher identity construction in Tanzania: The lesson from secondary education enactment policy. *African Studies*, 79(4), 409–427.
- Lyanga, A. A., & Chen, M. (2020). The impacts of fee-free education policy in junior secondary schools in Tanzania. *AJESS*, 13(3), 36–47.
- Malekani, A. A. (2018). Access to, use and challenges of ICTs in secondary schools in Tanzania: a study of selected secondary schools in Morogoro Municipality. *Information Impact: Journal of Information and Knowledge Management*, 9(2), 44–57.
- Masoud, A. H. (2012). *Availability and utilisation of teaching and learning resources and teachers' competence in selected government secondary*

- schools in Urban West, Zanzibar, Tanzania. Kampala International University.*
- Mayaka, C. (2019). *Effect of utilisation of physical resources on performance of students in The Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education in public secondary schools in Marani Sub-County, Kenya.* Africa Nazarene University.
- Mgaya, H. R. (2021). *Mobilisation of physical resources strategies and effective curriculum implementation in public secondary schools in Kilolo District Council, Tanzania.* COSTECH Integrated Repository. Retrieved from <http://repository.costech.or.tz/handle/123456789/777990>
- Mkalagale, V. (2013). *The poor performance of student in community Secondary schools in Tanzania: a case of Temeke District.* Mzumbe University.
- Mndeme, Y. E. (2020). *Assess the challenges influencing implementation of free secondary education program in Dar es Salaam: A case study of Kinondoni Municipality.* The Open University of Tanzania. Retrieved from <http://repository.out.ac.tz/2494/>
- Munisi, I. S., Werema, S., & Namusonge, G. S. (2021). Assessment of free secondary education policy on quality of secondary education in Tanzania: A case study of Meru District Council. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Information Technology*, VII(III).
- Naisiyaki, S. L., Jackson, K. T., & Kirui, J. K. (2017). Perception of teachers on the availability of instructional materials and physical facilities in secondary schools of Arusha District, Tanzania. *International Journal of Educational Policy Research and Review*, 4 (5), 103–112.
- Neill, G. (2001). *Designing coherent education policy: improving the system.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Nzima, I. (2016). *Competence-based Curriculum (CBC) in Tanzania: Tutors' Understanding and their instructional practices*. Linnaeus University.
- Obidile, J. I., & Obi, O. C. (2020). Assessment of adequacy, availability and extent of utilisation of instructional materials in the teaching of business studies in secondary schools in Anambra State. *African Research Review*, 14(1), 52–60.
- Olufunke, B. T. (2012). Effect of availability and utilisation of physics laboratory equipment on students' academic achievement in senior secondary school Physics. *World Journal of Education*, 2(5), 1–7.
- Pamela, B. E., & Mwila, M. (2022). Assessing the status of educational resources in rural public secondary schools in Misungwi District, Tanzania. *Journal of Research Innovation and Implications in Education*, 6(1), 496–505.
- Pareek, R. B. (2019). An assessment of availability and utilisation of laboratory facilities for teaching science at secondary level. *Science Education International*, 30(1).
- Psacharopoulos, G. (1994). Returns to investment in education: A global update. *World Development*, 22(9), 1325–1343.
- Rao, D. B. (2003). *World education forum*. Discovery Publishing House.
- Sakmurzaeva, N. (2018). The role of education in economic development: A comparison of South Korea and Kyrgyzstan. *International Conference on Eurasian Economies*, 29–33.
- Sephania, N., Too, J. K., & Kipng'etich, K. J. (2017). Perception of teachers on availability of instructional materials and physical facilities in secondary schools of Arusha District. *Tanzania. Journal of Teachers*, 4(28), 68–102.
- Sifuna, D. N. (2007). The challenge of increasing access and improving quality: An analysis of universal primary education interventions

- in Kenya and Tanzania since the 1970s. *International Review of Education*, 53(5), 687–699.
- Sifuna, D. N., & Sawamura, N. (2010). Challenges of quality education in Sub-Saharan Africa-some key issues. Hauppauge, NY: Nova Science Publishers.
- TIE. (2013). Maboresho na mabadiliko ya mtaala toka 1961 had 2010. [Curriculum Reviews and Changes from 1961 to 2010]. In *Tanzania Institute of Education*.
- UNESCO. (2000). *The Dakar framework for action: Education for All: Meeting our collective commitments*. UNESCO.
- URT. (2004). *Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP) 2004–2009*. Ministry of Education and Culture.
- URT. (2020). *Tanzania in figures*. Tanzania National Bureau of Statistics. Retrieved from <https://www.nbs.go.tz/index.php/en/tanzania-in-figures/641-tanzania-in-figures-202>
- Usman, Y. D. (2016). Educational resources: An integral component for effective school administration in Nigeria. *Online Submission*, 6(13), 27–37.
- Victorini, S., & Wambiya, P. (2016). Assessment of the adequacy of resources and facilities to enhance learner centred pedagogy in secondary schools in Kilimanjaro region, Tanzania. *European Journal of Education Studies*.
- Wanjiku, M. E. (2013). *Availability and utilisation of educational resources in influencing students' performance in secondary schools in Mbeere South, Embu County, Kenya*. Master's Degree Thesis, Kenyatta University.
- Windham, D. M. (1992). *Education for All: The requirements*. World conference on education for all (Jomtien, Thailand, March 5-9, 1990). Monograph III. Roundtable Themes III. Unesco Press, 7, place de Fontenoy, 75700 Paris, France.

World Bank Group (2021, June 10). *Education Above All Foundation and World Bank partner to enrol 30,000 Out-of-school children in Djibouti* [press release]. <https://www.worldbank.org/en/news/press-release/2021/06/10/education-above-all-foundation-and-world-bank-artner-to-enroll-35-000-out-of-school-children-in-djibouti>

World Bank, (2021) *Understanding poverty: Education overview*. The World bank. Retrieved from <https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/education/overview>

Yuchtman, E., & Seashore, S. E. (1967). A system resource approach to organisational effectiveness. *American Sociological Review*, 32(6), 891–903.

Assessment of Teachers' Perception on Community Participation in Financing the Development of Primary Schools in Kogi West Senatorial District, Nigeria

Onweazu Olufemi Okoji¹, Abiodun Olufemi Olawuni² Francisca
Ozoagu³

Okoji.oo@unilorin.edu.ng¹

University of Ilorin Nigeria

ABSTRACT

The study examined teachers' perception on community participation in financing the development of primary schools in Kogi West Senatorial District, Nigeria. Through simple random sampling technique, 400 teachers were selected. A self-structured questionnaire on the influence of community participation in school management on the development of primary schools in Kogi west senatorial district' (QICPSMDPS $r= 0.86$) was designed to generate information from the participants. The accuracy of the instrument was determined by measurement and evaluation experts. Pilot study was conducted in some selected primary schools in Kogi North Senatorial District. The data collected were analyzed with Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficient and value obtained was 0.86. The findings show that teachers' perception of school financing has no influence on primary school development based on school type and gender. It was recommended that parent association should always have periodic meeting with primary schools on matters affecting the schools and provide financial assistance towards the development of primary schools

Key words: *Community, educational development, involvement, participation and support*

INTRODUCTION

The Nigerian Government has contributed enormously to the development of education through the introduction of Universal Basic Education programme (UBE). The introduction of (UBE) Universal Basic Education programme has increased the enrolment of students at the primary school level because government abolished the payment of school fees (Ogbonnaya, 2012). This explains justification for the encouragement been given by the government to other stakeholders to get involved in the management of schools (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013). Community participation through the provision of funds and their involvement in the administration is expected to solve problems affecting the development of primary school education. Until the 20th century, communities participated actively in managing schools (Bakwai, Oduwiaye & Muhammed, 2016).

The history of community participation in education in Nigeria is as old as the history of man in the country, parents participate in the education of their children right from the infant stage of their children (Roodt, 2001). Prior to the introduction of both the Islamic and Western systems of education in the country, child training and child education depended heavily on the members of the immediate community (Kanau & Haruna, 2013). Okenwa and Igbo (2013) pointed out that school community relationship helps other stakeholders to get reliable information about issues affecting the development of primary school administration. This will help them to find solution to such problems. The other justification for such relationship is expected to have positive effect on the performance of students because there may be enough teaching equipment, good textbooks and building of classrooms (Abass, 2015). Despite these possible advantages associated with stakeholders' relationship in the management of

schools, some members of communities were alienated in the management of the schools. Such action serves as a clog in the progress of primary school development (Osadolor, 2016). The history of western education in Nigeria reveals that missionaries were the first to establish schools on their own initiatives in the early 19th century. This was dictated by the exigencies of their undertaking that the converts should be able to read scriptures. Olagboye (2004) pointed out that in the early 19th century, the missionaries introduced literacy education to their new converts in Badagry, Nigeria. This led to the establishment of schools in different regions in Nigeria. Thus, this afforded them the opportunity to indirectly rule Nigeria through their chiefs who participated in literacy education. The government at first encouraged the missionaries and later enacted education ordinance to control, regulate and partly finance education under the management of voluntary agencies (Okorie, Ememe & Egu, 2009).

Community participation in education did not end with the Christian missionaries' efforts as some other efforts were also directly coming from the local communities, for instance, assisted schools were according to Tshabalala (2006), partly financed from a special contribution from the local community cutting across religious barriers. Also, another evidence of community participation in education in Nigeria was witnessed between 1830 and 1950 when some Yoruba, Igbo and Ibibio communities as well as private individuals in the southern part of Nigeria offered scholarships to their indigenes to go for higher education in Britain and Ireland (Theron, 2005). Although, a comprehensive and precise data regarding the current level of community participation in education in Nigeria may not be easily established (Njunwa, 2010). This, for instance, is evident in the way many parents and communities support the educational pursuit of their wards though provision of learning

materials and payment of other levies to and for the latter respectively. Njunwa (2010) further stated that the relative rise and patronage as well as the establishment of private and community schools in the country confirms the existence of community participation in education in the country. It is however pertinent to note that the level of community participation in education in the country is still not adequate and thus the need for strategizing ways of enhancing it (Osadolor, 2016). Mosha (2006) pointed out that community members were acquainted with the events in the school because such primary schools were located in their vicinities and their children attend such schools. With this notion, community members are in the best position to identify the needs of such schools and they can levy themselves to procure such equipment or procure books and construct classrooms. This will bring positive change and development in such schools. Nakpodia (2013) advised that parents-teachers association (PTA) meetings should take place regularly.

The associations should also be involved in the planning of capital projects and they should play active role in the decision making in school. Ngesu, Gakuru, Okuro and Kahingi (2013) explained that in most public schools in Nigeria, the involvement of parents in the activities of the school have mostly been justified because the school authorities' can easily inform the parents directly about the behavior and academic performance of the pupils. This will contribute greatly in the general development of the schools in such communities. In all the schools in Kogi state, there are PTAs with different executive members who usually play vital role in the management of school in collaboration with the school authorities. The executive members of these association play a liaison role between the school authorities and the parents. The implementation of Universal Basic Education (UBE) scheme has led to an increase in the enrolment of primary school

pupils, alongside is the multiplicity of educational programmes. Thus, the administration of primary school education has been more capital intensive. Laah, Adefila and Yusuf (2013) explained that there is justification for community involvement in the provision and maintenance of facilities and the management of discipline among others. Akpan (2014) pointed out that the community members are expected to contribute to the management of school plant, fund raising and raising the moral tone of schools among other things. In the management of school plants, the community members are expected to contribute to the maintenance of school buildings, equipping libraries with books, provision of office equipment and stationeries, and provision of other range of school's facilities. Since the members of communities are concerned with the student's welfare and all round development, that is why parents are given roles to play in the provision and development of primary and secondary school (Njunwa, 2010).

In this era of 21st century which is characterized with economics recession and globalization, the management of the school cannot be left to the government, there is a need for collaboration between the government and other stakeholders in education. The problems associated with the management of schools necessitated this collaboration (Obi, 2013). According to Obi, such problems which necessitate such collaborations are the increase in cost of education, technological influence explosive students' enrolment, school-community conflicts and staff and students' indiscipline (Kambuga, 2013). It is expected that such collaboration will enhance the local communities to strengthen the school by providing resources and participating in different school activities. Mezgebwork (2018) asserted that most communities make financial contributions through the Parents Teachers Association levy and personal donations for the support of the schools in the communities. There are many problems

associated with the funding of primary education in Kogi West, Kogi State. There is the general outcry in the state that primary education has not produced the desired objectives as stipulated in the national policy on education due to lack of proper funding. On the basis of this, there is the need for participation of community in financing on the development of primary education so as for the state to achieve the goals and objectives of primary schools. Many researchers have carried out related researches on this topic in different parts of the world. However, there seem to be limited research on the same issue in Kwara State, Olsons (1971) theory of participation was employed in the study, he pointed out that people with identical culture who belong to the communities or groups usually work together to achieve the goals set for their development. Olson's theory of participation builds on the participatory and learning process approaches. The components integral to a people centered approach include popular participation in development, the need for sustainable development, the support and advocacy of the people's role in development by the bureaucracy, NGOs and voluntary organizations.

The study also adopted the theory of participatory approach propounded by Paulo Freire in 1970. For participatory theorists and practitioners, development required sensitivity to cultural diversity as well as other specific points that were ignored by modernization theorists. The lack of such sensitivity accounted for the problems and failures of many projects (Coetzee, 2001). The main essence of participatory development theory is an active involvement of people in making decisions about implementation of processes, programmes and projects, which affect them (Slocum, Wichhart, Rocheleau & Thomas-Slayter, 2015). Participatory development approaches view the term participation as the exercise of people's power in thinking, acting, and controlling their action in a collaborative framework. The participatory development approach stresses the participation of the

majority of the population especially the previously excluded groups such as community based organization, women, youth and the illiterate in the process of development programme (Roodt, 2001; Doods, 2013). This approach views development as a process which focuses on community's involvement in their own development using available resources and guiding the future development of their own community. Participatory development theorists, pointed out that the problems affecting the development of communities in African countries could be solved through communal efforts. In this context, Dennis (2007) argues that communal effort to solve problems should include transparency among the members of the groups, members should work towards the achievement of the set goals and there should be balance of power distribution and allocation of resources among the groups. This study had the following specific objectives of the study which include:

1. To examine how the development of primary school could be achieved through the provision of funds in Kogi west senatorial district.
2. To determine differences in teachers' view on how community involvement in school funding could lead to the development of primary schools in Kogi west senatorial district.
3. To examine differences in teachers' perception on how community involvement in school financing could lead to the development of primary school in Kogi West senatorial District.

Research Questions

RQ₁ To what extent will the involvement of the community in funding lead to the development of primary schools in Kogi west senatorial district?

Research Hypotheses

- H₀₁:** There is no significant difference in teachers' perception on how community involvement in school funding could lead to the development of primary schools in Kogi west senatorial district based on gender.
- H₀₂:** There is no significant difference in teachers' perceived influence of community participation in school financing on the development of primary school in Kogi West senatorial District based on school type
- H₀₃:** There is no significant difference in teachers' perceived influence of community participation in school financing on the development of primary school in Kogi West senatorial District based on experience in service.

Research Methods

The population of this study comprised of thirty- five private and public primary schools in Kogi west senatorial district. This study adopted the descriptive survey research design. The justification for using this design was based on the fact that it is a design that critically examine events opinions, objects, attitude, subjects or idea with the aim of providing accurate information about the phenomenon being studied. The choice of this research is designed to collect information on the Influence of Community participation in school financing on the development of primary schools in Kogi West senatorial District. Four hundred teachers were randomly selected from twenty primary schools in the locale of the study. A self-structured questionnaire titled questionnaire on the influence of community participation in school management on the development of primary schools in Kogi west senatorial district' (QICPSMDPS) was designed to generate information from the participants. The accuracy of the instrument was determined by the experts in measurement and evaluation. Pilot study

was done in some selected primary schools in Kogi North Senatorial District. Seventy questionnaire were administered to the respondents, the data collected were analyzed with Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficient and the value obtained was 0.86. The descriptive statistics of frequency counts, average mean and percentages was used to answer the research questions while Pearson moment correlation was used to test the hypothesis.

Findings

RQ1: What is the perceived influence of community participation in the provision of funds for primary school development in Kogi West senatorial district?

Table 1: *Perceived influence of Community Participation in the provision of funds for Primary School Development in Kogi West Senatorial District*

N	Community participation in provision of fund	Mean	S.D.
1	Non-Government Organization provides financial assistance in the employment of quality teachers in my school.	3.28	1.53
2	The Parent Association meets to discuss issues affecting the school and provide financial assistance in building of staff rooms in my school.	3.11	1.63
3	The private donors do not participate in the provision of funds for the development of educational infrastructures in primary schools.	2.86	1.49
4	Construction of structures such as classrooms, toilet, chairs and tables was done by the parents teachers association	2.79	2.09

Research Hypotheses

H₀₁: There is no significant difference in teachers’ perception on how community involvement in school funding could lead to the development of primary schools in Kogi West Senatorial District based on gender.

Table 2: *t-test Statistics Showing the Teachers’ Perceived Influence of Community Participation in School Financing on the development of Primary School in Kogi West Senatorial District based on gender*

Gender	No	Mean	S.D.	Df	t- value	Sig	Remarks
Male	266	16.821	3.409	398	1.714	0.122	NS
Female	134	17.975	3.454				

*Insignificance at $p > 0.05$

Table 2 shows that the t-value 1.714 is obtained with a p-value of 0.122 computed at 0.05 alpha level. Since the p-value of 0.122 is greater than 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis is retained. The study found that, based on gender, there is no statistical significant difference in teachers’ perceived influence of community participation in school financing on the development of primary school in Kogi West senatorial District ($t_{(398)} = 1.714$).

H₀₂: There is no significant difference in teachers’ perceived influence of community participation in school financing on the development of primary school in Kogi West senatorial District based on school type

Table 3: *t*-test Statistics Showing the Difference in teachers' perceived influence of community participation in school financing on the development of primary school in Kogi West senatorial District based on school type

School type	No	Mean	S.D.	Df	t- value	Sig	Remark
Public	248	17.551	2.722	398	1.278	0.201	NS
Private	152	17.428	3.001				

*Insignificance at $p > 0.05$

Table 3 shows that the t-value 1.278 is obtained with a p-value of 0.201 computed at 0.05 alpha level. Since the p-value of 0.201 is greater than 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis two is retained. Therefore, based on school type, there is no statistical significant difference in teachers' perceived influence of community participation in school financing on the development of primary school in Kogi West senatorial District ($t_{(398)} = 1.278, p > 0.05$).

Ho: There is no significant difference in teachers' perceived influence of community participation in school financing on the development of primary school in Kogi West senatorial District based experience in service.

Table 4: ANOVA Summary of the teachers' perceived influence of community participation in school financing on the development of primary school in Kogi West senatorial District based on years of teaching experience.

Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Remark
Between Groups	472.645	2	236.323			
Within Groups	49856.465	397	125.583	1.882	0.22	NS
Total	49329.110	399				

*Insignificance at $p > 0.05$

As shown in table 4, the F-value of 1.882 with a p-value of 0.22 computed at 0.05 alpha level. Since the p-value of 0.22 obtained is greater than 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis three is retained. This indicates that there is no statistical significant difference in teachers' perceived influence of community participation in school financing on the development of primary school in Kogi West senatorial District based on years of teaching experience ($F_{(2, 397)} = 1.882, p > 0.05$).

Discussion of the Findings

Findings of this study revealed that the teachers perceived that Non-governmental Organization provided financial assistance in the employment of quality teachers, Parent Associations meet to discuss issues affecting the school and provided financial assistance in building of staff rooms. This finding corroborates Abass (2015) whose study submitted that community participation in educational development in Nigeria was being hindered by a number of factors such as high poverty and embezzlement of funds by the school management. The implication of this finding is that with there will be an improvement in the development of primary school in the state. It was revealed in the study that there was no statistical significant difference in teachers' perceived influence of community participation in school financing on the development of primary school in Kogi West senatorial District based on gender. This outcome substantiates Abrisham (2014) whose study revealed that both male and female parents contributed significantly via parent-teacher association to the planning and development of schools in Iran. In the same vein, Alwar (2005) submitted in his findings that no discrepancy existed between male and female participants' perceptions in the community participation towards educational development. Also, finding of this study showed that there was no statistical significant difference in

teachers' perceived influence of community participation in school financing on the development of primary school in Kogi West senatorial District based on school type. In the same vein, there is no statistically significant in teachers' perceived influence of community participation in school financing on the development of primary school in Kogi West senatorial District based on years of teaching experience. This finding negates Dodo (2007) who found that there were more participations to the development of public schools from the community members in Kaduna State, Nigeria. It was revealed in the study that private donors do not participate in the provision of funds for the development of educational infrastructures in the primary school. The findings negate the view of Theron (2005) who pointed out in his study that the participations of the private donors in the building of classrooms and provision of books to the pupils in public primary schools in South Africa have enhanced the development of primary education.

The implication of this finding is that the motivation of private donors by the state government and other policy makers in education will have major impact in the development of primary education in Kogi State. The findings revealed that communities fund the construction of structures such as classrooms, toilet, chairs and tables. With these contributions of the community members, the maintenance and sustainability of the major infrastructures in the schools are enhanced, this correlates with the findings of Osadolor (2016) who reported that the contributions of community members in the employment of teachers and also procurement of textbooks for secondary school students in Anambra state, Nigeria have improved the standard of secondary. The findings revealed further that the parent Teachers association participate in the provision of security personnel in my school. This indicates that the level of security of lives and properties

would be ensured. This tallies with the view of Okorie, Ememe and Egu (2009) that the involvement of the community members in the security management of the schools will help to secure lives and properties. The implication of this finding is that the issue of stealing of schools' properties will be properly curtailed.

Conclusion

It could be concluded in the study that the participation of the community members in collaboration with the Parents Teachers Association in funding of primary school education have contributed immensely to the development of primary school education. The community members have helped to procure textbooks, stationaries and they also paid the salaries of the PTA teachers. The study found that, based on gender, there is no statistical significant difference in teachers' perceived influence of community participation in school financing on the development of primary school. Thus, the teachers pointed out that the development experienced in the school most especially the protection of lives and properties in the school was enhanced through the security personnel recruited by the Parents Teachers Association in conjunction with the members of the community. The teachers in private and public primary schools also pointed out that the community members have contributed immensely in the funding of the schools and this has led to the educational development of primary school pupils based on school types.

Recommendations

The following are the recommendations for this study.

1. Community members in conjunction with Parents Teachers Association should continue financing the employment of quality teachers, procurement of books for primary school pupils

2. Parent association in collaboration with community members should always have meeting with the managements of primary schools on matters affecting the schools and they should provide financial assistance towards the development of primary schools.
3. Community members should also intensify more efforts in the funding of private and public primary schools through the construction of classrooms, toilet, chairs, tables and other educational facilities.

References

- Abass, I.M. (2015). Community participation in education: challenges and prospects in Nigeria's democracy. *European Scientific Journal*, 8(5), 23- 33.
- Abrisham A. (2014). *Community Participation for Educational Planning and Development*, Department of Social Science, Tehran Education, Ministry of Education, Iran, 2010. Available from <http://www.sciencepub.net/nature/ns0809/01_2335_ns0809_1_4.pdf> accesses 10 June, 2021.
- Akpan, C. P. (2014). Perception of principals on parents' involvement in school-based management in Cross River State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Education & Research*, 2(5), 529-540.
- Alwar, E. (2005). *A situational analysis on community participation and proposal for cost effective community mobilization*. Ministry of Education, Science and Technology.
- Bakwai, B, Oduwaiye, R. O. & Muhammad, U. (2016) Community Participation and the Financing of Infrastructural Development of Basic Schools in North-west Zone. *Nigerian Journal of Educational Administration and Planning* 16 (1), 1 – 14.
- Dennis, M. (2007) Ineffability in the Lao Tzu: the taming of a dragon. *Journal of Chinese Philosophy*, 4, 357- 369.
- Coetzee, J. 2001. *Modernization theory, development theory, policy and practice*. South Africa. Oxford University Press.
- Dodds, M E. (2013) The need for appropriate inquiry concerning human development: Development: the human challenge, Development Society of Southern Africa
- Dodo, D.N. (2007) Funding and Management of Primary Education in Kaduna state. *European scientific journal* 6(2), 75 -89.
- Federal Republic of Nigeria. (2013). National policy of education. Lagos: NERDC Press.

- Kanau, A. A & Haruna, M.J (2013) Towards Promoting Community Participation in Education in Nigeria. *Academic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies* 2(7), 131 – 136. [file:///C:/Users/ USER /Downloads/1682-6627-1-PB.pdf](file:///C:/Users/USER/Downloads/1682-6627-1-PB.pdf)
- Kambuga, Y. (2013). The role of community participation in the ongoing construction of ward based secondary schools: lessons of Tanzania. *International Journal of Education and Research*. 1 (7), 34 – 50.
- Mezgebwork, B (2018) The Participation of PTA in Promoting School Community Relationship: the case of some secondary schools in North Shewa zone of Amhara regional state, Ethiopia. A Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Educational Leadership and Management. College of Education and Behaviors Studies, Department of Educational Planning and Management, Addis Ababa University
- Mosha, H. J. C. (2006). A reassessment of the indicators of primary education quality in developing countries: Emerging Evidence from Tanzania. *International Review of Education*, 34(2), 18-21.
- Nakpodia, E.D (2013) School Community Relations as Panacea for Community Involvement in Secondary Schools Development in Nigeria. *Journal of Research in Education and Society*, 4(1), 44 – 52.
- Ngesu, L., Gakuru, A., Okuro, S., and Kahingi, C. (2013). Factors Hindering Community Participation in the Development of ECDE Centres. *International Journal of Education and Research*. 1, 7 – 18.
- Njunwa, K. M. (2010). *Community participation as a tool for development: Local community's participation in primary education development in Morogoro, Tanzania -A case of Kilakala and Mindu Primary Schools*. Unpublished master thesis, University of Agder, Tanzania.

- Obi, E. (2013). Educational management: Theory and practice. Enugu: Jamoe Ent Nigeria.
- Ogbonnaya, N. O (2012), *Foundations of educational finance*. (2nd Ed) Nsukka: Hallman Publishers.
- Okenwa, G. N & Igbo, R.O (2013) Extent of Community Participation in the Provision of School Plant in the Administration of Public Secondary Schools in Enugu State. *Journal of Educational and Social Research* 3(4), 53 - 58
- Okorie, N. C.; Ememe, O. N. & Egu, R. H. N. (2009) School-community relations in the development of secondary schools: A focus on Aba Educational Zone. *African Journal of Education and Development Studies*, 6 (1), 22-38
- Olson, M. (1982). Rise and Decline of Nations. Economic Growth, Stag^oation, and Social Rigidities, New Haven and London: Yale University Press.
- Olson, M. (1982). Rise and Decline of Nations. Economic Growth, Stag^oation, and Social Rigidities, New Haven and London: Yale University Press.
- Olson, M. (1982). Rise and Decline of Nations. Economic Growth, Stage nation, and Social Rigidities, New Haven and London: Yale University Press.
- Olson, M. (1982). Rise and Decline of Nations. Economic Growth, Stage nation, and Social Rigidities, New Haven and London: Yale University Press.
- Olson, M (1971) The Rise and Decline of Nations: Economic Growth, Stagflation, and Social Rigidities. Yale University press.
- Osadolor, O (2016) The community participation in the management of secondary schools. *European Journal of Educational Studies* 2(1), 111 – 118.
- Roodt, M. (2001) Participation, civil society, and development. (Eds) Coetee, J, Graaff, J, Hendricks, F, & Wood, G, 2001. Development

theory, policy and practice. South Africa. Oxford University Press.

- Slocum, Wichhart, Rocheleau & Thomas-Slayter, (2015) Power, processes and participation: Tools for change. London. Intermediate Technology Publications
- Theron, F. (2005), Public participation as a micro-level development strategy. In Davids, F. Theron and K. J. Maphunye (Eds.). *Participatory development in South Africa: A development management perspective*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Tshabalala, E. L. (2006). *The role of community participation in the integrated development plan of Govan Mbeki Municipality*. Department of social work and criminology: University of Pretoria. Available (Online) <http://www.up.ac.za/dspace/bitstream/2263/12247/1/.pdf>

An Assessment of the Internal Quality Assurance Mechanisms at the Open University of Tanzania

Mukirae Njihia¹ Neema Chilumika²

Email: neema.chilumika@out.ac.tz²

Kenyatta University;¹ The Open University of Tanzania²

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess the status of Quality Assurance systems at the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) as well as give recommendations for improvement. The study employed the exploratory sequential mixed methods design that had three phases. The study sample comprised of one senior staff from the Quality Assurance directorate and 12 Heads of departments. Data was collected through an interview and a questionnaire. Qualitative data was analysed thematically while quantitative data was analysed descriptively using frequencies and mean. The study established that OUT had put in place an elaborate Quality Assurance (QA) framework with a directorate of QA headed by a director under the office of the Vice Chancellor. The university also had an IQA policy document as well as a QA handbook. The QA directorate had embraced the use of ICT as it employed online tools for monitoring various activities in the institution. The university also carried out a Self-Assessment every five years. However, the IQA at the university was faced by the following challenges: inadequate funding, understaffing of the IQA directorate, negative attitude by university staff towards QA staff, lack of involvement of HoDs in planning QA activities amongst others. The study recommends the following: the university should adequately staff and fund the QA directorate; the QA directorate should develop its activities in a participatory manner; and the QA directorate should increase sensitization of the university community on QA policies and issues.

Key words: Internal Quality Assurance, University, Directorate, Policy, Heads of Department

INTRODUCTION

This study sought to assess the Internal Quality Assurance (IQA) system at the Open University of Tanzania (OUT) which is a fully fledged, autonomous and accredited public University in Tanzania, established by an Act of Parliament Number 17 of 1992. The university operations are governed by the Universities Act No. 7 of 2005 and the OUT Charter and Rules (2007). OUT offers certificate, diploma, degree and postgraduate courses through the blended learning mode which combines open and distance learning with face to face sessions. These programmes are offered in OUT's five faculties and two institutes which are: Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, Faculty of Business Management, Faculty of Education, Faculty of Law, Faculty of Science, Technology and Environmental Studies, Institute of Educational and Management Technologies, and Institute of Continuing Education (OUT, 2019). OUT has its headquarters in Dar es Salaam, the biggest city in Tanzania and the country's commercial centre. However, being an Open University, OUT operates through a network of about 30 Regional Centres, 10 Coordinating Centres and 69 Study Centres spread throughout the country including the Islands of Zanzibar and Pemba. OUT has registered students from other countries in Africa such as Kenya, Rwanda, Uganda and Namibia. The university is headed by a Vice-Chancellor who has three deputies (Resource Management; Academic; and, Learning Technologies and Regional Services). The Vision of OUT is *'to be a leading open online University, in knowledge creation and application'* while its mission is *'to provide relevant, quality, flexible, accessible, and affordable open online education, research, and services to the community for the social economic development of Tanzania and the rest of the world.'* By June 2018 OUT had a total of 304 academic and 302 non-academic staff. Between 1999 and 2018, OUT had cumulatively enrolled 134,042 students and out of which 35,777 (26.7%) had graduated over the same period. Of the 35,777

graduates, 15,971 (44.6%) were awarded bachelors, degrees, 14,608 (40.8%) received certificates and diplomas while 5,198 (14.2%) got post-graduate qualifications (OUT, 2019). This statistic (26.7%) on the graduates over a ten year period indicate a low graduation rate which could be an indication of internal efficiency challenges at OUT. Internal inefficiency could be represented by low graduation/completion rates, long average duration of study per graduate, high repeater rates and high drop-out rates. This study was carried out as part of the requirements of the Staff Mobility Programme of the Inter University Council of East Africa (IUCEA). The lead researcher was a beneficiary of the programme as a visiting scholar at OUT for a period of three months in 2018. The purpose of the study was to assess the status of Quality Assurance mechanisms at OUT as well as give recommendations for improvement. To achieve this goal, the study was guided by the following questions: What quality assurance policies had been put in place at OUT? What was the level of awareness of the quality assurance policies by members of university? What quality assurance strategies had been executed at OUT? What challenges impacted on quality assurance at OUT?

Literature Review

Despite Higher education institutions' concern about the quality of their teaching and learning, research and community service, there lacks a common definition of quality education and quality assurance practices (Reda, 2017; Loukkola & Zhang, 2010). Reda citing Adamu and Addamu (2012, p. 838); Neubauer and Gomes (2017); and Vukasovic (2012) notes that Quality has different meanings for different people, and the approaches to quality assurance practices have considerable variations across different contexts and upon individual perspectives. According to Harvey and Green (1993), quality assurance can be looked at from five approaches: quality as

exceptional (Exceeding high standards); quality as perfection (Achieving goal with a zero defect); quality as fitness for purpose (Meeting the stated purpose); quality as value for money (Maintaining efficiency and effectiveness) and quality as transformation (Maintaining qualitative changes). Quality Assurance systems are one of the main tools that have been introduced to ensure quality in higher education institutions. It is argued that quality assurance processes are important to higher education institutions as they offer ways for verifying objective evidence of processes, assessing success of implementation of processes, judging if defined targets have been effectively achieved and adducing evidence for problem solving (Mgaiwa,2018; Allais, 2009).

Other benefits of quality audits are transparency, learning and enhanced status of work (Brennan & Shah, 2000; Stensaker, 2008; Haapakorpi, 2011) as well as meeting students' expectations (Vukasovic, 2012). UNESCO (2018) citing Brennan and Shah (2000), point out that IQA can have an academic, managerial, pedagogical, or employment focus. Vukasovic (2012) noted that Higher Education Institutions'(HIE) quality assurance played a role in attracting not only students but also employees adding that the sector was experiencing staff mobility due to its employees searching for an institution which had tried to maintain its quality. Although there are different quality assurance models in higher education, much of the literature seems to be in favour of the systems model which has the input, processes and output dimensions (Ayalew *et al.*, 2009; Biggs, 1993). The systems model postulates that higher education institutions interact with the environment by receiving input from that environment, transforming the inputs and eventually delivering outputs to the environment. An international survey conducted by IIEP/UNESCO established that IQA in higher education served both

externally and internally driven purposes (UNESCO, 2018). The former included compliance and accountability to the requests of national authorities or external stakeholders while the latter comprised performance assessment, institutional learning, and management improvement aimed at improving internal processes and strengthening institutional self-regulation. The study also established that IQA was driven by both improvement and compliance. Improvement was mainly focused on academic activities and institutional performance assessment while compliance was addressing external standards, accountability to government and society, institutional learning, improvement of management, and equitable resource allocation.

The external drivers seem to be a major force in IQA in higher education in many countries. Ryan (2015) suggested the need to have Internal Quality Assessment framework across the countries. In Europe, for example, the Bologna process which strives to increase comparability of degrees and learning outcomes across European university systems to enable increased student and staff mobility across European higher education institutions has hastened the introduction and elaboration of quality assurance in higher education institutions (Teichler, 2012). The Bologna process has led to the establishment of formalized external QA mechanisms and internal QA mechanisms (Bollaert, 2014). Massification and internationalization of tertiary education as well as the increased focus on employability have also been cited as drivers of quality assurance in higher education (Bollaert, 2014; UNESCO, 2018). Another reason behind the increasing emphasis in QA is the changing landscape of Higher education. According to Markus and Philipp (2018) universities are attracting the 'non-traditional students' and 'mature students'. The former enter university education with a vocational education background and

professional experience rather than merely with a secondary school education certificate while the latter comprises students returning to higher education after a professional career ('life-long learning'). The African Union articulates the need for quality and quality assurance in higher education and training for Africa's investment in the education of its youth to yield demographic dividends (African Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in Higher Education, 2018). However, despite the importance of QA in higher education, its implementation has not been devoid of challenges. Markus and Philipp (2018) note that many academic staff and other stakeholders have viewed the rapidity and impact of the QA change processes as more of a burden than an opportunity. This explains the resistance witnessed when QA is first being introduced in many institutions (Anderson 2006, 2008). The other challenge facing QA is structural. Ehlers (2009) & Harvey (2016) as cited in UNESCO (2018) note that Universities worldwide were struggling with certain challenges related to IQA which included:

Developing cost-effective IQA, in which tools and processes are well articulated between each other and function together as a system; integrating IQA with planning, management, and resource allocation; striking the right balance between management, consumer, and academic interests; finding or setting up appropriate mechanisms to make best use of evidence to enhance programme quality and student employability; finding the right balance of centralized and decentralized structures; and, last but not least, designing IQA that supports the development of continuous quality-enhancement processes in a university.

Other challenges facing QA in Higher Education institutions in developing countries include securing adequate financial and competent human resources, fragile information systems and scarcity of data (UNESCO, 2018). Lack of balance of foci of QA has also been cited as a challenge to successful implementation. A study carried out in Ghana found out that IQA frameworks gave most attention to programme areas such as teaching and learning while giving least attention to facilities despite the fact limited facilities pose a major challenge to the quality of higher education outcomes of the universities (Francis *et al.*, 2017). This concurs with the findings from UNESCO (2018) that noted that most QA frameworks neglect to monitor some areas like student assessment systems, the physical environment, and the employability of graduates. A study by Muhammad *et al.* (2017) on problems and issues in relation to QA in higher education revealed that students, teachers and Heads of Quality Enhancement Cells (QECs) face diversified problems and issues such as lack of resources, lack of professional development, lack of awareness related to latest researches, lack of assessment & evaluation system, incompetent administrative staff, lack of guidance and counselling centres, lack of linkage between industry and universities, less number of permanent faculty and lack of feedback system.

Methodology

The study employed the three phase exploratory sequential mixed methods design. The first phase entailed the collection and analysis of qualitative data. This was followed by the development of a questionnaire for heads of departments. The questionnaire was administered to sampled heads of departments in the third phase after which the data was analysed and compared with the qualitative data. The target population comprised of 29 persons who included 2 senior staff at the Directorate of Quality Assurance and 27 heads of academic departments. Purposive sampling was used to pick one senior staff from the Quality Assurance directorate for the Key Informant Interview. Simple random sampling was used to select the 12 Heads

of departments who responded to a questionnaire. The study adopted the assessment tool in the Quality assurance Handbook by the Inter University Council for East Africa (IUCEA) in the development of the data collection instruments. Qualitative data was analysed thematically while quantitative data was analysed descriptively using frequencies and mean.

Results and Discussion

IQA policies and Awareness

The study first sought to find out what IQA structures and policies had been put in place at OUT and the level of awareness of the same by members of university community. The study established that the university has an elaborate QA framework. The university has a directorate of Quality Assurance under the office of the Vice Chancellor. The office is headed by a director who is a senior member of academic staff. The office also has a deputy director who is also an academic member of staff. The directorate reports directly to the Vice Chancellor. The directorate has three divisions namely: Department of Monitoring and Evaluation; Department of Statistics and Records; and, Department of Risk Management and Certification. The university also has an Internal Quality Assurance (IQA) policy document which is available in both hard copy and electronic form. It was reported that the policy was developed in a consultative manner that ensured engagement of different stakeholders. In developing the policy, the university charter, Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) guidelines and IUCEA guidelines were used as the guiding frameworks. The policy spells out the roles of the different stakeholders as well as ensures their participation in various activities, for example curriculum review. It was pointed out that there were plans to review the policy to reflect the changes that had taken place in the university especially the shift to the online mode of teaching and learning. To triangulate the data discussed above that was obtained from the Key Informant interview, Heads of Departments responded

to items in the questionnaire focusing on various aspects of the IQA policy. They gave their responses on Likert scale of Four showing their agreement or disagreement with the statements given on various aspects of the IQA policy. Their responses are given in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: HOD’s Assessment of Various Aspects of the IQA Policy

S. No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
1	I am familiar with the university’s policy on Internal Quality Assurance	16.7% (2)	66.7% (8)	8.3% (1)	8.3% (1)	2.92
2	The university’s policy on internal quality Assurance been cascaded to the department level	8.3% (1)	66.7% (8)	16.7% (2)	8.3% (1)	2.75
3	All staff members in my department are familiar with the university’s policy on internal quality Assurance	0% (0)	50.0% (6)	33.3% (4)	16.7% (2)	2.33
4	The university has a Quality Assurance Handbook	16.7% (2)	33.3% (4)	50.0% (6)	0% (0)	2.67
5	The university Quality Assurance Handbook is known to all staff	0% (0)	16.7% (2)	66.7% (8)	16.7% (2)	2.00
6	The university has a clear formal strategy on Internal Quality Assurance	25.0% (3)	41.7% (5)	33.3% (4)	0% (0)	2.92
7	The roles of all stakeholders are clearly described in the Internal	0% (0)	75.0% (9)	25.0% (3)	0% (0)	2.75

S. No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
	Quality Assurance policy					
8	The University's Quality Assurance Directorate links well with the department on quality issues	8.3% (1)	75.1% (9)	8.3% (1)	8.3% (1)	2.83

From Table 1.1, it is clear that a majority of the HODs were familiar with the IQA policy (84.4%; Mean 2.92). This concurs with the qualitative data which indicated that the IQA policy was available in both hard and soft copies. The development of the IQA policy documents by the university was conducted to meet its internal quality objectives as well as in conformity with the requirements of the external regulators like TCU and IUCEA which is in agreement with UNESCO's study that QA serves both internal and external drivers(UNESCO, 2018). A majority of the HODs (75%; Mean 2.75) were also in agreement that the university's IQA policy had been cascaded to the department level. However, this did not translate to an increase in familiarity of the IQA policy by staff members. Indeed, 50% of the HODs disagreed with the statement that '*All staff members in my department are familiar with the university's policy on internal quality Assurance*'. This implies that there is a difference between cascading the IQA policy to the department level and members familiarity with the content of the policy. Opinion of the HODs on the availability of a Quality Assurance Handbook to all staff was also equally divided with 50% agreeing and a similar percentage disagreeing. This is quite telling especially coming from HODs who are expected to be the implementers of policies at the departmental level. Other statements

by the HODs that supported the qualitative data were: The university has a clear formal strategy on Internal Quality Assurance (66.7%; Mean 2.92), The roles of all stakeholders are clearly described in the Internal Quality Assurance policy (75%; Mean 2.75), and the University's Quality Assurance Directorate links well with the department on quality issues (84.4%; Mean 2.83). Though the ratings by HODs on various aspects of the IQA policy are high, there is still room for improvement as ideally, agreement from the HODs should be 100% as they are key players in implementation of policy.

IQA Strategies

The study also sought to identify the IQA assurance strategies executed at OUT. The study established that the university executed several IQA strategies as discussed below.

Monitoring

The qualitative data revealed that the IQA policy gave a framework for monitoring various activities in the university. One key activity that is monitored is students' academic progress. The study established that this is conducted once a year through a survey that normally covers 50% of the Regional Centers. The survey uses a questionnaire that is administered to students to monitor the teaching and learning process. The study also established that every year, other surveys are conducted covering the following academic areas: Graduation, Examinations, Teaching Practice and Field Practicals. Data from these surveys are analyzed and reports written. The reports are then submitted to the University Quality Assurance Committee that is chaired by the Vice Chancellor for discussion. The outcome of the University Quality Assurance Committee meetings is in the form of directives that constitute Corrective Action on the thorny issues identified from the monitoring. Feedback to students takes place in

two main ways: One, through implementation of the Corrective Action which means that the problem is addressed and the students can see the action taken. Two, communication is normally given to students on steps taken to address the academic bottlenecks during the face-to-face sessions. The study also revealed that the directorate also collects data from graduates and employers every five years. For the graduates, a tracer study is employed while for employers and other stakeholders, a customer satisfaction survey is conducted. The last survey was conducted in 2014. Furthermore, feedback from stakeholders is also captured during the development and review of the University Quality Assurance policy. In the Regional Centres, members of the local community including the local administration are usually part of the Management Board and they give feedback on quality related issues. To triangulate the data discussed above that was obtained from the Key Informant interview, Heads of Departments responded to items in the questionnaire focusing on various aspects of monitoring in the IQA policy. They gave their responses on Likert scale of Four showing their agreement or disagreement with the statements given on monitoring of various aspects of the IQA policy. Their responses are given in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: HOD’s Assessment of Various Monitoring Aspects of the IQA Policy

S. No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
1	Student academic progress is systematically recorded and monitored	25.0% (3)	66.7% (8)	8.3% (1)	0% (0)	3.17
2	Feedback to students on academic queries is given promptly	8.3% (1)	75.1% (9)	8.3% (1)	8.3% (1)	2.83

S. No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
3	Corrective actions on students' queries are made where necessary	16.7% (2)	66.7% (8)	8.3% (1)	8.3% (1)	2.92
4	The department has a structured monitoring system to collect information about the success rates and the drop out among the students	8.3% (1)	33.3% (4)	41.7% (5)	16.7% (2)	2.33
5	The department has a monitoring system that captures structural feedback from the labour market on its academic programmes	8.3% (1)	33.3% (4)	41.7% (5)	16.7% (2)	2.33
6	The department has a monitoring system that captures structural feedback from alumni	8.3% (1)	33.3% (4)	41.7% (5)	16.7% (2)	2.33
7	The department monitors the research output of its staff (number of publications)	8.3% (1)	58.3% (7)	33.3% (4)	0% (0)	2.75
8	The department monitors the number of research grants won by its staff	16.7% (2)	33.3% (4)	41.7% (5)	8.3% (1)	2.58

Table 1.2 shows that there was agreement as well as disagreement between the qualitative and quantitative data on some aspects of monitoring of the IQA policy. According to the HODs, the university was doing well with regard to monitoring students' academic progress. The following statements got strong support from the

HODs: Student academic progress is systematically recorded and monitored (92.7%; Mean 3.17); Feedback to students on academic queries is given promptly (85.4%; Mean 2.83); and, Corrective actions on students' queries are made where necessary (85.4%; Mean 2.94). These views support the qualitative data that pointed out that the university undertakes surveys to monitor the teaching and learning process as well as other academic areas such as Graduation, Examinations, Teaching Practice and Field Practicals. As pointed out earlier, the results of these monitoring surveys are discussed by the University Quality Assurance Committee and Corrective Action taken in form of directives and policies. The strong agreement by the HODs on the above monitoring activities could be construed to mean that the Corrective Actions taken after the IQA monitoring surveys had a positive impact on service delivery at the department level.

On the other hand, there were some monitoring activities that received negative ratings from the HODs. For example, a majority of the HoDs (58.4%; Mean 2.33) disagreed with the statement that *'The department has a structured monitoring system to collect information about the success rates and the drop out among the students'*. This is serious indictment as the absence of such data means that the university cannot effectively gauge its degree on internal efficiency. Similarly, a majority of the HoDs (58.4%; Mean 2.33) also disagreed with the statement that *'The department has a monitoring system that captures structural feedback from the labour market on its academic programmes'*. This finding is also disturbing as it means the university may not gauge degree of external efficiency (how graduates fit in the labour market). Finally, a majority of the HoDs (58.4%; Mean 2.33) also disagreed with the statement that *'The department has a monitoring system that captures structural feedback from alumni'*. This means that the university may be missing critical information from its Alumni which could be useful in review of academic programmes or creation of external networks. These last two

findings contradict the qualitative data as cited earlier which indicated that the university collects data via a survey from its graduates and employers through a survey every five years. This could mean that the departments are not involved by the directorate in designing and executing the surveys. The above could be described as structural weaknesses in the QA process at OUT which concurs with observations made by Ehler (2009) and Harvey (2016) about structural weaknesses in QA systems in Higher education institutions.

Periodic Review of the Core activities

Qualitative data revealed that periodic review of all the university programmes is conducted every five years in conformity with the University Charter and TCU guidelines for re-accreditation. This is conducted in the form of a Self-Assessment the last one having been conducted in 2016 and which the respondent gave an overall rating of 4 out of 5. The last self-assessment was done in 2016. This process is meant to improve quality, enhance the university's accreditation prospects and give the university a competitive advantage in the market. This concurs with UNESCO's (2018) observation that QA is driven by both internal and external drivers and serves the dual purposes of improvement and compliance. However, it was pointed out that the Quality Assurance Directorate is usually unable to implement all Corrective Actions necessary to meet the various targets due to financial constraints facing the university. This constraint caused by inadequate financial resources resonates with the findings of Muhammed *et al.* (2017) and UNESCO (2018). To triangulate the data discussed above that was obtained from the Key Informant interview, Heads of Departments responded to items in the questionnaire focusing on various aspects of review of activities in line with the IQA policy. They gave their responses on Likert scale of Four showing their agreement or disagreement with the statements given on review of core activities. Their responses are given in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3: HoDs' Rating of Review of Core Activities

S. No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
1	The department makes use of students' lecturer evaluation on a regular basis	16.7% (2)	66.7% (8)	8.3% (1)	8.3% (1)	2.92
2	The department makes use of students' course evaluation on a regular basis	16.7% (2)	75.0% (9)	0% (0)	8.3% (1)	3.00
3	The department uses the outcomes of the student evaluation for quality improvement	8.3% (1)	75.1% (9)	8.3% (1)	8.3% (1)	2.83
4	The department provides the students with feedback on what is done with the outcomes of the evaluation	0% (0)	58.3% (7)	33.3% (4)	8.3% (1)	2.50
5	The department has formal mechanisms for the periodic review of the courses and the curriculum	8.3% (1)	91.7% (11)	0% (0)	0% (0)	3.08
6	The department has formal mechanisms for regular review of research outcomes from its staff members.	0% (0)	58.3% (7)	33.3% (4)	8.3% (1)	2.50
7	The department engages in community outreach	8.3% (1)	58.3% (7)	33.3% (4)	0% (0)	2.75
8	The department does periodic review of its contribution to society and the community	8.3% (1)	41.7% (5)	50.0% (6)	0% (0)	2.58

Table 1.3 shows positive rating of review of most of the core activities by the HoDs. Some of the activities with good ratings are: *'The department makes use of students' lecturer evaluation on a regular basis (83.4%; Mean 2.92)'; 'The department makes use of students' course evaluation on a regular basis (91.7%; Mean 3.0)'; 'The department uses the outcomes of the student evaluation for quality improvement (83.4%; Mean 2.83)'*. However, 41.6% (Mean 2.50) of the HoDs disagreed with the statement that, *'The department provides the students with feedback on what is done with the outcomes of the evaluation.'* This lack of feedback to students on how the outcome of the evaluation is used could lead to lethargy on their part and thereby compromise future evaluations. Similarly, 41.6% of the HoDs disagreed with the statement that *'The department has formal mechanisms for regular review of research outcomes from its staff members.'* This could be a pointer that review of research outcomes is still a grey area in the university. Review of contribution of the department to the society and the community did not rate highly in the departments (50% disagreed). This could be a pointer of a disconnect between the university and the community and can be tied together with the earlier observation about lack of structural feedback from the labour market which could lead to lack of external efficiency for the university. This is in line with the observation made by Ehlers (2009) and Harvey (2016) about structural weaknesses in the QA systems in Higher Education institutions.

Quality Assurance of the Student Assessment

Student assessment is a critical function in the teaching-learning process. Qualitative data established that the Directorate of Examination Syndicate (DES) is responsible for the entire examination process at OUT. For each subject, DES keeps a data bank of questions and it is also responsible for security of the examinations. The staff in the directorate are scrutinized and vetted to ensure high standards of

integrity. Examinations are transported to regional centers under tight security. DES appoints invigilators who supervise the students write their examinations. Once the examinations have been done, all the scripts are transported to the headquarters where marking is done. Each head of department mobilizes his/her members of academic staff for the marking exercise which is done centrally in a designated room. The Quality Assurance directorate employs various formal and informal tools and methods to check compliance with examination procedures. For example, questionnaires are used to collect data from students, invigilators and security personnel on various aspects of the examination process. There is also another questionnaire that is issued to lecturers to assess the marking and grading process. The Directorate also collects data informally through talking to students, lecturers, security personnel. Data is also collected through observations and security cameras. To triangulate the data discussed above that was obtained from the Key Informant interview, Heads of Departments responded to items in the questionnaire focusing on various aspects of review of activities in line with the IQA policy. They gave their responses on Likert scale of Four showing their agreement or disagreement with the statements given on review of core activities. Their responses are given in Table 1.4.

Table 1.4 HODs Rating of Quality Assurance of Student Assessment

S. No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
1	The university has a clear criteria for assessments	58.3% (7)	41.7% (5)	0% (0)	0% (0)	3.58
2	The university has standard assessment procedures	58.3% (7)	41.7% (5)	0% (0)	0% (0)	3.58
3	The university has regulations to assure the quality of assessment	41.7% (5)	58.3% (7)	0% (0)	0% (0)	3.42
4	The regulations are known to both staff and students	16.7% (2)	50.0% (6)	33.3% (4)	0% (0)	2.83

Table 1.4 shows that there was strong agreement by the HODs on various measures taken by the university to ensure Quality Assurance of students' assessment. There was a 100% agreement with the following statements: *'The University has clear criteria for assessments'*, *'The University has standard assessment procedures'*, and *'The University has regulations to assure the quality of assessment.'* These findings concur with the qualitative data that indicated that the university has put in place elaborate and stringent measures to ensure the quality of the assessment process. However, the only grey area is the lack of 100% knowledge of the regulations governing assessment by both staff and students (33.3% Disagreed).

Quality Assurance of Staff

The study also sought to assess the quality of human resource management practices in the university with a focus on appointments and appraisal. When it comes to appointment, it was pointed out that the QA director usually participates in the interview process and also cross checks documents submitted by applicants. With regard to staff appraisal, the QA staffs are usually invited during the review process.

However, the Key Informant Interviewee acknowledged that it was a challenge for the QA directorate to ensure the quality of the appointment procedures and gave a rating of 3 out of 5. To triangulate the data discussed above that was obtained from the Key Informant interview, Heads of Departments responded to items in the questionnaire focusing on various human resource management practices. They gave their responses on Likert scale of Four showing their agreement or disagreement with the statements given on human resource management practices. Their responses are given in Table 1.5.

Table 1.5: HoD's Rating of Human Resource Management Practices

Quality assurance of staff						
S. No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
1	The university has adequate staff appointment procedures	25.0% (3)	58.3% (7)	16.7% (2)	0% (0)	3.08
2	Appointment of staff is done in a fair and transparent manner	25.0% (3)	58.3% (7)	16.7% (2)	0% (0)	3.08
3	The university has adequate staff appraisal system	41.7% (5)	41.7% (5)	16.7% (2)	0% (0)	3.25
4	Staff in the department are satisfied with the appraisal system	8.3% (1)	66.7% (8)	16.7% (2)	0% (0)	2.75
5	The university regularly organizes staff capacity development activities	16.7% (2)	50.0% (6)	33.3% (4)	0% (0)	2.83

Table 1.5 shows that there was high agreement by HoDs on various measures taken by the university to ensure quality assurance of human resource management practices. The following statements elicited strong agreement from the HODs: *'The University has adequate staff appointment procedures'*; *'Appointment of staff is done in a fair and transparent manner'*; *'The University has adequate staff appraisal system'*; and, *'Staff in the department are satisfied with the appraisal system.'* The apparent grey area is with regard to the university holding regular staff capacity development activities where 33% of the HoDs disagreed. Overall, these findings from the HoDs do compare favourably with those from the qualitative data where an overall rating of 3 out of 5 had been given.

Quality Assurance of Facilities

The study also sought to establish the status of the teaching-learning facilities as perceived by the respondents. The Key Informant Interviewee gave an overall rating of 3 out of 5 with regard to quality assurance of facilities. It was pointed out that the QA directorate usually undertakes audits of the facilities and writes reports to management giving recommendations on the required Corrective Action. However, quite a good number of the recommendations are usually not implemented as the management cites lack of funds. One such recommendation that the QA directorate had given but had not been implemented called on improved infrastructural development in the Regional Centres since they are the ones which serve the biggest number of students. Failure to implement it means that the quality of the teaching-learning process in the Regional Centres is compromised. The QA directorate employs online tools for monitoring various activities in the university. For teaching and learning, the university has embraced the use of Turnitin software to check plagiarism. To triangulate the data discussed above that was obtained from the Key Informant interview, Heads of Departments responded to items in the

questionnaire focusing on various aspects of teaching-learning facilities. They gave their responses on Likert scale of Four showing their agreement or disagreement with the statements given on human resource management practices. Their responses are given in Table 1.6.

Table 1.6: HoD’s Rating of Quality of Teaching-Learning facilities

Quality assurance of facilities						
S. No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
1	The department has adequate number of computers for staff	8.3% (1)	33.3% (4)	50.0% (6)	8.3% (1)	2.42
2	The department has adequate access to the internet for staff	25.0% (3)	58.3% (7)	16.7% (2)	0% (0)	3.08
3	Students have adequate access to ICT infrastructure for teaching and learning	25.0% (3)	50.0% (6)	25.0% (3)	0% (0)	3.00
4	The department has developed digital content for all its programmes	25.0% (3)	75.0% (9)	0% (0)	0% (0)	3.25
5	The university has adequate library facilities at main campus	25.0% (3)	66.7% (8)	8.3% (1)	0% (0)	3.17
6	The university has adequate library facilities at Regional centers	8.3% (1)	50.0% (6)	41.7% (5)	0% (0)	2.67
7	The university has adequate laboratories	0% (0)	8.3% (1)	83.4% (10)	8.3% (1)	2.00

Table 1.6 shows agreement and disagreement on quality of teaching-learning resources between the qualitative and quantitative responses.

The following statements on teaching-learning resources received strong support from the HoDs: *'The department has adequate access to the internet for staff'*; *'Students have adequate access to ICT infrastructure for teaching and learning'*; *'The department has developed digital content for all its programmes'*; *'The university has adequate library facilities at main campus'*. These findings concur with the rating of 3 out of 5 given in the KII. However, there was disagreement with the following statement: *'The university has adequate library facilities at Regional centers (41.7% Disagreed)*; and, *'The university has adequate laboratories (91.7% Disagreed)*. This also concurs with the views expressed earlier in the interview that QA directorate had given recommendations for infrastructural development in the Regional Centres but which had not been implemented by university management due to financial constraints. Scarcity of resources as a constraint to QA as cited here concurs with findings from Muhammed *et al.* (2017) and UNESCO (2018).

Quality Assurance of Student Support Services

Student support services are critical, more so in an Open and Distance Learning university context. Data from the KII revealed that the university had made efforts to give information to students from both the headquarters and the Regional Centres and gave an overall learner support rating of 4 out of 5. It was observed that the university through the directorate did a Customer Satisfaction Survey in 2017 that gave insights on areas of learner support that needed improvement. To triangulate the data discussed above that was obtained from the Key Informant interview, Heads of Departments responded to items in the questionnaire focusing on various aspects of student support services. They gave their responses on Likert scale of Four showing their agreement or disagreement with the statements given on human resource management practices. Their responses are given in Table 1.7.

Table 1.7: HoDs Rating of Student Support Services

S. No	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Mean
1	The department gives relevant information to students expeditiously	8.3% (1)	83.4% (10)	8.3% (1)	0% (0)	3.00
2	The department has the means to communicate to students	16.7% (2)	83.3% (10)	0% (0)	0% (0)	3.17
3	The department has a formal mechanism of giving academic advice to students	8.3% (1)	66.7% (8)	25.0% (3)	0% (0)	2.83
4	The department's staff act as mentors to students	33.3% (4)	58.3% (7)	8.3% (1)	0% (0)	3.25
5	The department often reaches out to struggling students	8.3% (1)	50.0% (6)	41.7% (5)	0% (0)	2.67
6	The university has an effective student welfare system	0% (0)	58.3% (7)	41.7% (5)	0% (0)	2.58
7	The students have a peer support structure	0% (0)	83.4% (10)	16.6% (2)	0% (0)	2.83

Table 1.7 shows agreement between the HoDs and the KII on various aspects of student support system. There was strong agreement that the departments have the means to communicate to students and gives relevant information expeditiously. There was also agreement that the departments have a formal mechanism of giving academic advice to students and that their staff acted as mentors to students. The chairpersons were also in agreement about the existence of a students' peer support structure. However, the departments seemed not to be doing very well with regard to reaching out to struggling

students (41.7% Disagreed). Another grey area with regard to learner support services is 'student welfare system' as 41.7% of the HoDs felt that it was not effective.

Challenges Impacting on IQA

The study also sought to identify the challenges constraining the effectiveness of IQA at OUT. The QA directorate faces a number of challenges in implementing the Self-Assessment which is critical for IQA as pointed out by the respondents. Staffing of the QA directorate was identified as a challenge by both the KII and the HoDs. The challenge of staffing is manifested in two ways: understaffing and inadequate staff capacity. That the QA directorate did not have adequate staff came out clearly in the interview when it was pointed out that it required six support staff for its three divisions but only two were in place. The issue of lack of capacity of the staff in the QA directorate to handle quality issues was brought to the fore by the HoDs. One of the HoDs stated that,

'There is lack of Quality Assurance experts to work in the QA unit' while another identified 'Lack of capacity building for the quality assurance department.'

This lack of capacity impacted on the ability of the directorate to cascade QA training to the other members of the university. One HoD stated that the directorate *'does not support capacity building of the staffs'* while another added that *'Quality assurance activities are not clearly defined to HoDs and staff.'* This lack of adequate human resource capacity to drive the QA agenda at OUT concurs with the findings of Muhammed (2017) and UNESCO (2018). Lack of robust engagement of the university community by the QA directorate also emerged as weakness. One HoD accused the QA directorate of lack of *'strategy to reach out to the needy students and staff'*, while another added that *'HoDs*

are not involved in planning of Quality Assurance activities.' This lack of a participatory approach to QA issues may lead to a sense of alienation and lack of ownership by the university community. These challenges mirror what Ansah Franers et al (2017) described as lack of balance of focus in QA issues. Other related challenges cited by HoDs were unavailability of the QA guidelines and the QA Handbook on the university website and low enforcement mechanisms of QA issues. Funding was cited as another challenge by both the KII and the HoD. It emerged that not all Corrective Actions recommended by the directorate after quality audits were implemented due to constraints in the university budget. This is in agreement with the findings of Muhammed (2017) and UNESCO (2018). Negative attitude of university staff towards QA staff was cited as another challenge. Again, this is not unique to OUT as it has been documented in other institutions by other scholars, for example Anderson (2006; 2008) and Markus and Philipp (2018). The over bearing nature of the government was cited as another challenge to IQA in that it had affected the universities by eroding their autonomy and freedom in decision making *'as they now have to seek approval from the government for almost everything'*. This, it was noted, had an impact on quality as the university delayed in making critical decisions that were vital for quality processes and outcomes.

Conclusions

The study concludes that OUT, driven by both improvement and compliance needs, had put in place a Quality Assurance (QA) framework that was implemented through the QA directorate. However, although the university had an IQA policy document and the QA handbook, not all members of the university community were familiar with these documents. The study also concludes that although IQA policy gave a framework for monitoring various activities in the

university, it lacked a structured monitoring system to collect data on both internal and external efficiency. The study also concludes that the overall success of IQA at the university was constrained by the following challenges: inadequate funding; understaffing of the IQA directorate; a negative attitude by university staff towards QA staff; lack of regular meetings between QA directorate and university members; lack of clear definition of QA activities to HoDs; and, lack of involvement of HoDs in planning QA activities.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, the study makes the following recommendation with a view to improving OUT's IQA functions. One, the university should sensitise staff on the QA policy and increase access to the QA handbook. Two, the university should strengthen the QA monitoring system to enable structured collection of data on internal and external efficiency. Three, the university should adequately staff the QA directorate as well as build the capacity of the staff to handle QA issues. Four, the university should also adequately fund the QA directorate as well as the various corrective actions recommended by the QA office. Five, the QA directorate should develop its activities in a participatory manner as it also increases sensitization of the university community on QA policies and issues.

References

- African Union (nd). African standards and guidelines for quality assurance in higher education (ASG-QA). <http://hdl.handle.net/2445/126939>
- Abebaw, Y. & Aster, M. (2012). Quality assurance in Ethiopian higher education: Procedures and practices. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 69 (2012) 838-846
- Bollaert, L. (2014). A manual for internal quality assurance in higher education with a special focus on professional higher education. EURASHE.
- Allais, S. M. (2009). Quality assurance in education. Centre for education policy and development.
- Ayalew, S., Dawit, M., Tesfaye, S. & Yalew, E. (2009). Assessment of science education quality indicators in Addis Ababa, Bahri Dar and Hawassa Universities. *Quality of Higher Education in Ethiopian Public Institutions, FSS*, 161-266.
- Biggs, J.B. (1993). From theory to practice: a cognitive systems approach. *Higher Education*, 12(1), 73-85.
- Brennan, J., & Shah, T. (2000). Managing quality in higher education. Society for research into higher education/Open University.
- Ehlers, U. D. (2009). Understanding quality culture. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 17(4), 343–363.
- Francis, A., Patrick, S., & Hope. P. (2017). Balancing the focus of quality assurance frameworks of higher education institutions in Africa: A Ghanaian context <http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.68665>
- Haapakorpi, A. (2011). Quality assurance processes in Finnish Universities: Direct and indirect outcomes and organisational conditions. *Quality in Higher Education*, 17, 69-81. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1353832.2011.554311>
- Harvey, L. & Green, D. (1993). Defining quality. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 18(1), 9-34
- IUCEA. (2010). *A road map to quality*. IUCEA

- Loukkola, T. & Zhang, T. (2010). Examining quality culture: Part 1. *Quality Assurance Processes in Higher Education Institutions*. European University Association.
- Markus, S. & Philipp, P. (2018). Assessing quality assurance in higher education: Quality managers' perceptions of effectiveness. *European Journal of Higher Education*, 8(3), 258–271.
- Mgaiwa, S. (2018). Operationalising quality assurance processes in Tanzanian higher education: Academics' perceptions from selected private universities. *Creative Education*, 9, 901-918
- Muhammad, S., Muhammad, K., Ashiq, D., Muhammad, A., Khalid, S., Sajid, M., & Ijaz A. (2014). *Problems and issues in relation to quality assurance practices in higher education: Views of students, teachers and heads of quality enhancement cells (QEC's)*. <http://www.ayeronline.com>
- Neubauer, D. & Gomes, C. (2007). *Quality assurance in Asia-Pacific universities*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Nigusse, W. (2017). Balanced scorecard in higher education institutions: Congruence and roles to quality assurance practices. *Quality Assurance in Education*, 25(4), 489-499
- OUT. (2019). Facts and figures. www.OUT.ac.tz
- Ryan, P. (2015). Quality assurance in higher education: A review of literature. *Higher Learning Research Communications*, 5(4)
- Shabani, J., Okebukola, P. & Oyewole, O. (2014). Quality assurance in Africa: Towards a continental higher education and research space. *International Journal of African Higher Education*, 1(1), 140-171
- Stensaker, B. (2008). Outcomes of quality assurance: A discussion of knowledge, methodology and validity. *Quality in Higher Education*, 14, 3-13.
- Teichler, U. (2012). International student mobility and the Bologna process. *Research in Comparative and International Education*, 7(1), 34-49
- UNESCO. (2018). *Internal quality assurance: Enhancing higher education quality and graduate employability*. International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP).

Vukasovic, M. (2012). *European student handbook on quality assurance in higher education*. www3.uma.pt/jcmarques/docs/info/qaheducation.pdf

Guidance and Counselling Need in Tanzania: Needs Assessment for Primary School Pupils of Iringa Municipality

Dorothy Lubawa
University of Iringa, Tanzania
dlubawa@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to identify the guidance and Counselling needs for primary school pupils. This study applied a Cross-sectional study design. Data were collected through questionnaires, structured interioews, and focus group discussion. The study involved 205 respondents; 155 primary school pupils, 26 primary school teachers, four guidance and counselling teachers, 10 educational administrators and 10 parents. The findings showed that pupils experienced some problems/needs and communicated them to their significant people and received help. The findings also revealed that pupils had some problems/needs which did not receive any help from the significant people although they were communicated to them. Likewise, the findings revealed that pupils had problems/needs which they found difficult to communicate to their significant people. Also, it was clear that the significant people around the primary school children were aware of the guidance and counselling needs of the pupils. The study concludes that social problems were the most outstanding problems/needs which primary school pupils experienced and shared easily with their significant others; psychological and developmental problems/needs are the most outstanding problems/needs which did not receive appropriate help from the significant people although they were communicated to them. The study recommends that guidance and counselling programmes in the schools be strengthened by employing trained professional counsellors to meet pupils' problems and needs.

Key Words: Guidance, counselling, pupils needs, primary schools, needs assessment

INTRODUCTION

Guidance and Counselling was initially found in Europe in the nineteenth century. It started as occupational counselling, which aimed at helping people acquire jobs, but later on, it developed to various areas of specializations namely family counselling, school counselling, adolescent counselling as well as career counselling (Mutie, 2005). In Africa, guidance and counselling existed informally in the communal societies; it involved every individual in the societies. Children and youths were guided along the knowledge of their respective cultural norms, values and traditions (Mutie & Ndambuki, 1999). This type of guidance and counselling, within the indigenous African societies, also created self-awareness and growth among members of the group (Thompson & Lago, 2003). In the Tanzanian traditional context, like in other African traditional societies, guidance and counselling involved educating individuals, usually children and youths, about the traditions and cultural norms of the community. This type of education was not given in the classrooms by trained teachers, but took place naturally throughout childhood as children went about their daily occupations (Castle, 1991). This was carried out (from generation to generation) by elders who considered it their social responsibility. Parents and all adults were regarded as teachers of the young generation not only by being role models but also by insisting on obedience to tribal customs and on good manners. In most of the Tanzanian tribes, guidance and counselling was provided during hunting, cultivation of crops, domestic work and crafts. However, it was provided intensively during the initiation ceremonies (Kyomo & Selvan, 2004). The main objective of guidance and counselling was to mould the individuals in such a way that they fitted in the society as responsible members of the community. This type of education provided the recipients with skills, which enabled them to live productively. It involved the total development of the recipient; the recipient was guided on how to grow up, what to be, what to do what to know and how to consolidate his/her virtues (Mutie, 2005). In this way the child acquired the cognitive, psychomotor, and affective skills which were the basis for the development of a balanced personality. It was through this

traditional guidance and counselling that children learned the use of appropriate language, respect for elders, life skills, and self-defence.

In Iringa region, like in other parts of Tanzania, guidance and counselling was provided to the children and youths as they grew up. They were guided to the understanding that each person existed as part of the community and had roles, responsibilities and duties to fulfill in the community according to his/her age, gender, health and abilities (Kyomo & Selvan, 2004). In Iringa Municipality, guidance and counselling existed informally amidst ethnic groups including the Hehe, Bena, and the Kinga tribes which lived in this area. Despite this mixture of tribes, there was a similarity in the way children received guidance and counselling from the adults around them. The guidance and counselling took place among members of the same family or community. For example, children would be brought together for instruction, guidance and corrections during special occasions when it was noted that some of them misbehaved. Beyond the family members, the community members could also offer help to the troublesome children if it was proved that the particular family had failed to correct the behaviour of the children. In this way, children learned how to relate with their peers because they shared the same problems. Even if their problems seemed difficult they were taught how to help one another within the group. Sometimes, one of the members would share something positive which could help others. This encouraged them and motivated healthy growth and development. Currently, with formal schooling, children at a very early age leave their parents and spend most of their life in schools. In this regard, the guidance and counselling which parents and elders used to provide to their children in the traditional settings is now left in the hands of teachers. These teachers may neither be competent in the traditional guidance and counselling nor in the formal guidance and counselling as they lack training in the area of guidance and counselling (URT, 2006). Although the practice of guidance and counselling in Tanzania may not be as precise as what is practiced in the Western world (Goss & Adebawale, 2014), pupils have needs which require attention of their teachers.

Although there have been struggles in establishing guidance and counselling services in schools and colleges, there is low achievement. This has led Tanzanian children to develop complicated behavioural problems which include truancy, alcohol and drug abuse, early sexual affairs, and violence (URT, 2006). The government introduced circular number 11 of 2002 which aimed at strengthening guidance and counselling services in schools and teachers colleges so as to help school learners in their social, academic and psychological concerns (URT, 2002). According to education and training policy, Tanzanian education is expected to provide pupils with skills, competence and ability to confront the requirements which arise from the labour market and life in general (URT, 2014). Through the primary school education, pupils are expected to learn how to appreciate their national identity, personal integrity, cultural and moral values, customs, traditions and civic responsibilities and obligations. However, it is argued here that there is difficulty in achieving these goals due to behavioural problems which affect pupils' focus as they pursue their education (URT, 2006; URT, 2010; URT, 2011). Fundamentally, theories of human development focus on the sequence of patterns that occur such as biological, cognitive, moral, affective, interpersonal and occupational. One of the famous developmental theories is Erick Erickson's psychosocial theory which offers a basic framework of understanding the needs of children in relation to the society in which they grow, learn, and later make their contributions. His emphasis is that development passes through a series of stages, each with its particular goals, concerns, accomplishments, and dangers. He sees that the stages are interdependent; accomplishments at later stages depend on how conflicts are resolved in the earlier years (Woolfolk, 2004). At each stage, the individual faces a developmental crisis which is a conflict between a positive alternative and a potentially unhealthy alternative. It is argued that the ways in which an individual resolves each crisis will have a lasting effect on that person's self-image and view of the society. Due to conflicts which occur at different stages of growing,

children manifest various behaviours which may be healthy or maladaptive (Berk, 2014).

One important thing to remember is that in every type of behaviour, the child expresses a need. All the time, and quite unconsciously, children are striving towards their next stage of growth. They have needs they want to secure and this is the natural urge that makes growth possible (Castle, 1991). It is the duty of the person who is to provide guidance to discover what these needs are, and supply them or help the child to supply them for himself. Biswalo (1996) argued that educational, vocational, and personal/social guidance and counselling services are needed in the primary schools as in any other educational institution. He argues that as children enter school, they need to be guided and counselled along the school compound, school curriculum, and the school community to allow them to develop a positive attitude toward learning, and toward school as a community. He emphasizes that educational guidance and counselling programme in primary schools should identify the needs and problems of pupils regarding the school experience especially the learning process. He affirms that optimum learning for the pupils requires that guidance and counselling services be integrated with a relevant educational curriculum (Biswalo, 1996). He holds that there is a need to integrate Guidance and Counselling with a relevant educational curriculum due to the fact that the curriculum provides the experiences that individual pupil needs whereas Guidance and Counselling helps pupils to succeed in these experiences. He believes that educational institutions have twofold crucial responsibilities: to nurture students who have varying abilities, capabilities, capacities, interests, and unlimited potentials; and to prepare these individuals to become effectively functioning members of their changing societies. He suggests that the school guidance and counselling programme for primary school pupils should include occupational exploration to arouse pupils' interests in various fields. In connection with the personal/social guidance and counselling programme for primary schools, he suggests pupils to be guided and counselled on issues concerning

emotional problems, intellectual disabilities, motivational inadequacies, moral defects, physical ailments, and social maladjustment. Children have their dreams, objectives and aspirations and they have plans and ideas on how to achieve their goals. Some of their ideas may be potentially good, however, they may lack proper way to achieve them due to inexperience and lack of guidance (Omari, 2006). It is noted here that the same ideas and aspirations may cause some social problems if they are misused. Therefore, there is the necessity of guiding pupils as they struggle to achieve their goals. It is from this perspective, this paper sought to assess, analyse and document pupils' problems which need guidance and counselling services in Iringa Municipality. The study was guided by the following five objectives:

1. To identify guidance and counselling problems/needs which pupils can easily communicate and receive help from their significant others.
2. To identify guidance and counselling problems/needs which pupils communicated easily to their significant others but did not receive help
3. To identify guidance and counselling problems/needs which pupils cannot communicate easily to their significant others
4. To explore the pupils', teachers' and parents' awareness of guidance and counselling problems/needs of primary school pupils
5. To identify support providers whom the pupils rely on when they face problems which need guidance/counselling services

Methodology

The study was conducted in Iringa Municipality. Iringa Municipality has one division, 14 wards, and 162 sub-wards. The size of the wards and the sub-wards differs significantly. The study was conducted in only four primary schools in Iringa Municipality namely schools **W**, **X**, **Y**, and **Z**. Schools **W** and **X**, located at the city centre, were selected

because they have urban features while school Y and Z, located in the periphery of the city, have rural features. The selection was intended to get a sample with respondents from both urban and rural settings in order to get insights from both settings (Iringa Municipal Socio-Economic Profile, 2011). The population for this study included Municipal education administrative officials, heads of primary schools, primary school teachers, primary school guidance and counsellor teachers, and primary school pupils. The actual population of primary school pupils in the Iringa Municipality was 25,896 and primary school teachers were 851 (Iringa Municipal Socio-Economic Profile, 2012). Data were collected from a sample of 205. Considering that in descriptive statistics, any large sample size suffices (Hair et al, 2006); the sample size of 30 or above is said to be adequate for the purpose of descriptive study (Kar and Ramalingm, 2013, Creswell 2014, Snedecor & Cocran, 1989). In this study the researcher intended to have a large sample size of 30 plus margin of non-response of 10 pupils for each school, making a total of about 40 pupils per school. For four schools the researcher aimed at reaching $40 \times 4 = 160$ pupils. However, in two schools the researcher could not meet the expected number of pupils as shown in Table1.

Table 1. Sample Size

Sampling area	Sample Size
Pupils from W primary school	37
Pupils from X primary school	40
Pupils from Y primary school	38
Pupils from Z primary school	40
Primary school teachers and guidance counsellors	30
Educational administrators& school heads	10
Parents	10
Total	205

Source: Research Data

Pupils were randomly selected, ten pupils from each class of standard four, five, six and seven, to give a presentation of the classes. Individual pupils were chosen arbitrarily and in an unstructured manner. This kind of sampling gave the pupils equal chance of selection (Mlyuka, 2011). Purposive sampling was used to select education administrative officers, heads of schools, primary school teachers, and guidance and counselling teachers. Convenient sampling was used to select parents who were not necessarily the parents of the pupils selected in the sample. Questionnaires, structured interviews, and focus group discussions were used to collect data. The questionnaires were distributed to the pupils and teachers of the four primary schools. Structured Interviews were used to collect data from administrative officials, guidance and counsellor teachers, and the heads of the four primary schools. The Focus group discussion was conducted to parents who were obtained from non-teaching staffs of **W** primary school and therefore it was easy to bring them together and manage the discussion.

Findings

Objective 1: To identify problems/needs which pupils can easily communicate and receive help from their significant people. Table 2 presents problems/needs which pupils communicated them easily to their significant people and received help.

Table 2. Problems/Needs easily communicated and received help

Problems/Needs	Frequency	Percentage
Social(relationship with family, friends)	66	42.6
Behavioural-Alcohol, drug abuse, theft	41	26.5
Health	30	19.4
Economic	33	21.3
Academic	40	25.8

Psychological	40	25.8
---------------	----	------

Source: Research data

According to the findings, social problems/needs (issues of relationship with friends and family) ranked highly 66(42.6%) while health and economic problems/needs had a low rank 30(19.4%) and 33 (21.3%) respectively. Other problems/needs which pupils shared easily with their significant others and received help include behavioural 41(26.5%), academic 40(25.8%) and psychological 40(25.8%). The results suggest that social, behavioural, academic and psychological problems/needs are the most outstanding problems/needs which pupils can easily communicate and received help from their significant people.

Objective 2: To identify problems/needs which pupils communicated easily to their significant people but did not receive help. Table 3 presents problems encountered by pupils and shared easily to their significant others but did not receive help.

Table 3. Problems/Needs communicated and did not receive help

Problems/Needs	Frequency	Percentage
Developmental	35	22.6
Economic	29	18.7
Psychological	36	23.2

According to the findings, the problems/needs which were communicated but did not receive help included developmental 35(22.6%), psychological 36(23.2%) and economic 29(18.7%). This indicates that pupils encountered some problems/needs but they did not get help from their significant others despite the fact that they communicated the problems to them.

Objective 3: To identify guidance and counselling problems/needs which pupils cannot communicate easily to their significant people.

Table 4 presents problems/needs which pupils cannot communicate easily to their significant others.

Table 4. Problems/needs pupils would not communicate easily to significant others

Problems/Needs	Frequency	Percentage
Violence	12	7.7
Health	25	16.1
Academic	23	14.8
Behavioural	32	20.6
Sexual abuse/Harassment	40	25.8

The findings suggest that problems/needs which pupils could not communicate easily to their significant others include Violence 12(7.7%), health 25(16.1%), academic 23(14.8%), behavioural 32 (20.6%), and Sexual abuse 40 (25.8%). This suggests that there are some problems/needs which pupils in primary schools encountered but would not want to communicate them to anybody. The most outstanding problems were sexual abuse/harassment and behavioural problems.

Objective 4: To explore the awareness of pupils and teachers concerning guidance and counselling needs. Table 5 below summarises the findings.

Table.5 Pupils’ and Teachers’ awareness of Guidance and Counselling needs

	Yes	No	Total
Pupils	96(61.9)	59(38.1)	155(100)
Teachers	22(84.6)	04(15.4)	26(100)
Total	118(65.2)	63(34.80)	181(100)

The findings show that 65.9% (pupils 61.9% and teachers 84.6%) of all respondents reported that they were aware of the guidance and counselling needs/problems of primary school pupils. The findings suggest that the teachers have an outstanding awareness (84.6%) of the problems/needs of primary school pupils. The results from the structured interview showed that the administrative officials namely the Municipal officials, the school heads and the guidance counsellor teachers were all aware of the common problems/needs that pupils encountered and which needed guidance and counselling. The problems/needs which were mentioned included academic, social, economic, family, health, time management, career, sexuality, relationship, and self-management. One of the administrative officers said:

Our students have a lot of problems, especially psychological problems like stress and trauma, which need professional counsellors; but they are nowhere to be found! It would be helpful if the government through the ministry of education would train and employ professional counsellors in the schools.

The findings from the Focus Group Discussion showed that the parents were also aware of the pupils' problems and needs which included economic, health, social, behavioural, family, relationship, time and self-management. These results from the structured interview and the focus group discussions complemented the results from the teachers and the pupils.

Objective 5: To identify support providers whom the pupils rely on when they face problems which need guidance/counselling services

The findings showed that when pupils encountered problems and needs, they received support and service from various significant people. Table 7 summarises the significant people consulted by pupils for support and services when they encountered problems/needs.

Table 7. Response from pupils as to whom they consulted for support and service when they had problems/needs mentioned below:

Needs/Problem	HoS	%	CT	%	ST	%	GCT	%	Parents	%	None	%
Academic	06	3.9	17	11	75	48.4	09	5.8	47	30.3	01	0.6
Relationship	07	4.5	12	7.7	04	2.6	22	14.2	70	45.2	40	25.8
Developmental changes	02	1.3	05	3.2	02	1.3	23	14.8	88	56.8	35	22.6
Economic difficulties	20	12.9	15	9.7	03	1.9	33	21.3	52	33.5	32	20.6
Health	05	3.2	07	4.5	03	1.9	88	56.8	45	29.0	08	5.2
Family	05	3.2	04	2.6	01	0.6	13	8.4	88	56.8	44	28.4
Behavioural – Alcohol and drug abuse	04	2.6	03	1.9	04	2.6	53	34.2	39	25.2	52	33.5
Sexual abuse/harassments	06	3.9	07	4.5	05	3.2	25	16.1	61	39.3	51	32.9

Key: HoS: Heads of Schools; CT: Class Teacher; ST: Subject Teacher; GCT: Guidance

Counsellor Teacher

From Table 7, it is clear that, except for the issues related with academic and health, most students consulted their parents for almost all of their problems. Yet, other pupils did not consult anybody for service or support when they experienced problems.

Discussion

This study sought to identify pupils’ specific needs in primary schools for the purpose of establishing guidance and counselling services in schools. The first objective of this study was to identify problems/needs which were communicated easily by pupils to their significant others and received help. It is clear in this study that social problems related to interpersonal relationships with family members, teachers and peers were the most mentioned problems/needs which pupils shared easily with their significant others. When interpersonal relationships with significant people in the life of learners are not

taken care of, they may contribute to poor teaching and learning environment (Al-Zoubi & Younes, 2015).

This is due to the fact that in teaching/learning environment, pupils would likely want to have their academic problems solved and their economic needs facilitated so that they can achieve positive learning outcomes. The second objective of this study sought to identify problems/needs which pupils communicated to their significant others, but did not receive any help. It is clear in this study that psychological and developmental problems/needs were communicated but did not receive any help from the significant others. One would assume that the significant others whom the pupils reported the cases did not have the required guidance and counselling knowledge to offer the needed professional help. This argument is based on the fact that it is not possible for one to address an issue which s/he is not well informed of. A similar observation was reported by Magwa and Chindanya (2017) Mushi and Malusu (2017). The third objective of this study was to identify guidance and counselling problems/needs which pupils encountered but could not communicate them easily to their significant others. As seen in the data, the majority of pupils found it difficult to communicate issues of sexual abuse/harassments and behavioural problems/needs to their significant others. Failure to communicate issues of sexual abuse/harassments and behavioural problems/needs to the significant people can be associated with cultural traditions which often attach a social stigma to the victim or her family. Ngiloi (2007) asserts that one of the possible reasons against disclosing information on child sexual abuse is the social stigma attached to the child and the family. There is a culture of silence and secrecy on sexuality. Child sexual abuse is still being associated with shame, threat, fear, or taboo by many families and societies (Kimbavala, 2018). The fourth objective of this study explored the awareness of pupils, teachers, counsellors, administrative officials and parents concerning guidance and counselling needs of primary school pupils. As observed from the data, majority of pupils and teachers were aware of the guidance and counselling needs of pupils. Also, the Municipal officials, school heads and counsellor

teachers, who are significant people in the pupils' lives, were all aware of the common problems/needs that pupil encountered. It is argued here that the awareness of these significant people towards pupils' needs/problems can motivate them to stay around the children for care and support, which would result in pupils' feelings of safety and security.

It is noteworthy that children feel safe and secure when their parents or care givers are around them (Nyangarika & Ngasa, 2020). The fifth objective of this study identified support providers whom the pupils rely on when they face problems which need guidance/counselling services. The findings show that pupils sought support and service from heads of schools, class teachers, subject teachers, guidance counsellor teachers, and parents. However, others did not want to seek support and service from any of these. It is clear from this study that some pupils received help from the identified support and service providers, others did not receive support and service while others did not want even to seek support and service from the identified providers. Having pupils who miss the support and service for any reason, calls for other interventions which might be more helpful. Ekman et al (2011) explains the importance of using counselling therapies, suggesting the use of Person-Centred therapy for holistic understanding of the learners and their problems which highlights the importance of listening to each individual pupil.

Conclusions and Recommendation

Based on the findings the study concludes that:

- i. Social problems related to interpersonal relationships with family members, teachers and peers are easily shared by pupils and received assistance.
- ii. Psychological and developmental problems/needs were shared, but pupils did not receive any help from the significant other.

- iii. Issues related to sexual abuse/harassments and behavioural problems/needs were not shared. Pupils found it difficult to communicate these issues to their significant people.
- iv. Majority of the participants were aware of the guidance and counselling needs of pupils in primary schools.
- v. Pupils sought support from heads of schools, class teachers, subject teachers, guidance-counsellor teachers, and parents. However, some pupils did not opt for any support and service from these significant people.

This study recommends the following:

- i. It is recommended that guidance and counselling programmes in primary schools should be strengthened by employing trained professional counsellors to meet pupils' problems and needs.
- ii. School guidance and counselling programme need to involve pupils' families and the community around for psycho-education which would help them to provide the nurturing environment in which pupils would learn to grow as they interact with the world around them.

References

- Al-Zoubi, S. M. & Younes A. B. M. (2015). Low academic achievement: Causes and results. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(11), 2262-2268
- Backman, Y., Alerby, E., Bergmrk, U., Gardelli, A., Hertting, K., Kostenius, C., & Ohrling, K. (2012). Improving the school environment from a student perspective: Tensions and opportunities. *Education Inquiry*, 3(1), 19-35
- Baker, B. S. (2002). *School counseling for the twenty-first century* (3rd Ed). New York, NY: Macmillan.
- Berk, L. E. (2014). *Development through lifespan* (6th Ed). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Biswalo, P. M. (1996). *An introduction to guidance and counselling in diverse African context*. Dar es Salaam: Dar es Salaam University Press.
- Botha, M. E. (1989). Theory development in perspective: The role of conceptual frameworks and models in theory development. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 14(1), pp.49-55
- Brown, D. & Srebalus, D.J. (1988). *An introduction to the counselling profession*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall
- Carnevale, A. P., Gainer, L. J. & Meltzer, A. S. (1988). *Workplace basics: The skills employers want*. Alexandria: VA- American society for Training and Development.
- Castle, E. B. (1991). *Principles of education for teachers in Africa*. Nairobi: Oxford.
- Creswell, J.W. (2014). *Research design: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods approach* (4th ed.). SAGE.
- Gibson, R. L. (2008). *Introduction to guidance and counseling*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Gladdin S.T. (1992). *Counselling: A comprehensive profession* (2nd Ed). New York, NY: Macmillan.

- Gysbers, N. (2001). School guidance and counselling in the 21st century: Remember the past into the future. *Professional School Counselling*, 5(2)
- Hair, J. F., Black, W.C., Babbie, J.B., Anderson, R.E. & Tatham, R.L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis (6th Ed.)*. Upper Saddle River: Pearson Education
- Kabir A. (2017). A Study on Common psychological problems in intermediate college students in the perspective of Bangladesh. *Health Research* 1 16-24
- Kar, S.S., & Ramalingam, A. (2013). Is 30 the magic number? Issues in sample size estimation. *National Journal of Community Medicine*, 4(1), 175-179.
- Kimambo, N. I. (2003). *Human and social sciences in East and Central Africa: Theory and practice*. Dar es Salaam: Dar es Salaam University Press Ltd.
- Kothari, C. R. (2005). *Research methodology: Method and techniques*. New Delhi: New age International.
- Lutomia, G. & Sikolia, L. (2002). *Guidance and counselling in schools and colleges*. Nairobi: Uzima.
- Magwa, S. & Chindanya, L. (2017). Counselling needs among primary school learners: The role of school counsellor. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal*, 4(16), 88-94
- Mlyuka, E.E. (2011). *A simplified guide to research proposal and report writing for institutions of higher learning*. Dar es Salaam: Ecumenical Gathering (EGYS).
- Mutie, E.K. (2005). *Guidance and counselling for schools and colleges (7th Ed.)*. Nairobi: Oxford.
- Mwamwenda, T. S. (2004). *Educational psychology (3rd Ed)*. Sandton: Heinemann.
- Naik, D. (2004), *Fundamentals of guidance and counselling*. Delhi: Adhyayan.

- Ndambuki, P. & Mutie, K. (1999). *Guidance and counselling for schools and colleges*. Nairobi: Oxford.
- Ngiloi, P.J. & Carneiro, P.M. (2007). Sexual abuse in children. *East and Central African Journal of Surgery*, 4(2), 39-43.
- Ngomela, M. (2013). *Guidance and counselling needs assessment at primary school level in Kinondoni District Tanzania*. (Master's dissertation, University of Dodoma, Dodoma, Tanzania).
- Selvan G.S. & Kyomo A.A. (2004). *Marriage and family in African Christianity*. Nairobi: Action.
- Snedecor, G.W. & Cochran, W.G. (1989). *Statistical methods* (8th Ed.). Ames, IA: Iowa State University.
- Thompson, A. R. (2002). *School counselling: The best Practices for working in the schools* (2nd Ed). Brunner: Rutledge.
- Thompson, J. & Lago, C. (2003). *Race, culture and counselling* (5th Ed.) Philadelphia: Open University.
- UNESCO. (2000). *Regional training seminar on guidance and counselling on behaviour modification: Module 4*. Kampala.
- UNESCO. (2002). Terms of reference: *The first International conference on guidance and youth development in Africa*, 22-26, April 2002. Nairobi: Kenya.
- URT. (2002). Waraka wa elimu namba 11 wa mwaka 2002: Kuanzisha huduma za malezi na ushauri nasaha kwa wanafunzi katika shule na vyuo vya ualimu. Dar es Salaam: URT.
- URT. (2006). GCS "A guide for counsellors in schools and teachers Colleges." Dar es Salaam: URT
- UNESCO. (2009). *Gender issues in guidance and counselling in post primary education: Advocacy brief*. Bangkok: UNESCO
- Woolfolk, A. (2004). *Educational psychology* (9th Ed). New York: Pearson Ltd.

Awareness and Perception of Mobile-Learning Apps as E-learning Platforms in ODL Institutions, South-West Nigeria

Comfort Olawunmi Adeniyi¹, Esther Oluwasayo Oladele², Elizabeth Bamgbade³ and Abiola Yetunde Fashina⁴

Email: eoladele@unilag.edu.ng²

University of Lagos

ABSTRACT

The paper examined Distance Learners' awareness and perception of Mobile Learning Apps as e-learning platforms. The population for the study comprised of all Mathematics and Science Distance Learners in South-West Nigeria. The study employed survey research design with two hundred and eighty (280) learners involved. The sample for the study was selected using purposive sampling techniques. The instrument for data collection was a researcher designed questionnaire. The data collected were analyzed using frequency counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation, while hypothesis was tested using t-test. The study revealed that most of the learners are aware of the availability of the mobile learning Apps. However, the study showed that the learners exhibit a negative attitude towards usage of mobile learning Apps as e-learning platforms. The study recommended among others that the distance learning institutions should use different medium to sensitize the learners on the benefit of the use of mobile learning Apps. Also, learners should be properly guided on how to easily make use of different mobile learning Apps as this can encourage them to be fully integrated into the on-line learning platforms.

Key words: E-learning platform, Mobile Learning Apps, Distance Learning, Awareness, Attitude.

INTRODUCTION

The use of computer technologies as a means of instructional delivery in schools is gaining more popularity among developing countries especially among distance learning institutions (Belanger & Jordan, 2000). The time when print is the only means of instructions among distance learner institutions has passed. Distance learners now learn through various technologies such as video, skype, teleconferencing, different social media platform and many more. The methods of learning used in distance education are basically divided into two groups; synchronous and asynchronous learning. The synchronous learning is a mode of learning delivery where all participants are present at the same time and learning is facilitated by the e-tutor. It looks like the conventional classroom teaching methods though the participants are located remotely. It requires an organized timetable.

The participants must be aware of the time and means of instruction to be able to fully participate in the learning/facilitation. The asynchronous learning mode of delivery on the other hand, is another form of learning where the presence of the participants is not required at the same time (Peters, 2002). Individual can access course materials and lessons whenever they feel doing so. Hence, asynchronous mode makes learning more flexible. Here, students are not required to be together at the same time. The asynchronous technologies are commonly used in this era, where almost everyone has his own handheld mobile devices. With these devices, people can interact or learn from anywhere in the world. Regardless of time and place, people can interact or exchange information with each other (Peters, 2002; Roblyer & Edwards, 2000). Literature suggests that Information and Communication Technology has affected every aspect of human day today activities. In the same manner, mobile technologies, especially smartphones, have brought significant behavioural changes

in the lives of both old and youths (Hidayat & Utomo, 2014; Levinson, 2005). University students, especially the distance learners – who are usually separated by space and time with their facilitators, are arguably the set of people who need the ICT knowledge the most, for successful learning (Sönmez et al., 2018; Liu & He, 2011). It is argued here that Distance learners in developing countries need to be at the same level with technological advancement as the rest of the world. As such, knowledge that can enhance technology application to learning is paramount. However, it is noted here that the application of social media and mobile learning Apps are trends that are yet to be fully embraced by sub-Saharan Africa and other developing countries (Newby, Stepich, Lehman, & Russel, 2000; Charland & Brian 2011). Therefore, this study investigated awareness and perception towards mobile learning Apps as e-learning platforms among Distance learners in south West Nigeria. In doing so, the study addressed the following research questions:

- i. What is the level of awareness of Distance Learners on the usage of Mobile Learning Apps as e-learning platforms?
- ii. What attitude do Distance Learners show towards the use of Mobile Learning Apps as e-learning platforms?
- iii. What is the perception of Distance Learners on the usage of Mobile Learning Apps as e-learning platforms?

Literature

Mobile learning refers to the use of mobile devices in teaching and learning process. The term mobile learning has attracted many definitions by many scholars such as Hidayat and Utomo (2014), who defined mobile learning as electronic information which we can learn. According to them, Mobile Learning is a platform where learning is offered to learners; this can be done anytime anywhere. Alzaza and Yaakub (2011b) viewed Mobile-learning as the latest and fastest

developing education and training method in education field compared to the traditional e-learning. Elkaseh, Wong and Fong (2016) in their study observed that the ability and willingness to utilize social media enhances e-learning. Mobile-learning is another form of e-learning where mobile technologies are used in education to facilitate learning and teaching anywhere and anytime. Mobile learning enables learners to have access to information and to communicate and socialize on the move (Sönmez, Göçmez, Uygun, & Ataizi, 2018). In addition, according to Harriman (2007), Mobile learning is a type of distance education that focuses on making learning accessible to all with the aid of mobile devices. That is, 'Mobile learning' has to do with using mobile devices to enhance teaching and learning. According to Mostakhdemin-Hosseini and Tuimala (2005), Mobile learning should not be seen as learning approach using mere wireless internet or mobile phones.

It is an evolution of e-learning, which took into consideration the challenges of previous e-learning. Mobile Learning is a type of e-learning which uses mobile technology. Mobile learning is seen as an improvement on e-learning through a mobile device and a wireless transmission. Mobile learning allows learners to learn in a non-predetermined or non-fixed place. In Mobile-learning, an individual combines the concepts of technology and mobility; it allows learners to efficiently utilize the opportunities offered by mobile technologies (Okebukola, 2009). According to Ozdamli and Cavus (2011), the basic elements required for effective usage of mobile-learning for teaching and learning process are the students, teachers, environment, content and assessment. These elements are mutually linked and each of them has an influence on final outcome of mobile learning. Like any other learning process, students are at the center of all activities of mobile learning. As such, the success depends greatly on learner's readiness,

interests, skills, experiences and needs. The use of mobile learning allows students to take responsibility and have more control over their learning. In other words, it allows learners to be accountable for their learning. It should be noted that the use of mobile learning requires some prior high experience in technology. With such experience, learners become more confident, ready, comfortable and able to use mobile technology for learning activities. Mobile learning is not entirely new in Nigeria; it has existed, in one form or the other, since early 2000s. The introduction of personal computer has increased students' and teachers' usage of electronic devices for teaching and learning processes. As technology improves, more portable mobile devices become popular. Thus, students can now read presentations, watch instructional video, interact with other students via internet, have access to multiple choice quizzes on their mobile phones/tablets, or even engage in on-line open courses with thousands of other participants across the globe while learning.

Methodology

This study employed a quantitative research approach using descriptive survey to ascertain 'Learners' Awareness and Perception of Mobile-Learning Apps' as E-learning platform among Science and Mathematics Distance Learners in South-West Nigeria. The population of the study was made up of Science and Mathematics students at Distance Learning Institute (DLI), University of Lagos, National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) and Distance Learning Centre, University of Ibadan (DLC). The sample for the study was selected using Purposive sampling technique because the research involved only Science and Mathematics Learners. Two hundred and eighty (280) learners were involved in the study. The data were collected through questionnaires, with 4-point Likert scale. The questionnaires were validated by experts in the Mathematics Unit,

Science Education Department, at the Distance Learning Institute – University of Lagos. To determine the reliability of the instrument, test-retest method was employed and reliability coefficient of 0.81 was obtained. Three hundred copies of the questionnaire were distributed in the three institutions involved in the study (100 copies per school), but only 280 were duly filled and returned. A mean value of 2.5 was agreed upon by the respondents, which is criterion mean value for a four-point Likert scale. The data were analysed through descriptive statistics; mean, percentages and standard deviation. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23 was employed in analysing the data.

Research Findings

Research Question 1

What is the level of awareness of Distance learners on the use of Mobile Learning Apps as e-learning platform?

Table 1: Respondents’ awareness of Mobile Learning Applications

SN	Statements	SA	A	SD	D	MEAN	STD	Remarks
1	I have customised Mobile Learning Apps in my school.	45 (16.07%)	50 (17.86%)	120 (42.86%)	65 (23.21%)	2.2679	.99264	Disagree
2	I use Mobile Learning Applications in the course of my study.	35 (12.50%)	55 (19.64%)	105 (37.5%)	85 (30.36%)	2.1429	.99152	Disagree
3	I use Research-related Apps (e.g. You Tube, Good-Read, Aldiko, iBooks etc).	56 (20.00%)	45 (16.07%)	102 (36.43%)	77 (27.5%)	2.2786	1.07808	Disagree
4	I use Dictionary and Encyclopedia Apps (e.g. Ted App, Wikipedia, Meriam-Webster	70 (25.00%)	40 (14.29%)	90 (32.14%)	80 (28.57%)	2.3536	1.13907	Disagree

	Dictionary, Oxford Dictionary of English etc.)							
5	I use Quiz and News Apps (e.g. Remind App, Quizlet etc.)	67 (23.93%)	45 (16.07%)	105 (37.50%)	63 (22.5%)	2.3786	1.11341	Disagree
6	I use Course-Related and Digital Notes-Related Apps (e.g. Unilag-DLI App, Noun mobile app, Coursera, linkedIn-learning, Udemy, Amazon-kindle, Study-blue, Lynda, Goodread etc.)	60 (21.43%)	35 (12.50%)	98 (35.00%)	87 (31.07%)	2.2107	1.10484	Disagree
7	I use Language learning and Online-Course Apps (e.g. Doulingo, Studious, Khan-Academy etc.)	66 (23.57%)	45 (16.07%)	110 (39.29%)	59 (21.07%)	2.3429	1.09918	Disagree
8	I use Science related Helpful Apps (e.g. PhotoMath, Solo-Learn, Wolfram-Alpha, Brain Gym, Lumosity, Learn on the go, Studomat etc.)	70 (25.00%)	33 (11.79%)	102 (36.43%)	75 (26.79%)	2.3536	1.12641	Disagree
9	I use Applications for accessing Learning Management Systems, Materials and PDF documents readers (e.g. Moodle Drop box, FileApp Pro, Scribd, Adobe Reader, Foxit Reader, Prestigio Reader etc.)	67 (23.93%)	40 (14.29%)	100 (35.71%)	73 (26.07%)	2.3571	1.11086	Disagree
Grand mean						2.298		

As can be seen in table 1, the mean responses were in disagreement with all the nine (9) items. The mean ranged from 2.149 to 2.379; the overall mean was 2.298, with standard deviation of 1.1018. This shows that learners were not adequately informed about the use of mobile Apps as e-learning platform. This suggests that most of the learners were not well informed about the use of mobile learning Apps as e-learning platform. This finding is in line with the observation by Alzaza and Yaakub (2011b) who also found that students in higher education were not aware of mobile learning apps.

Research Question 2

What is the attitude of distance learners towards Mobile Learning Applications usage as e-learning platforms?

Table 2: Distance learners’ attitude towards Mobile Learning Applications

SN	Items	SA	A	D	SD	MEAN	STD	Remarks
1	Using mobile learning Apps will consume my data	103 (36.79%)	67 (23.93%)	46 (16.43%)	64 (22.86%)	2.7464	1.17775	Agree
2	I preferred face to face teaching than any learning Apps	120 (42.86%)	49 (17.50%)	50 (17.86%)	61 (21.79%)	2.8143	1.20385	Agree
3	The use of these Apps required specialized training	102 (36.43%)	73 (26.07%)	62 (22.14%)	43 (15.36%)	2.8393	1.08057	Agree
4	I do not have enough time to start going through any Apps	88 (31.43%)	90 (32.14%)	71 (25.36%)	31 (11.07%)	2.8286	.99059	Agree
5	I do not have enough skill to operate most of these mobile garget	80 (28.57%)	96 (34.29%)	56 (20.00%)	48 (17.14%)	2.7929	.99097	Agree

Grand Mean

2.7429

As can be seen in table 2, the mean responses of the respondents were in agreement with all the five (5) items. The mean ranged from 2.7464 to 2.8393; the overall mean was 2.7429, with standard deviation of 1.05322. This shows that most learners had ill attitude towards usage of mobile learning Apps as e-learning platform. This finding therefore, emphasised the importance of being technology savvy as proposed by Makoe (2010). Makoe argued that prior experience with technology is essential for mobile learning.

Research Question 3

What is the perception of Distance learners on the usage of Mobile Learning Apps as e-learning platform?

Table 3: Respondents' perception about the use Mobile Learning Applications as e-learning platforms

SN	Statements	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	STD	Remarks
1	I am comfortable with the idea of interacting with my Facilitators via Mobile Learning Applications.	80 (28.6%)--	90 (32.1%)	47 (16.8%)	63 (22.5%)	2.6679	1.11701	Agree
2	Accessing my course materials, quiz etc. via Mobile Learning Applications is beneficial to my learning.	58 (20.7%)	100 (35.7%)	60 (21.4%)	62 (22.1%)	2.8107	1.02473	Agree
3	Using Mobile Learning Applications is easy and very effective for online interaction	89 (31.78%)	80 (28.6%)	66 (23.6%)	45 (16.1%)	2.7571	1.06674	Agree
4	Mobile Learning Applications have great impact on and can improve educational efficiency in Tertiary Institutions.	100 (35.7%)	60 (21.4%)	56 (20%)	64 (22.8%)	2.7036	1.17378	Agree
4	Mobile Learning Applications can motivates learners to learn more as it encourages Students-center	86	96	70	28	2.7214	1.17359	Agree

	Teaching and Learning method.	(30.7%)	(34.3%)	(25%)	(10%)				
6	Mobile Learning Applications should be recommended for Teaching and Learning in Distance Learning Institutions.	102 (36.4%)	60 (21.4%)	56 (20%)	62 (22.1%)	2.7464	1.02827		Agree
7	Current traditional learning systems like face-to-face is not better than M-Learning if properly handled	87 (31.1%)	67 (23.9%)	85 (30.4%)	41 (14.6%)	2.7679	1.09726		Agree
8	Mobile Learning Applications makes it easy to communicate with my courses mates and my facilitators if I have the necessary support to use it	100 (35.8%)	56 (20%)	80 (28.5%)	44 (15.7%)	2.876	1.0986		Agree

Grand Mean

2.7562

In table 3, the mean responses of the respondents were in agreement with all the eight (8) items. The mean ranged from 2.7464 to 2.8393; the overall mean was 2.7429 with standard deviation of 1.05322. This shows that most learners perceived the use of mobile learning Apps as e-learning platforms can enhance learning process of Distance Learning programmes. This finding is in line with the observation by Elkaseh *et al.* (2016) who observed that learners perceived the uses of social media can enhance e-learning.

Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

The current study is not the only one investigated the use of Mobile Apps on learning. Scholars such as Mao (2014) did the same. Mao, for instance, found that most undergraduate students (74%) were satisfied with mobile learning, especially for quick problem-solving. Maos' finding is arguably relative similar to the findings of the current study. In this study, the majority of learners perceived that the use of Mobile Learning Apps as e-learning platforms can enhance learning process. Despite such positive perception of learners, it is clear in this study

that most learners were not adequately informed about the use of mobile Apps as e-learning platforms. Most learners had negative attitude towards the use of mobile learning Apps as e-learning platforms. This is arguably relative similar to Christensen, Anakwe, and Kessler (2001) observation. In their study, they discovered that learners had poor attitude and perception towards the usage of technologies in ODL. Scholars argue that inability of teachers to develop the necessary skills to adopt a positive attitude and to develop the needed pedagogy is the major issue that affect distance learning (Niederhauser & Stoddart 2001). However, this study argues that attitudes and perceptions towards the use of Mobile Apps in learning have great influence towards successful modern distance learning programmes (Elkaseh *et al.*, 2016).

Based on the findings, the following are the recommendations of this study:

- i) Distance learning institutions should use different medium to sensitize learners on the benefits of the use of mobile learning Apps.
- ii) Learners should be properly guided on how to easily make use of different Mobile Learning Apps as this can encourage them to be fully integrated into the on-line learning platforms.
- iii) Since the study covered only ODL institutions in South West Nigeria, the study can be replicated in other Geopolitical Zones of the Country.
- iv) Efficacy of mobile learning Apps can be tested among ODL learners in the Country.

References

- Adeniran, S. A (2011). *Effects of two problem-solving approaches on senior school students' performance in physics in Kwara State, Nigeria*. (PhD thesis University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria).
- Alzaza, N.S. & Yaakub A. R. (2011a). Mobile information prototype (SMIP) for the higher education environment. *American Journal of Economics and Business Administration*, 3(1), 81-86.
- Alzaza, N. S. & Yaakub, A. R. (2011b). Students' awareness and requirement of mobile learning services in the higher education environment. *American Journal of Economics and Business Administration*, 3(1), 95-100
- Belanger, F. & Jordan, D.H. (2000). *Evaluation and implementation of distance learning: Technologies, tools and techniques*. Hershey, PA: IGI
- Casarotti, M., Filliponi, L., Pieti, L. & Sartori, R. (2002). Educational interaction in distance learning: Analysis of one-way video and two-way audio system. *Psychology Journal*, 1(1), 28-38
- Charland. A., & Brian L. (2011). Mobile application development: Web vs. Native: Web apps are cheaper to develop and deploy than native apps, but can they match the native user experience? *Queue*, 9(4) 20-28
- Christensen, E. W., Anakwe, U. P. & Kessler E. H. (2001). Receptivity to distance learning: the effect of technology, reputation, constraints, and learning preferences. *Journal of Research on Computing in Education*, 33(3), 263-279
- Franklin, N., Yoakam, M. & Warren, R. (1996). *Distance learning: A guidebook for system planning and implementation*. Indianapolis, IN: Indiana University.
- Hidayat, A. & Utomo, G. (2014). A Review of current studies of mobile learning. "*Journal of Educational Technology and Online Learning*" 1(1), 14-27

- Ihendinihu, U. E. (2008). Effects of guided scoring instructional strategy on the performance of secondary school students in mathematics in Abia State. (M.ED dissertation, Abia State University, Uturu).
- Iji, C.O., Emiakwu, S.O. and Utubaku, R.U. (2015). Effects of problem-based learning on senior secondary school students' achievement in trigonometry. *IOSR Journal of Mathematics*, 11(1), 1-25
- Kefer, K.J., Barchock H.K & Ngeno J.K. (2014). Effect of cooperative learning approach on students' motivation to learn Chemistry by gender. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 5(8), 91-97
- Levinson, D.L. (2005). Community colleges: A reference handbook. Santa Barbara, CA: ABC-CLIO.
- Liu, Q. & He, X. (2015). "Using mobile apps to facilitate English learning for college students in China,"
- Makoe, M. (2010). Linking mobile learning to the student-centered approach.
- Mao, C. (2014). Research on undergraduate students' usage satisfaction of mobile learning. *Creative Education*, 5, 614-618
- Mehdipour, Y. & Zerehkafi, H. (2013). Mobile learning for education: Benefits and Challenges. *International Journal of Computational Engineering*
- Mostakhdemin-Hosseini, A. & Tuimala, J. (2005). Mobile learning framework. In IADIS International Conference Mobile Learning. Qawra, Malta
- Newby, T. J., Stepich, D. A., Lehman, J. D., & Russell, J. D. (2011). *Educational technology for teaching and learning* (4th ed). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill.
- Niederhauser, D. S. & Stoddart, T. (2001). Teachers' instructional perspectives and use of technological software. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, p 15 –31

- Okebukola, P. (2009). *New initiatives on ODL and National Development*. A paper presented at 2-day Advocacy workshop on ODL in Abuja from 28-29 April, 2009
- Ozdamli, F., & Cavus, N. (2011). Basic elements and characteristics of mobile learning. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 28, 937-942
- Peters, O. (2002). *Distance education in transition, New Trends and Challenges*. Oldenburg: Carl von Ossietzky University Centre for distance education.
- Roblyer, M. D., & Edwards, J. (2000). *Integrating educational technology into teaching* (2nd ed). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill
- Sönmez, A.; Göçmez, L., Uygun, D., & Ataizi, M. (2018). A review of current studies of mobile learning. *Journal of Educational Technology and Online Learning*, 1(1), 13-27

An Analysis of the Frameworks Used to Link TVET Institutions with Labour Market Skill – Requirements. A Case of Tanzania and Two Selected Asian Tiger Nations

Hildegardis E. Bitegera¹; Elifas T. Bisanda²
bestbitegera@yahoo.co.uk¹
Open University of Tanzania

ABSTRACT

This study intended to: identify frameworks for linking TVET institutions with Labour Market skill-requirements; establish approaches for linking TVET institutions and their stakeholders from industries and informal sector; and assess the role of the linkage between TVET institutions and industries/informal sector in promoting technological skills. The study adopted mixed-methods research approach. Questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from the three selected countries. The study established that Industrial Practical Training is one of the critical frameworks for strengthening the linkages, as it provides important opportunities for teaching staff and learners to acquire practical knowledge and skills. While majority of respondents from Tanzania cited corporate activities, internships, traineeships and incubation as less effective linkage avenues, almost all respondents from the two Asian Tiger Nations found them more effective. The study recommends TVET institutions in Tanzania to enter into agreements and sign MoU with industries and SMEs prior to the commencement of each academic year. This will facilitate accommodation of placement of graduates in industries with the involvement of teachers/tutors the same way it has been carried out in the two selected Asian Tiger nations.

Key words: *Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET), frameworks, linkages, industries and informal sector, technological skills*

INTRODUCTION

Available literature (Ejiofor & Chinedu, 2018; Rawashdeh, 2019; Raihan, 2014; VETA, 2012), indicates that frameworks such as internship, industrial practical training, curriculum design and review, labour market, traineeships, incubation, memorandum of understanding, TVET research, corporate activities, play an important role in enhancing linkages between Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) institutions and industries. According to Raihan (2014), these linkages are vital to TVET institutions because of the existing demand for strong links between them and industries to improve networking between academia and industries. The linkages enhance both parties' understanding of each other's needs and create a platform for identifying ways for meeting them.

Strong linkages between TVET and industries have been associated with the Republic of Korea, Singapore and Malaysia's success in developing and implementing initiatives for developing workforces through strong collaboration and partnership between TVET and the private sector and, or industries (Rawashdeh, 2019). Therefore, for other countries' TVET to be able to meet institutional-industry needs, the existence of institutional and national legal and policy frameworks connecting TVET institutions to industries should not be underestimated. For instance, in Singapore, the Industry-TVET Partnership Policy enables TVET teachers and trainers to stay in touch with the constantly changing industry practices by upgrading their skills and knowledge. This is achieved through industrial and workplace attachment. In the Republic of Korea, the Work-Study Dual System discourages knowledge-based education; it favors strengthening practical training and the employability of students (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2020; Lee, 2018). In other words, these countries present a perfect model for identifying weaknesses of linkage between

TVET and industries that exist in other countries. Industrial Practical Training (IPT) mainly contributes to practical knowledge and skills as well as practical experiences for TVET graduates and teaching staff. As such, it improves the employability of graduates, productivity of enterprises and the inclusiveness of economic growth (ILO, 2011). However, while this framework's potential to foster the linkage of TVET institutions to industries cannot be doubted, its effectiveness in Tanzania, where an IPT Policy is unavailable, is not clear.

This highlight the need for TVET Institutions to develop strong cooperative linkages with industries in order to design and implement programmes that will meet the industry needs (Agbeyewornu & Johnson, 2015). The strong cooperative linkages with industries should encompass efforts that seek to improve various areas including enhancing traineeship, internship, incubation and apprenticeship programmes with industries. This will enhance the bridging of technological skill-gaps, graduates' employability skills, and research capacities. Overall, this will reduce the gap between workforce supply to demand through enhancing curricula and, or learning packages. A situational analysis conducted by the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) prior to development of VETA Corporate Plan IV (VCP IV), identified the existence of poor interaction between industries' experts and TVET trainers. It was observed that even cooperation in the form of joint meetings and forums industrial visits, internships and attachments as well as guest speeches from industrial experts did not exist (VETA, 2012). This further highlights the question of how TVET institutions are linked to industries to create avenues for ensuring that quality graduates are produced. Generally, this question needs answers considering the fact that without working linkages, graduates produced do not only lack skills needed by employers but also end up with limited entrepreneurial viability. This

presents Tanzania with a major challenge considering the scarcity of employment opportunities in the formal sector, which makes entrepreneurship an important livelihood alternative (Mwantimwa, Mayombwa & Sichalwe, 2019). In contrast, in Singapore and the Republic of Korea most of their TVET graduates are absorbed by formal sectors (Seng, 2012; Park, 2016). According to Korea Polytechnics [KOPO] (2015), the employment rate of TVET graduates in the Republic of Korea has been over 80% every year since 2011.

A similar but slightly higher rate has been reported in Singapore where the TVET's graduates' employment rate was 93.3% in year 2015. This has been associated with rapid industrializations in these countries. Arguably, this has lifted their Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita from US\$ 427.9 in 1965 to US\$ 101,352.6 in 2018 and from US\$ 158.2 in 1961 to US\$ 40,111.8 in 2018 (in Singapore and the Republic of Korea, respectively) (WB, 2018). In Tanzania, as in most other developing countries, the situation is quite different. This is associated with the fact that majority of the TVET graduates join the informal sector (Research on Poverty Alleviation [REPOA], 2020). On this, Lema (2014) informs that while about 700,000 Tanzanian graduates (TVET graduates inclusive) in Tanzania enter the job market annually, only 40,000 (5.7%) find jobs in the formal sectors. In the recent past, Mwantimwa et al., (2019) also highlighted an increased trend of unemployment of TVET and non-TVET graduates in the formal sector. Such a situation has been previously linked to the widening difference in the knowledge and skills provided to learners by TVET training systems, and those demanded by the labour market (Raihan, 2014). In fact, Raihan considers the collaboration and partnerships between TVET institutions and industries as an important highway for bridging such knowledge and skill gaps and enhancing the employability of TVET graduates. As such, the state of

employment of TVET graduates as highlighted earlier suggests that there are bottlenecks in the connection that exists between TVET institutions and the labour market. However, with limited knowledge existing on this topic, the whole issue remained a mystery hence prompting this study which sought to analyse how TVET is connected to industries in Tanzania and two selected Asian Tiger nations. The study focused on achieving the following specific objectives: identifying the frameworks for linking TVET institutions with labour market skill-requirements; establishing approaches for linking TVET institutions and their stakeholders from industries and informal sector; and assessing the role of the linkage between TVET institutions and industries/informal sector in promoting technological skills among TVET graduates and teaching staff.

Methodology

Research Approach and Design

In this study, a mixed-methods research approach and descriptive and exploratory-cross-sectional designs were employed. The combination of exploratory and cross sectional designs was necessary to gain deeper insights on the types of frameworks used to link TVET institutions with labour market skill-demands. In particular, the exploratory design was applied to determine if the countries under study are up to the task of facilitating TVET institutions in strengthening the linkage with industries so as to meet technological skills demanded by the labour market. The design was useful in identifying the types of frameworks for linking TVET institutions with industries. Besides, the design was also useful in determining suitable approaches for linking TVET Institutions and industries. The descriptive research design was used to determine the role of the linkage between TVET institutions and industries in promoting technological skills and linkage with informal sector of the economy.

The use of mixed-methods research approach allowed for the integration of both qualitative and quantitative aspects in carrying out this study. Generally, the quantitative aspects were used to identify frameworks used to link TVET institutions with labour market skill-requirements and types of approaches used to establish links between TVET institutions and their stakeholders from industries and informal sector of the economy. On the other hand, the qualitative aspects were used to assess the role of the linkage between TVET institutions and industries/informal sector in promoting technological skills of the graduates and TVET teaching staff as per industry technological skills requirements. The same aspects were also used to examine the role played by the informal sector in absorbing TVET graduates in the face of job opportunities scarcity in the formal sector.

Study Areas

This study was carried out in Tanzania, Republic of Korea, and Singapore. In Tanzania, the study was conducted in Dar es Salaam and Morogoro regions. In Dar es Salaam region, the study was conducted in Ilala City, Kinondoni, Ubungo and Temeke Municipalities. In Morogoro region, the study was conducted in Morogoro Municipality and Kilosa district (National Bureau of Statistics [NBS], 2014). The study involved twelve Vocational Education and Training (VET) centres and eight Technical Education and Training (TET) institutions. Out of these, twelve VET centres and six TET institutions are located in Dar es Salaam region whereas, two TET institutions are located in Morogoro region. Besides TVET institutions, the study also involved eight (8) light industries and companies located in Dar es Salaam region as well as six (6) informal workplaces and Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs), located in the same region. In the Republic of Korea, the study involved three (3) VET centres, one (1) polytechnic located in the city of Seoul and the

Korea Tech University located in the Chung Num Province about 100km away from the city of Seoul. Moreover, the study involved five (5) medium and heavy industries located in the city of Seoul and Ulsan respectively. In Singapore, the study involved Institute of Technical Education (ITE) Colleges which include: ITE College Central, ITE College East, and ITE College West. Additionally, the study involved three (3) medium and heavy industries located in the island city-state. Generally, the Republic of Korea and Singapore were involved in this study following their success story in using TVET to transform their economies; they presented a modal that would be fundamental in understanding inadequacies that exist in Tanzania's TVET system.

Study Population, Sample Size and Sampling Technique

Extant studies (e.g Amitav & Suprakash, 2010; McLeod, 2019) have revealed that there are two types of population in research. These are target population and accessible population. A target population is the entire group of individuals or objects on which researchers would like to generalize conclusions while an accessible population is the population to which the researchers can apply their conclusions. This population is a subset of the target population and is also known as the study population. It is from the accessible population that researchers draw their samples (see McLeod, 2019; Amitav & Prakash, 2010). In this study, the accessible population included groups of academic staff from Tanzania (720), from Republic of Korea (220) and from Singapore (120). Specifically, vocational teachers and tutors were the intended study population (See Table 1). These were identified from an accessible population of 1,060 academic staff from TVET institutions of three selected countries. Another accessible population included a group of 24 key informants, taking the study population to

1,084. These were TVET stakeholders selected purposively from Tanzania (14), Republic of Korea (6) and Singapore (4), (See Table 1).

Table 3: Study Population

S/ N	Study Area	Population Category				Total
		Vocational Teachers	Tutors	SUB-TOTAL	TVET Stakeholders	
1.	Tanzania	440	280	720	14	734
2.	Republic of Korea	-	220	220	6	226
3.	Singapore	-	120	120	4	124
	Total	440	620	1,060	24	1,084

Source: Field Data

Based on the individual countries' populations, an applicable sample size was drawn from each by adopting a proportional allocation method. Through this method, the sample sizes for the different strata i.e. 36 respondents (Tanzania), 11 respondents (Republic of Korea) and 6 respondents (Singapore) were obtained as a rationale for a total sample of 53 respondents (See Table 2). After determining the number of respondents to be involved from individual countries, the researcher used the same method (proportional allocation method) to determine corresponding samples for vocational teachers (22) from Tanzania and tutors categories i.e. 14 tutors (Tanzania), 11 tutors (Republic of Korea) and 6 tutors (Singapore) respectively. In selecting institutions to be involved in this study, all institutions (Technical

Institutions, VET Centres, Public Vocational Schools, Polytechnics, Korea TECH and ITE Colleges) from Tanzania, Republic of Korea and Singapore were listed down. Within the list, the institutions were stratified based on their location (Dar es Salaam and Morogoro; Seoul and Chung Nam Province; as well as ITE Colleges: Central, West and East), and then their types so as to form strata to ensure that a representative sample was drawn. After this, 28 institutions were selected based on their enrolment sizes; the emphasis was on those with huge annual enrolment, which was considered a good sign of an institution's experience with producing graduates.

To identify sample units, a list of long serving tutors and vocational teachers of technical and hospitality programmes was obtained from Principals of the twenty (20) TVET institutions in Tanzania, and from the Korea Chamber of Commerce and Industry (KCCI) for the five (5) TVET institutions in the Republic of Korea and from the Institute of Technical Education (ITE) Services for the three (3) TVET institutions in Singapore. Thereafter, simple random sampling technique was used to select a sample of 53 respondents; 5% of the target population (1,060) which was considered sufficient to provide quantitative data (Lund Research Ltd [LRL], 2012; Hayes, 2014; Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2003). See Table 2 details. The return or response rate was 100 percent. In this regard, therefore, 53 respondents responded to the questionnaire and participated in the study. Additionally, the researcher purposively selected twenty four (24) key informants who represented various TVET stakeholders, namely: experts from selected industries (16) out of which, eight (8) were from Tanzania, five (5) from Republic of Korea and three (3) from Singapore (see Table 2). Out of the other eight (8) key informants, six (6) were from Tanzania, one (1) was from the Republic of Korea and another one (1) was from Singapore. All of them were purposively selected from informal

workplaces and SMEs. Therefore, the study involved a total of 77 participants.

Table 4: Summary of Respondents Selected in the Study by Different Categories

S/ N	Category of Respondents	Tanzania	Rep. of Korea	Singapore	Total	Perc.
1.	Vocational Teachers	22	0	0	22	28.6
2.	Tutors	14	11	6	31	40.2
	Sub – Total	36	11	6	53	68.8
3.	Respondents from Medium and Heavy Industries and Companies	8	5	3	16	20.8
4.	Informal Workplaces Operators and SMEs	6	1	1	8	10.4
	Sub – Total	14	6	4	24	31.2
	Grand Total	50	17	10	77	100

Source: Field Data

Data Collection Methods

The study employed a combination of methods including semi-structured interviews and questionnaires. Quantitative data were collected from 53 respondents, out of which 36 were vocational teachers and tutors from Tanzania, 11 tutors from Republic of Korea and 6 tutors from Singapore (See Table 2). Questionnaire items that consisted of closed-ended questions were used. The major attraction to closed-ended questions lies on the fact that they provided a greater uniformity of responses and are more easily processed than open-ended questions. On the other hand, qualitative data were collected from 16 respondents residing from medium and heavy industries and

companies from the three selected countries, as well as from 8 respondents who reside from informal workplaces in the same countries (See Table 2). Semi-structured interviews were used. Semi-structured interview method was chosen due to its flexibility nature – it allowed for probing, as well as arrangement of questions which helped to find reliable information. Through this method, a set of predetermined questions and a highly standardized technique of recording information were used (Kothari, 2014).

Data Analysis

A Statistical Product for Service Solutions (IBM SPSS) version 22 was used to analyse quantitative data. This software was used to generate descriptive statistical outputs. Quantitative data were organized and classified into meaningful categories that were assigned codes to assist in their analysis. The statistical analysis included both manual and computer analysis. Raw data were edited, classified, assigned numbers through IBM SPSS during the design of the data entry template. On the other hand, thematic analysis was used to analyse qualitative data. The results of the analysis have been presented using tables. The researcher used informative qualitative responses as quotations to support the results presented. All scores of vocational teachers and tutors were converted to percentages so as to generate meaningful comparisons and enable the interpretation of results.

Findings and Discussion

Response Rate

A total of 53 questionnaires were administered to 36, 11, and 6 respondents from Tanzania, Republic of Korea and Singapore respectively (See Table 3). These questionnaires were formed with closed-ended questions. In fact, all questionnaires were completed and

returned successfully, giving a 100% response rate. The number of data collection tools used in each country corresponded with the numbers of respondents targeted in each particular country. Table 2 and Table 3 show the composition of respondents based on countries where the study was carried out.

Table 5: Respondents by Country

Category of Respondents (n=53)	Tanzania	Republic of Korea	Singapore	Total
Vocational Teachers	22	0	0	22
Tutors	14	11	6	31
Sub – Total	36 (68.0%)	11 (20.7%)	6 (11.3%)	53 (100%)

Source: Field Data

Table 3 shows that Tanzania contributed majority of respondents (68.0%) compared to the other two countries. This is basically because of the sizes of the targeted population found in each country at the time of the study. It is argued here that the composition of respondents suggests optimum representations of the target population in the three individual countries where this study was carried out.

Frameworks for Linking TVET Institutions with Labor Market Skill-Requirements

The linkages of TVET institutions and industries depend on different frameworks and avenues in place. A question on kinds of frameworks that foster the linkage of TVET institutions and industries/informal sector was quite important for this study. Therefore, TVET teaching

staff from all three countries were asked to cite the kinds of frameworks used to establish and strengthen linkages between their institutions and industries/informal sector they work with. The results out of this investigation are presented in Table 4:

Table 6: Frameworks for Linking TVET Institutions with Labour Market Skill-Requirements

Frameworks for the Tanzania (n=36)	Rep. of Korea (n=11)	Singapore (n=6)	Total	
Policy and Legal Framework	18 (50.0%)	10(90.9%)	5(83.3%)	33 (62.3%)
Internship of graduates	10(27.8%)	9(81.8%)	6(100%)	25 (47.2%)
Industrial Practical Training	30(83.3%)	11(100%)	6(100%)	47 (88.7%)
TVET Research	15(41.7%)	8(72.7%)	4(66.7%)	27 (50.9%)
Curriculum design and review	25(69.4%)	11(100%)	5(83.3%)	41 (77.4%)
Incubation	05(13.9%)	8(72.7%)	4(66.7%)	17 (32.1%)
Traineeships	05(13.9%)	10(90.9%)	5(83.3%)	20 (37.7%)
Industrial and Institutional Boards	20(55.6%)	9(81.8%)	6(100%)	35 (66.0%)
Corporate Activities	08(22.2%)	9(81.8%)	5(83.3%)	22 (41.5%)
Labour Market	28(77.8%)	11(100%)	6(100%)	45 (84.9%)
Memorandum of Understanding	22(61.1%)	8(72.7%)	4(66.7%)	34 (64.2%)

Source: Field Data

Based on the results, there are several frameworks for linking TVET institutions and industries/informal sector. However, the results show that Industrial Practical Training (IPT) is one of the important frameworks that foster the linkage of TVET institutions and their stakeholders from industries as mentioned by 47 (88.7%) respondents. Apart from that, 45 (84.9%) respondents indicated labour market as an

important framework for linking TVET institutions and their stakeholders from industries. The results further show that 41 (77.4%) of the respondents indicate curriculum design and review processes, 35 (66%) cited industrial and institutional boards, and 34 (64.2%) mentioned Memorandum of Understanding (MoUs). Other 33 (62.3%) respondents identified legal and policy frameworks as valuable mechanisms for linking TVET institutions and their stakeholders from industries. These mechanisms appear to be common in all the three countries that participated in the study. The availability of diverse frameworks for linkage was further backed up by the data from interviews with one of the key informants from the Electronic Development Company in Republic of Korea. This participant stated that:

The linkages with stakeholders are through practical training, job markets, boards, curriculum design and reviews, as well as workshops and trade fairs.

Further interviews with various participants from the three study countries showed that Internships of graduates, TVET research, incubation, traineeships and corporate activities, are more effectively used as linkage avenues in Republic of Korea and Singapore than in Tanzania. Besides, the results show that 27 (50.9%) of the respondents indicated that TVET institutions are linked with stakeholders through research. This suggests that surveys conducted by TVET institutions in the selected three countries are important in the establishment and strengthening of linkages with their stakeholders from industries. Furthermore, the results reveal that internship of graduates is another approach for linking the two as noted by 25 (47.7%) respondents. This study informs that internship of graduates was moderately used (specifically in Tanzania) to forge a linkage between TVET institutions and their stakeholders. On the same note, the results show that 22

(41.5%) of the respondents cited corporate activities, 20 (37.7%) indicated traineeship, and 17 (32.1%) mentioned incubation as moderately used avenues for linking TVET institutions and their stakeholders. In this study, the majority of respondents from Tanzania cited corporate activities, traineeships and incubation as less effectively used as linkage avenues. This is different from responses from the two Asian Tiger nations, where almost all respondents found them more effective. Regarding research activities, respondents noted that research initiatives among TVET institutions in Tanzania are insufficient. This is associated with poor investments made in this area. This further suggests that limited funds put aside for research activities for TVET institutions in Tanzania is a challenge. Based on the findings of this study, one would argue that IPT provides important opportunities for teaching staff and learners to acquire practical knowledge and skills from formal and informal sectors. This finding is in connection with the findings of other studies (Raihan, 2014; Choy & Haukka, 2018) which noted that field attachment is a potential avenue for enhancing such linkages. It enhances confidence in the one's ability to apply technological knowledge and skills.

It is clear in this study that majority of respondents are familiar with the frameworks that connect them with their stakeholders; they mentioned several of them. This is not a new phenomenon; other studies (Rawashdeh, 2019; Raihan, 2014) have also noted diverse frameworks for linking TVET institutions and stakeholders from industries and informal sectors of the economy. The absence of close linkages between TVET institutions and their stakeholders would adversely affect TVET delivery. Regarding existing boards, it is clear in this study, both industrial and institutional boards are made of stakeholders from different sectors and organizations. The stakeholders' involvement in these boards nurtures common

understanding and viable decision making. Furthermore, it is argued here that agreements through MoUs tend to strengthen the linkages. For instance, when industries and TVET institutions enter into agreement (MoU) to accomplish joint activities or projects, they tend to increase commitment, accountability, and transparency on agreed projects or activities. Studies suggest that MoU is an important tool for fostering linkages between education system and business enterprises (Elkins, Krzeminski, & Nink, 2012). Institutional and national legal and policy framework provide guidance and speed up the implementation of various activities (Elkins et al., 2012). The use of these approaches has been noticed in all the three countries involved in the study, though the level of implementation of these approaches differs. For instance, in the Republic of Korea and Singapore there is a systematic approach in training which, among others, accommodates placement of graduates in industries with the involvement of teachers/tutors. This results into imparting the right knowledge and skills to TVET graduates.

The training centres, colleges and polytechnics in the Republic of Korea and Singapore do sign MoUs with industries prior to the commencement of each academic year. However, the approach is not implemented this way in Tanzania. Other frameworks (internship of graduates – 47.7%, corporate activities – 41.5%, traineeship – 37.7%, and incubation – 32.1%) are moderately used to link TVET institutions and stakeholders from industries in Tanzania. This suggests that a few organizations and industries provide opportunities for graduates to participate in incubation, internship and traineeship in Tanzania. This is different from the two selected Asian Tiger nations, where these frameworks are optimally used. On these, numerous scholars (see for example, Gault, Redington & Schlager, 2000; Hiniker & Putnam, 2009) support that traineeship, incubation, and internship provide avenues

for strengthening linkages between TVET institutions and business enterprises. The authors added that internship, traineeship and incubation expose learners to industrial technology and business environments. Hence, it is suggested that Tanzania needs to optimally use these frameworks to improve linkages between TVET institutions and industries.

Approaches for Linking TVET Institutions and their Stakeholders from Industries and Informal Sector

To increase understanding on how TVET institutions link themselves with their stakeholders, TVET teaching staff were asked to identify types of approaches used to establish links between their institutions and stakeholders. Their responses are summarized in Table 5:

Table 7: Approaches for Linking TVET Institutions with their Stakeholders

Approaches (n = 53)	Freq	%
The linkages are through workshops and seminars	39	73.6
TVET institutions invite industrialists during graduation ceremonies	31	58.5
Sharing labor market information and data through different media	28	52.8
Using industrial visits to initiate partnerships and collaborations	24	45.3
Using trade fairs to link institution with industries	24	45.3
Experts from the industry (demand side) visit TVET Institutions as guest speakers	22	41.5
Using Public Private Partnership (PPP) instrument to strengthening linkages	21	39.6
Organization of study fairs where industrialists are invited	19	35.8
Invitation of top management from industries for round table discussions on various issues	17	32.0

Source: Field Data

The results in Table 5 show that 39 (73.6%) of the respondents indicated that workshops and seminars are important approaches for linking TVET institutions and their stakeholders. This informs that majority of the respondents recognize workshops and seminars as important avenues for linking TVET institutions with stakeholders. Apart from that, 31 (58.5%) of the surveyed teaching staff noted that the linkage is established through invitations of industrialists during graduation ceremonies. Moreover, 28 (52.8%) of the respondents under study said that sharing labor market information and data through different media promotes the linkage of the two. These were followed by 24 (45.3%) who said that industrial visits and trade fairs are important avenues for initiating and promoting partnerships and collaborations between TVET institutions and their stakeholders.

On the same note, 22 (41.5%) respondents indicated that visits paid to TVET institutions by experts from industries as guest speakers are exploited to establish such linkages. Based on the available data, tutors and vocational teachers from Tanzania noted that experts from the industry occasionally visit TVET institutions as guest speakers to expose students and TVET teaching staff to new and emerging technologies. Likewise, TVET teaching staff members seldom pay visits to different industries and enterprises for the same purpose. This tendency undermines voluntary acceptance of TVET graduates directly at workplaces. As seen in the data (Table 5), 21(39.6%) respondents mentioned Public Private Partnership instrument as an approach for linking TVET institutions with their stakeholders while 19 (35.8%) identified study fairs. These findings appear to suggest that PPP and study fairs are moderately used to promote linkages. Apart from that, the results show that 17 (32.0%) indicated the invitation of

top management personnel from various industries to TVET institutions for round table discussions on various issues as an approach used to enhance the linkages. In a general view, Table 5 shows that approaches for linking TVET institutions and their stakeholders are diverse. This means workshops, meetings, and seminars, among others, are the approaches used to connect TVET institutions with their stakeholders, as testified by majority (73.6%) of surveyed teaching staff. Similarly, industries in Tanzania participate in designing and reviewing learning packages and, or curricula through workshops, meetings and seminars organized by TVET institutions. The data have also shown that stakeholders' participation in graduation ceremonies and study fairs strengthen the linkages of TVET institutions and their stakeholders as indicated by 58.8% of respondents. Also, it is suggested that institutional and industrial boards meetings are important in the processes of designing and reviewing curricula and learning packages and the overall linking TVET institutions and industries.

Besides, the number of industries participating in workshops, meetings and seminars organized by TVET institutions is limited, hence limiting their participation in the process of designing and reviewing learning packages. Notwithstanding this deficiency, Terblanche (2017) informs that such reviews have the potential to contribute in various ways to the employability, productivity, and success rates of TVET graduates. On top of that, Eddington and Eddington (2010) reported that TVET systems' capacity is created through linkages established through engagement, collaboration and partnership. These platforms appear to provide TVET staff with opportunities to share labour market information and knowledge on types of technology, innovation, and competencies required, hence enabling them to understand issues pertaining to the development of

their institutions, and formal and informal sectors. The findings of the current study are in line with what was reported by Raihan (2014) who also suggested that adequate collaboration between TVET institutions and industries leads to the provision of relevant practical skills for industrialization. This argument is in line with Grollmann and Hoppe (2009) who support that engagement and partnerships in the promotion of TVET system boost efficiency and competitiveness of technical and vocational education and training. However, on a different note, while institutional visits of industrial experts as guest speakers are common in Republic of Korea and Singapore, the practice is rare in Tanzania. The same is true for TVET staff's visits to industries and other business enterprises, as well as informal sectors. Based on the findings, it is argued here that approaches for linking TVET institutions and their stakeholders depend on the frameworks available to regulate the linkages, collaboration and partnerships.

Role of the Linkage between TVET Institutions and Industries/Informal Sector in Promoting Technological Skills

Respondents from selected industries and informal workplaces were asked to indicate the role of the linkages that exist between their industries/informal workplaces and TVET institutions in matching graduate and teaching staff's technological skills with their skill demands. The data suggest that the linkages enhance technological skills acquisition among TVET graduates and teaching staff. On this issue, one key informant said:

The linkage between industries and TVET institutions enhances the process of designing and reviewing TVET curricula and learning packages. The linkages also enable the strengthening of access to diverse technological information, innovation and knowledge.

Through these linkages, one would argue that TVET institutions are able to obtain inputs for inclusion into their curricula and learning packages. As such, these findings support the argument by Ejiofor and Chinedu (2018), who highlighted the importance of fully involving stakeholders during Learning Packages (LPs) and TVET curriculum development processes to ensure that the skills focused on by TVET institutions are those needed by industries. Similarly, Kawar (2011) argued that connecting TVET institutions' skills development to the world of work increases the chances of ensuring that the skills in demand in the ever evolving labour markets of different economic sectors and industries are the ones focused on by TVET institutions. The findings show that, with these linkages, TVET teaching staff and graduates have a better chance to be equipped with knowledge and skills needed to promote locally made products. Generally, in this study, the respondents thought that linkages between TVET institutions and the informal sector enhance capacity building in terms of confidence, employment and learning opportunities. This reflects what Choy et al., (2018) noted. The researchers found that Industrial Practical Training (IPT) enhances one's confidence in their ability to transform theoretical knowledge into practice. In a similar view, one key informant noted:

The linkage between TVET institutions and our sector provides important avenues for TVET graduates to practically learn from the real world of work. As a result, graduates acquire entrepreneurial knowledge and skills which encourage them to establish their own business start-ups - Woodwork business owner, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

On the same note, another key informant (a VET graduate) said:

TVET graduates must practice all what has been taught to them in classes and in workshops at workplaces. Tutors and or vocational teachers also need to be exposed to live production

and maintenance work at workplaces. This will let them cope with changes that come with new and emerging technologies. On the other hand, training institutions should accommodate data from workplaces for preparing and/or reviewing learning package and curricula. All these are possible if TVET institutions are linked to.

One respondent working in one visited workplace located in the Island City State, Singapore, indicated that: *“some workplace workshops are used as incubation centres which in turn, are used by TVET graduates to acquaint themselves with technologies through hands-on practices and entrepreneurial aspects”*. In other words, these centers are used to provide graduates with skills so as to cover skills shortages caused by lack of facilities at TVET institutions. This role of such centers was noted in Tanzania where respondents confirmed it. For instance one key informant said:

Sometimes we have exchange programmes through which TVET trainees and students are required to come to various workplaces to perform their practical sessions using facilities that are not available at their TVET institutions - VET graduate, Dar es Salaam.

These narrations indicate the importance of linkages between TVET institutions and stakeholders from industries and informal sector. In general, the quotations indicate that through these relationships, institutions are able to equip their learners with skills that would otherwise be difficult to equip due to lack facilities. With the availability of sophisticated and modern machinery in various workplaces, students get to learn through practice as Plate 1 shows.

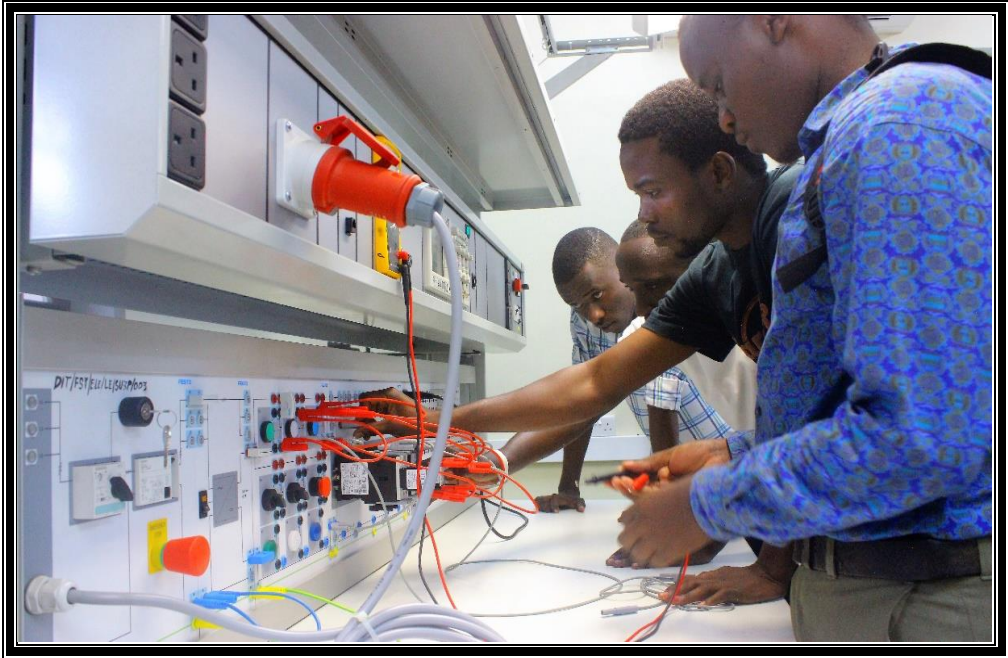


Plate 1: Students from one of the TET Institutions in Dar es Salaam learning during a practical session at SilAfrica Tanzania Ltd in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania

Source: Field data

The data obtained by this study also show that, through engaging in practical activities in the formal and informal sector, students learn to become flexible so as to abide by work ethics and adapt to work environments. This is associated with the fact that learning by doing harmonizes theoretical and practical knowledge, thus providing important avenues for TVET graduates to learn from the practical world of work and prepare them for life after graduation.

Conclusions

On the whole, the Industrial Practical Training (IPT) is one of the important frameworks that foster the linkage of TVET institutions and their stakeholders. This, among other frameworks, provides important opportunities for teaching staff and learners to acquire practical

knowledge and skills from formal and informal sectors. However, frameworks such as internships of graduates, TVET research, incubation, traineeships and corporate activities are more effectively used as linkage avenues in Republic of Korea and Singapore than in Tanzania. This can be attributed to the absence of an IPT policy in the country which results in few organizations and industries providing opportunities for graduates to participate in incubation, internship and traineeship in Tanzania. Notwithstanding this deficiency, TVET institutions in Tanzania use workshops, meetings and seminars as linkage avenues through which industries participate in designing and reviewing learning packages and, or curricula. However, the number of industries participating in such platforms is limited, hence undermining the quality and relevance of TVET Learning Packages (LPs) and curricula. Despite that, the availability of exchange programmes for TVET trainees and students at various informal workplaces to perform their practical sessions using facilities that are not available at their TVET institutions, confirm the importance of linkages.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, it is recommended to the government of Tanzania that a dialog should be initiated with organizations and industries on the need to provide graduates with opportunities to participate in incubation, internship and traineeship. This will improve graduates' acquisition of relevant technological skills. Regarding TVET research, the government is advised to allocate adequate funds for TVET institutions' research activities so as to improve the quality of LPs and, or curricula. This can contribute to the adoption of modern industrial technologies and integration of new competencies. TVET institutions should encourage their stakeholders to fully participate in workshops, meetings and

seminars organized by them, so as to improve the quality and relevance of TVET LPs and, or curricular. Also, TVET institutions should enter into agreements and sign MoU with industries and SMEs prior to the commencement of each academic year. This will probably facilitate the placement of graduates in industries, with the involvement of teachers and tutors as carried out in the two Asian Tiger nations. In addition, to enhance graduates' IPT opportunities, an IPT Policy should be established and streamlined in the country's education system to compel industries to fully participate in IPT training of teaching staff and students.

Acknowledgement

We would like to acknowledge all those who contributed to the accomplishment of this study. Specifically, we wish to acknowledge the financial support provided by the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA), which enabled the authors to accomplish this study. The support rendered by the governments of Republic of Korea and Singapore is also acknowledged.

References

- Agbeyewornu, K. K., & Johnson, K. K. (2015). Challenges of Technical and Vocational Education and Training and Education Stakeholders in the Volta Region of Ghana. *International Journal of Humanities, Social Sciences and Education (IJHSSE)*, 2(6), 70-79.
- Amitav, B. & Suprakash, C. (2010). Statistics without tears: Populations and samples. *Industrial Psychiatry Journal*, 19(1), 60-65.
- Carsrud, A. L. & Brannback, M. (2009). *Understanding the entrepreneurial mind - Opening the black box*. London: Springer Dordrecht Heidelberg.
- Choy, S., & Haukka, S. (2018). *Industrial attachments for instructors in TVET delivery*. TVET Chapter Draft. Queensland University of Technology.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2003). *Research methods in education*. 5th Ed. London: Croomhelm.
- Eddington, N., & Eddington, I. (2010). Methods and instruments for the evaluation and monitoring of VET Systems. *SKOPE Research Paper No.98*, University of Southern Queensland.
- Ejiofor, T. E., & Chinedu, A.C. (2018). *Linking TVET institutions and industries for national development: Challenges and strategies in Nigeria*. University of Nigeria,
- Nsukka: Department of Agricultural Education. Retrieved July 02, 2020, from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/328630288_linking_tvete_institutions_and_industries_for_national_development_challenges_and_strategies_in_nigeria
- Elkins, J., Krzeminski, C. & Nink, C. (2012). Labour market analysis leads to demand-driven TVET programs. Management & Training Corporation, USA.

- Gault, J., Redington, J. & Schlager, T. (2000). Undergraduate business internships and career success: Are they related? *Journal of Marketing Education*, 22(1), 45-53.
- Grollman, P. & Hoppe, M. (2009). Methods and instruments for the evaluation and monitoring of VET - systems. *Conference Proceedings, Germany, Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung*.
- Hayes, A. (2014). *Stratified random sampling*. University of Wisconsin-Madison.
- Hiniker, L., & Putnam, A. (2009). Partnering to meet the needs of a changing workplace. In: Maclean, R., Wilson, D. (Eds), *International handbook of education for the changing world of work*, Dordrecht: Springer.
- International Labour Organization [ILO]. (2011). *Skills for employment: formulating a national policy on skills development*. Geneva, Switzerland: International Labour Office.
- Kawar, M. (2011). Skills development for job creation: Economic growth and poverty reduction. *Doha forum on decent work and poverty reduction*. 25-26 October, 2011 Doha, Qatar.
- Korea Polytechnics [KOPO]. (2015). *Global vocational education and training: Take your first step towards a fulfilling, lifelong career in technology*. Korea Polytechnics.
- Kothari, C. R. (2014). *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Delhi: Wiley Eastern.
- Lee, N. (2018). Industry-TVET partnership and Korea's sustainable development. *International TVET Conference, 03-04 May, 2018. Islamabad, Pakistan: Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education and Training (KRIVET), Korea*.
- Lema, L.E. (2014). *Examining challenges facing graduate job seekers: A case of Dar es Salaam*. MA Dissertation, Mzumbe University.

- Lund Research Ltd [LRL]. (2012). *Choose your sample size*. Retrieved October 20, 2020, from <http://dissertation.laerd.com/stratified-random-sampling.php#step5>
- Mayombya, J. E., Mwantimwa, K., & Sichalwe, E. N. (2019). *Entrepreneurial opportunities: A roadmap for diversifying financial sources in libraries, Tanzania*. Faculty of Information Studies, University of Dar es Salaam.
- McLeod, S.A. (2019). Sampling methods. Simply psychology. Retrieved August 20, 2021, from www.simplypsychology.org/sampling.html
- National Bureau of Statistics [NBS]. (2014). Statistical abstract, Dar es Salaam. Ministry of Finance.
- Olugbola, S.A. (2017). Exploring entrepreneurial readiness of youth and startup success components: Entrepreneurship training as a moderator. *Journal of Innovation & Knowledge*, 2(3), 155-171.
- Park, Y. (2016). Korea's vocational education and training policy: Achievements, limits and future challenges. HRD Korea, Republic of South Korea.
- Raihan, A. (2014). Collaboration between TVET institutions and industries in Bangladesh to enhance employability skill. *International Journal of Engineering and Technical Research (IJETR)*, 2(10).
- Rawashdeh, H. (2019), *Enhancing institutionalized partnerships between TVET institutions and the world of work in Jordan*. Arab States: the UNESCO Regional Bureau for Education, Beirut.
- Research on Poverty Alleviation [REPOA]. (2020). *Youth transition from school to work in Tanzania: A case study of Vocational Education and Training in Tanzania*. Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University.
- Seng, L.S. (2012). *Case study on "National policies linking TVET with economic expansion: Lessons from Singapore"*. "Paper

- commissioned for the EFA Global Monitoring Report", BMZ, Bonn, Germany.
- Terblanche, T. E. (2017). *Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) colleges in South Africa: A framework for leading curriculum change*. PhD. Dissertation, Stellenbosch University.
- UNESCO-UNEVOC. (2020). *TVET country profile, Singapore*. Compiled in Collaboration with SEAMEO VOCTECH & the Institute of Technical Education, Singapore.
- Varaprasad, N. (2016). *50 years of technical education in Singapore. How to build a world class TVET system?* Singapore: World Scientific publishing.
- Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA). (2012). *VETA corporate plan IV, 2012/13 -2016/17*. VETA headquarters, Dar es Salaam.
- World Bank [WB]. (2018). World Bank international comparison program database. Retrieved November 08, 2019, from <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.PP.CD?locations=SG-KR-TZ>
- Young-Sun, RA. (2019). *President's message: Korea research institute for Vocational Education and Training*. Sejong-5, Korea: Sejong National Research Congler.