ISSN: 1816-6822 (Print)
ISSN: 2707-6113 (Online)
Volume 11 Number 2
August 2019

Makerere Journal of

Higher Education

The International Journal of Theory, Policy and Practice

East African School of Higher Education Studies and Development
College of Education & External Studies
Makerere University

Makerere Journal of Higher Education

Aims and Scope

Description: Biannually, the East African School of Higher Education Studies and Development (College of Education and External Studies, Makerere University) produces *Makerere Journal of Higher Education* (MAJOHE) (ISSN: 1816-6822 [print]; 2707-6113 [online]). The goal of the Journal is to provide a visible outlet for definitive articles that discuss the theories, practices and policies relating to the role, development, management and improvement of higher education from an international viewpoint. Therefore, the editor invites contributions that link relevant theory and research evidence to the policy and practice of higher education. Though a highly diverse range of contributions will be considered, the Journal gives special preference to conceptual and empirical writing that is relevant to the understanding, promotion and constructive criticism of the reform agenda in African higher education institutions and national systems and integrates pertinent international developments, debates and challenges. This is because the Journal's management board acknowledges that the questions, issues, theories and policies pertaining to the development of contemporary higher education institutions and systems require in-depth study and international comparison. Preference is also given to contributions that discuss new initiatives at regional and continental levels (including the work of national and multilateral higher education organisations and associations). The Journal's editorial policy prefers submissions that synthesise the significance of different higher education policy alternatives and geographical experiences in explaining the phenomenon at hand. In addition to rigorous examination of the 'local dimension' of the issues that they expound, therefore, contributions mirror conversance with relevant international perspectives and experiences, thereby situating the debate in a broad discourse that facilitates holistic understanding of the issues at hand. Edited from Makerere University, Uganda, the Journal draws on the expertise of a diverse editorial board, as well as a wide range of reviewers in and beyond Africa. The Journal is committed to the publication of both experienced and early career researchers so its editorial policy puts overriding attention on helping contributors to reach the level of quality that is deemed fit for publication through ensuring relevant, fair and penetrating reviews as well as timely relay of feedback to contributors.

Frequency and subscription: *MAJOHE* is published biannually in February and August. Annual Institutional Subscription Rates 2019: USD 200 for East Africa; USD 250 for the rest of Africa; USD 300 for all other countries. Annual Personal Subscription Rates 2019: USD 50 for East Africa; USD 60 for the rest of Africa; USD 70 for all other countries. The prices include postage. Subscribers should note that these rates may be revised without prior notice.

Indexing and OnlineFirst Publication. MAJOHE is indexed in African Journals Online (AJOL) at http://www.ajol.info/index.php/majohe/index. The Journal is also indexed in the Uganda Digital

Scholarly Library (UDSL) (http://dspace.mak.ac.ug/), Research Management Coordination System (RMACS) (http://rmacs.mak.ac.ug/) and African Higher Education Research Online (AHERO) (ahero.uwc.ac.za). Upon acceptance, contributions are published online (in AJOL, UDSL, RMACS and AHERO) ahead of the print version of the Journal. This reduces the publication lifecycle and ensures that readers access the latest findings on higher education.

Editorial office, orders, advertising and enquiries: contact the East African School of Higher Education Studies and Development (P. O. Box 7062 Kampala, Uganda; Tel.: +256782464691; e-mail: judessempebwa@cees.mak.ac.ug). Readers should note that, although any advertising material included in the Journal is expected to conform to ethical advertisement standards, inclusion of adverts in *MAJOHE* does not constitute endorsement of the materials being advertised by the Journal, the East African School of Higher Education Studies and Development and Makerere University.

Notes for Contributors

Policies: Submission of a manuscript to MAJOHE implies that the work being described, in whole or substantial part, is not concurrently being considered for publication elsewhere; those contributing the manuscripts accept the editor's prerogative to effect changes to the manuscripts as may be deemed fit for purposes of quality assurance; and in case of two or more authors, all the co-authors have endorsed the submission of the manuscript. Contributors must not use sexist language (e.g. the notion that man is a generic term that includes women). United Kingdom English spellings and conventions of usage are preferred. The information and views expressed in MAJOHE are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the Journal, its staff, the East African School of Higher Education Studies and Development, the College of Education and External Studies, Makerere University or their partners. Articles are published on the assumption that they are original and have not been published elsewhere. In the unlikely event that plagiarised materials are published, therefore, those submitting them, rather than the Journal, are to be held to account. All the articles published in MAJOHE are covered by copyright and may not be reproduced without the prior permission of the copyright owner. All the manuscripts submitted are subjected to careful screening by the Editor and, if found to be generally suitable for publication, subjected to blind review by at least two peers. Manuscripts that are found to be generally unsuitable for publication in MAJOHE will not be submitted for peer review. However, their contributors will be requested to make the required revisions and resubmit.

Stylistic requirements: Contributors to MAJOHE should adhere to the following requirements: ***Length***: 4000 to 6000 words. ***Format***: Times New Roman; size 12 and 1.5 spacing. ***Structure***: Even though articles may have other subsections as may be thought necessary by the author(s), the following should be conspicuous: Introduction; Methodology; Findings; Discussion; Conclusions; and Recommendations. Tables, diagrams, figures and pictures should be in their appropriate places in the body of the article. ***Abstract***: Articles must be accompanied with an abstract of not more than 150 words. ***Keywords***: After the abstract, the author(s) should outline the keywords in the article, on whose basis it can be classified. ***Referencing***: All citations must be referenced and contributors should adhere to the sixth edition of the APA format. DOIs should be included in the references where they are available. ***Format***: Contributors of accepted manuscripts will receive detailed guidelines for preparing accepted papers for publication. Contributors may note that, although reviews may be accepted, priority will be given to primary papers that are original and discuss themes or cases that are relevant at national and international levels. ***Author details***: The full name, institutional affiliation and ORCID number of each author/ co-author should be given on the cover page of the manuscript.

Submission and enquiries: Manuscripts should be e-mailed to the editor at majohe@cees.mak.ac.ug as word attachments. Enquiries, including questions on the *appropriateness* of manuscripts intended for submission, should also be sent to the same address. However, feedback on published articles should be addressed directly to the corresponding authors.

Makerere Journal of Higher Education
Volume 11 Number 2 August 2019

Makerere Journal of Higher Education is indexed in African Journals Online (AJOL) at: http://www.ajol.info/index.php/majohe/index

Editorial

I am delighted to welcome you to the eleventh volume of the *Makerere Journal of Higher Education* (MAJOHE). The two issues in the volume are being published at the same time, belatedly! However, it is a better volume, thanks to the insights (and energy) of the new additions to our management board and to the support of Mrs. Sioux Cumming (Programme Specialist at the International Network for Advancing Science and Policy [INASP]). Sioux's support was given under the auspices of a training workshop on Improving Journal Publishing Practices and Standards hosted by the Uganda National Council of Science and Technology (UNCST) in August 2019. At the workshop, I decided that, on returning home, we would upgrade some features of MAJOHE to reach *the gold standard*. As it turned out, however, it would take us some time and significant work to get there, which is why I am very proud to announce that we are now there. Moreover, the volume is also quite diverse—with writing drawn from Botswana, Ethiopia, Ghana, Nigeria, Tanzania and Uganda and touching on teacher education, technology in higher education, university governance, student loan schemes, pedagogy, TVET, student services and marketization. I hope you find the volume a useful resource. As usual, the Board and I thank the authors for submitting their work and for working hard to revise it as advised; the reviewers for giving the authors constructive feedback; and African Journals Online (AJOL) for hosting the journal online.

Editor

East African School of Higher Education Studies & Development, Makerere University

Makerere Journal of **Higher Education**
ISSN: 1816-6822 (Print); 2707-6113 (Online)
11 (1 & 2) (2019) vii

http://ajol.info/majohe
Conflict of interest: None
Funding: None

Preparedness for and Commitment to Pre-service 'Teaching Practice' in Kwara State, Nigeria

Lawal Abdulmumin Abubakar *
University of Ilorin

Murtala Abdulyaqin Tukur
University of Ilorin

Omosidi Abdulrahman Sayuti
University of Ilorin

Ogbudinkpa Charity Ijioma
University of Ilorin

Abstract. Pre-service 'teaching practice' is an essential aspect of teacher-training which provides pedagogical knowledge and experience on how to go about the business of teaching. It should be conducted properly so as to prepare pre-service teacher trainees to service their mandate effectively. It is with this understanding that this study assessed the effectiveness with which it is conducted in tertiary institutions in Kwara State. Data was collected using two structured questionnaires and analysed using frequency counts and percentages. It was concluded that most of the students, teachers, supervisors and cooperating schools are highly prepared and committed to the teaching practice exercise while others are not.

Keywords: Teacher-training; Teaching practice; Reform.

1 Introduction

Teaching practice is a factual and practical teaching exercise done by in-training teachers which is aimed to afford them the opportunity of practical classroom activities. Lawal (2009) it is a planned educational programme designed to expose student-teachers to the practical aspect of teaching, which involves a systematic presentation of facts, classroom management, and utilization of instructional materials. Also, Kiggundu and Nakimuli (2009) observed that teaching practice is meant to provide for the authentic context within which student teachers are exposed to experiences of the complexities and richness of the reality of being a

East African School of Higher Education Studies & Development, Makerere University

Makerere Journal of **Higher Education**
ISSN: 1816-6822 (Print); 2707-6113 (Online)
11 (2) (2019) 95 – 104
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.1

Conflict of interest: None
Funding: None

* Corresponding author: dr.aalawal2018@gmail.com.

Cite article as: Lawal, A. B., Omosidi, A. S., Murtala, A. T., Ogbudinkpa, C. I. (2019). Preparedness for and Commitment to Pre-service 'Teaching Practice' in Kwara State, Nigeria. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education*, 11 (2), 95-104. http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.1

teacher. This elaborately enables the trainee to bring into reality the learnt pedagogies, acquired knowledge and educational theories from the interaction with their lecturers. It pictures and prepares trainee for established challenges which they might encounter in schools and the various means of getting them off and dealing with different situations in school and specifically the classroom.

Specifically, teaching practice is undergone by undergraduate students in the field of education or educational related disciplines. It helps in the manifestation of different experiences in form of teaching, testing, examining, academics settings, & co-curricular activities. Nwanekezi, et al. (2011) it has three major connotations: the practicing of teaching skills and acquisition of the role of a teacher, the whole range of experience that students go through in school, and the practical aspects of courses as distinct from theoretical studies. Essentially, doing the period of the exercise the student teacher is expected to plan holistically which will aid the actualization of educational goals. Good planning underpins flexibility and provides the teacher with structure and security (Pollard, 2006). The planning cut across identifying the behavioural objectives, organizing the content of the objectives, preparation of the needed lesson notes and instructional materials and preparation on class management etc. Furthermore the student teacher gets involved in the extracurricular activities vis-à-vis school assembly coordination, club activities and all other relevant activities as may be directed by the school administrators.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Some years back, many researches and researchers have explained the current status and challenges destructing effective conduct of teaching practice exercise within different locales and institutions in Nigeria. The causes of the challenges, probably be traced to student teachers, cooperating teachers, school of practice, the institutions that organize the teaching practice exercise, and as well as the supervisors. In consonance to this, different studies by different scholars have unveiled some problems confronting the teaching practice exercise.

Empirically, Haastrup, Hezekial, Adenike, and Ekundayo (2014) in their study titled "Teaching Practice Exercise for Education Students in Nigerian Universities: Challenges and the Way Forward". The findings of the study posited. that there are multi-faceted problems that face students on teaching practice exercise which include but are not limited to accommodation problem most especially when they are posted outside the university town, student-teachers are often being rejected in schools where they are posted, and inadequate instructional materials are not readily available in the schools. Also Ikitde and Ado (2015) indicate many problems including student teachers having a negative attitude towards teaching practice.

Jekayinfa et al. (2012) asserted that the quality of the exercise as being currently run is inadequate. Also, Azeem (2011) found out that 20% of the participants did not have their lessons being checked regularly by concerned supervisors while 80% were of the mind that their lessons were being checked regularly.

Today in Nigeria, there has been a loud cry among the educators about the falling standard in the conduct of teaching practice exercise which has given more concern than satisfaction. Many researchers as stated above have been able to centre on the student teachers only but left the aspect the supervisors' commitment, commitment of cooperative schools and level of preparation of the organizing institutions. Though this study is in line with previous studies of other scholars in terms of the subject matter but it differs on the basis of indicators, locale and population. Therefore, this research work set out to assess the conduct of teaching practice exercise in Kwara state tertiary institutions.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

Generally, this study aims at assessing the conduct of teaching practice exercise in Kwara State tertiary institutions. Specifically, the research intends to:

1. Find out how adequately student teachers prepare for teaching practice in Kwara state tertiary institutions.
2. Examine the level of supervisors' commitment to the teaching practice exercise in Kwara state tertiary institutions.

1.3 Research Questions

The following research questions would be raised in the course of the study:

1. How adequately do student teachers prepare for teaching practice in Kwara state tertiary institutions?
2. What is the level of supervisors' commitment to the teaching practice exercise in Kwara state tertiary institutions?

2 Related Literature

2.1 Concept of Teaching and Teaching Practice

Teaching is a gracious and reputable profession in the world. It is a two-way activity that is as old as human existence. Teaching is multifaceted, polymorphic and a social activity that involves the conveyance of skills, knowledge, right attitudes to a person or group of people who are equally accessible for learning. It involves knowledge dissemination between individuals purposely for the achievement of learning and helps as regards logical veracity and capacity for self-judgments. Teaching is a conscious and deliberate activity that is performed by an experienced individual (teacher) whose intention is to bring about efficient and effective learning exercise.

The teaching as a process entails impacting in the learners what they need to know about a subject matter. Many early authors such as Olatunji (1996), Nwachi (1991), Reed, Bergemann, and Olson, (1998), and a host of others have set forth series of definitions for teaching as a concept and these vary from hand to hand. Teachers are the backbone of any educational system which helps in the practicability of the prepared educational policy. Ryan & Couver (2007) opined that the entire purpose of teaching is to make positive changes (learning) in students. Aladejana (2006) is of the view that teaching is interpreted in its broadest sense to include academic guidance and intellectual motivation as well as classroom, laboratory and studio instruction. NTI (2007) defines teaching as many activities and processes by which human beings are assisted to learn what are regarded as useful and worthwhile as determined in the context of literacy or western type of education. Ozano (2013) views teaching as the systematic presentation of facts, ideas, skills and techniques to students. It involves the sharing of knowledge in the process of developing the individual. Ehindero (2006) sees teaching as a nomadic interactive human process involving complex decision making on different aspects of classroom interaction. He draws an analogy between teaching and marketing. The teacher, the student and the knowledge depict seller, buyer and product respectively. Furthermore, Oladosu (2004) sees teaching as an activity aimed at bringing about meaningful learning through a method that is morally and pedagogically acceptable. According to him, teaching involves a teacher, a learner, and content in form of knowledge, facts, information or skills to be imparted.

2.2 Elements for Conducting Effective Teaching Practice

Production Commission (2013) pointers of the effectiveness of programs generally focuses on measuring the changes in outcomes that reflect the objectives of the program and also it depends on some elements which influence the output. Outputs too might depend on other inputs and in addition to program inputs. These elements entail resources which include human, material, non-material and others. The availability of these, result into actualization of the predetermined goals and enormous acquisition of the benefit attached to the exercise. Also for teaching practice exercise, Margaret (2014) succinctly opined that the effectiveness of teaching practice must be approached from a systems perspective. If one component (e.g. supervision or duration) is weak, student-teachers may not acquire adequate competencies and this will affect the quality of the exercise. Also, many contemporary writers such as Alabi (2000), Lawal (2009), Fashiku (2009), Jekayinfa et al. (2012) and a host of others have explored into the conduct of the exercise and they have postulated recommendations and suggestions which serve as bases of the essential elements for the conductive of effective teaching practice exercise. Particularly, the following are the required human resources who are expected to exhibit adequate commitment towards the discharge of their respective responsibilities in order to conduct effective teaching practice exercise: the student teachers, the supervisors; and the cooperating schools; the organizing tertiary institutions through its delegate(s) or group of individuals called Teaching Practice

Committee usually headed by an individual called Teaching Practice Chairman or Teaching Practice Coordinator.

3 Methodology

The study followed a descriptive survey design. The population comprised all the teacher trainees and lecturers from tertiary institutions in Kwara state and the teachers from secondary schools within Kwara State. The targeted population includes final year teacher trainees, lecturers and the teaching practice committee from the University of Ilorin and Kwara State College of Education, Ilorin; and teachers from cooperating schools (i.e. secondary schools used for teaching practice by both institutions). The selection of institutions that encapsulated the targeted population was justified on the basis of years of existence, status of course accreditation and period when teaching practice had been carried out. A sample of 351 final year students was selected out of the 3689 students who took part in the teaching practice session of 2019 at the two teacher training institutions. Also, 189 (out of 350) lecturers that served as supervisors of the teacher trainees, and all the teaching practice committee members in each of the institutions were involved in the study. In addition, 127 schools from the 150 schools of practice which was common to both institutions. The sample of each categories of the respondents' population was arrived at using Krejcie and Morgan's Sample Size Estimation Table. A simple random selection techniques were used because they gave each *unit* the same chances of being selected. The researchers designed a questionnaire for each of the four categories of respondents. The questionnaire was titled "Assessment of the Conduct of Teaching Practice Exercise Questionnaire" (ACTPEQ). However, each of the four questionnaires contained different question items—corresponding to the kind of information that was required from each category of respondents. The data collected was analysed using frequency counts and percentages.

4 Results

4.1 Adequacy of Students' Preparedness for Teaching Practice

The findings on the teacher trainees' preparedness for teaching practice are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Student Teachers' Preparedness for Teaching Practice

Respondents	Items	Agree	Disagree
Supervisors	Student teachers always prepare for their lessons	161 (86.6%)	25 (13.4%)
	Student teachers are regular in their schools of practice	162 (87.1%)	24 (12.9%)
Cooperating Schools	Student teachers are always regular.	99 (77.9%)	28 (23.1%)
	Student teachers always prepare for their lesson.	109 (85.8)	18 (14.2%)
Tertiary Institutions	Student teachers are ready to uphold the terms and conditions stipulated by their institutions	20 (100%)	0 (0%)
	Student teachers attend orientation exercise before the commencement of the teaching practice exercise	16 (80%)	4 (20%)
	Student teachers show readiness for the teaching practice exercise	20 (100%)	

Table 1 shows the analysis of the respondents' perception on how adequately student teachers are prepared for teaching practice. A percentage of 86.8% of the sampled supervisors agreed with the statement. Furthermore, 81.9% of the sampled cooperating schools agreed with the statement. Also, 93.3% of the sampled Organizing Institution's (Teaching Practice Organizers) agreed with statements while the remaining 6.7% disagreed with the statements. Therefore, it was evident that the student teachers are highly prepared for the teaching practice exercise.

4.2 Supervisors' Commitment to the Teaching Practice Exercise

Table 2 shows the respondents' views on the commitment of the teacher trainees' supervisors to the teaching practice exercise.

Table 2: Perception of Supervisors' Commitment to Teaching Practice

Respondents	Items	Agree	Disagree
Student teachers	Supervisors ensure rightful usage of designated time.	300 (85.5%)	51 (14.5%)
	Supervisors ensure immediate feedback to student teachers.	296 (84.3%)	55 (15.7%)
	Supervisors always come for assessment during official school hours	311 (88.6%)	40 (11.4%)
	Supervisors create post-supervision interaction	249 (70.9%)	102 (29.1%)
Cooperating Schools	Supervisors provide necessary feedback to cooperating school/ teachers.	85 (66.9%)	42 (33.1%)
	Supervisors always accord the teacher and school the required respect.	107 (84.3)	20 (15.7%)
	Supervisors always adopt proper technique of supervision.	102 (80.3)	25 (19.7%)
	Supervisors always seek for teacher/school assistance in monitoring student teachers	93 (73.2%)	34 (26.8%)
Tertiary Institutions	Supervision is always carried as scheduled	16 (80%)	4 (20%)
	Teaching practice results are submitted promptly	16 (80%)	4 (20%)
	Supervisors adhere to the expected criteria.	20 (100%)	
	Supervisors are usually ready to take additional work relating to student teachers	12 (60%)	8 (40%)

Table 2 shows that majority (82.3%) of the teacher trainees agreed with the statements in question (on their supervisors' commitment). Furthermore, 76.2% of the cooperating schools agreed. Finally, 80% of the respondents from the tertiary institution's agreed with the statements. This suggests that the level of supervisors' commitment to the teaching practice exercise in Kwara state tertiary institutions is high.

5 Discussion and Conclusions

The finding on research question 1 revealed that the student teachers are highly prepared for the teaching practice exercise in Kwara state tertiary institutions. This finding confirmed the earlier finding that student teachers see teaching practice to be of immense benefit to them and relevant in preparing the trainee for the real professional work and as such, it results into high preparation in order to acquire the immense benefits therein.

Also, the finding on research question 2 revealed that the level of supervisors' commitment to the teaching practice exercise in Kwara state tertiary institutions is high. This finding confirmed the findings of Asiyai (2016) that doing the teaching the supervisors does their duties which include provision of enough feedback, discussion of the strength and weakness of their teaching with them and many others. Additionally, the finding of this study appears to be in contrast with the findings of Chikunda, (2005) that some supervisors are treachery by coming to find faults, allocate marks and leave without discussing with the student what was wrong and right with the lesson. The researcher concluded that such practices can result in student teachers not enjoying their internship and might have serious unintended outcomes.

The results of the study have shown that the respondents are committed to the teaching practice exercise. It is evident through effective and efficiency discharge of the activities. Specifically, the student teachers are adequately prepared and committed to the exercise through regular attendance at school of practice, relating well with cooperating teachers/schools, attending of orientation exercise for enlightenment purpose before the exercise, ensuring adequate abidance with the set rules and regulation and many others. The supervisors are highly committed to the exercise through rightful usage of designated time, creation of interaction between the supervisor and supervisees, according the teachers and school the required respect and also ready to take additional work on supervision and submission of teaching practice result is done at the right time and other expected activity.

In addition, the cooperating schools are highly committed to the teaching practice exercise. This is apparent through given the expected subject to student teachers to teach, provision and utilization of needed facilities, exposing student teachers to extracurricular activities and usually, welcoming attitude exhibited by the school administrators and teachers. Conclusively, the level of organizing institution preparation to the teaching practice exercise on the perception of student teachers but low from the perception of the cooperating schools. This is noticeable through exhibition of some actions which include provision of the needed materials, provision of mobilization allowance to supervisor, etc.

References

Alabi A. T. (2000), Factors Influencing the Management of Teaching Practice: A Case Study of University of Ilorin, *New Century Journal of Education; Vol. 2 No. 1*

Aladejana, F. O. (2006). Concept of Teaching. In O. J. Ehindero & F. O. Aladejana. Introduction to the Teaching Profession. Lagos: Literamed Publications Ltd.

Asiyai, R. I. (2016), Assessment of students' attitude and perception of teaching practice: the case of undergraduates of Delta State University, Abaraka, *World Journal of Education.* Vol. 6, No. 2

Azeem, M. (2011), Problems of prospective teachers during teaching practice, *Academic Research International,* Volume 1, Issue 2.

Chikunda C. (2005). An analysis of challenges and learning opportunities surrounding college-based teaching practice supervision: The case of Mature Teachers' College. *Zimbabwe Journal of Education Research,* 17(3):258-274.

Ehindero, O. J. (2006). Professionalization: The Unfinished Business of Teacher education In O. J. Ehindero & F. O. Aladejana. Introduction to the Teaching Profession. Lagos: Literamed Publications Ltd.

Haastrup, T. E., Hezekial O. A., Adenike, O. K. and Ekundayo S. (2014), Teaching Practice Exercise for Education Students in Nigerian Universities: Challenges and the Way Forward, *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences,* Vol. 5. No. 9, 486-492.

Ikitde, G. A., Ado, Isaac B. (2015). Attitude of Students towards Teaching Practice Exercise in Nigerian University: A Case Study of University of Uyo, Uyo. *Journal of Education and Practice;* Vol.6, No.25, 2015; 69-74

Jekayinfa, A. A., Yahaya L. A.,Yusuf, A., Ajidagba, U.A., Oniye, A.O., Oniyangi, S. O., Ibraheem, T. O. (2012). Lecturers' Assessment of Teaching Practice Exercise in Nigerian Universities; *Journal of Education and Practice, Vol. 3, No. 4, 2012, 79-85.*

Kiggundu E. & Nayimuli S. (2009) Teaching practice: A make or break phase for Student teachers. *South African Journal of Education*, 29:245-258.

Lawal A. A. (2009). "Organizing and Implementing Teaching Practice Exercise."In A. Y. Abdulkareem (Ed). *A guide to teaching practice for student-teachers and supervisors:* Ilorin: Kwara state college of Education.

Margaret N. E. (2014), Teaching Practice in Cameroon: The Effectiveness of the University of Buea model and implications for quality, *Australian Journal of Teacher Education,* Volume 39, Issue 11.

N.T.I (2007). Special Teacher Upgrading Programme. NCE Course Book on Education Year. Kaduna National Teachers' Institute.

Nwachi, C.C (1991). Sociology of Education. Obosi Pacific College Press.

Nwanekezi, A.U., Okoli, N. J. & Mezieobi, S. A. (2011). Attitude of Student-Teachers towards Teaching Practice In the University of Port Harcourt, Rivers State, *Nigeria Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies (JETERAPS)* 2(1):41-46.

Oladosu, A.G.A.S (2004). Concepts in education related to teaching in I. O. Abimbola & A. O. Abolade. Fundamental Principles and Practice of Instruction. Ilorin: Tunde Babs Printers.

Olatunji, J. O. (1996). Professionalization of teaching in Nigeria: How Realistic; Andrian Forum Vol. 9(1), 81-84.

Ozano, P. B. (2013). Enhancing Teaching Profession in Nigeria: A historical perspective. A*cademic Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies,* 2(5), 51-56.

Pollard, A. (2006). *Reflective Teaching.* 2nd edition. London: British Library.

Productivity Commission (2012), *Annual Report 2011-12*, chapter. 1, Annual Report Series, Canberra.

Reed, A. J. S.; Bergemann, V. E.; & Olson, M. W. (1998). In the Classroom: An Introduction to Edu. Boston. The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.

Ryan, K., & Couver, J. M. (2007). Kaleidoscope Readings in Education. 11th edition. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company. *Chapter 53*, 318-319.

Selected Stakeholders' Perception of the Contribution of Vocational Education to Botswana's Economy

Samuel Oshima Mmolai
Department of Higher Education
Faculty of Education and Health
Botho University

Ushe Makambe *
Department of Graduate Studies and Research, Faculty of Business and Accounting Botho University

Abstract. The aim of this study was to examine stakeholder perception of the contribution of vocational education (VE) to the economy of Botswana. A survey design was adopted. The sample included staff of the Ministry of Education, Vocational Colleges and Industry at the time of the study. A questionnaire was used to collect data from 61 respondents. The results confirmed that stakeholders believed that while VE was playing a significant role in fostering economic growth, it did not effectively translate into benefits to its recipients and it also failed to bring industrialisation to Botswana. For stakeholders to realise more benefits from VE, there is need to review the curriculum to become more relevant, ensure that unemployed graduates access finance to start businesses and for the government to attract investment in heavy industry to stimulate industrialisation.

Keywords: BTVET; Development; Graduate employment.

1 Introduction

In Botswana, VE became critical in 1966 when the country obtained its independence. This system of education became a critical instrument for the establishment of human capital that was required to serve in the new administration as well as in the private sector (Mupimpila & Narayana, 2009). Various authors view VE as a form of education that leads to the acquisition of qualifications that are related to a profession, trade, skill, art or employment. It provides the necessary training and the appropriate skills and technical knowledge enabling graduates to

East African School of Higher Education Studies & Development, Makerere University

Makerere Journal of **Higher Education**
ISSN: 1816-6822 (Print); 1816-6822 (Online)
11 (2) (2019) 105 – 118
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.2

Conflict of interest: None
Funding: None

* Corresponding author: makambe2006@gmail.com.

Cite article as: Mmolai, S. O., Makambe, U. (2019). Selected Stakeholders' Perception of the Contribution of Vocational Education to Botswana's Economy. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education*, 11 (2), 105-118. http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.2.

exercise a profession, an art or an activity independently of their age and level of training (Dike, 2009; Dalby & Noyes, 2015; Choi, 2016; Heitmann, 2017). Dalby (2015) further notes that, unlike university education which focuses on the acquisition of numeracy and literacy skills, VE places emphasis on the acquisition of practical skills that are based on craft and handy work in order to satisfy the continuously changing labour market needs.

In Botswana, VE has traditionally been provided at brigades and technical and other training institutions. Heitmann (2017) argues that the role of VE in Botswana is an instrumental one – that of equipping the unskilled and skilled with practical skills in craftwork to perform specialised tasks in a work environment for occupations required in industry and commerce. In addition to these generic benefits, Dalby (2015) suggests that there are additional benefits for the small, micro and medium enterprise (SMME) sector where VE graduates can be self-employed and use their skills to run their own businesses and earn a living. The idea behind the introduction of VE in Botswana was to uplift the value of human capital in the country and create employment for the youths given the high number of them who were unemployed at the time Botswana gained its independence (Dalby & Noyes, 2015; Heitmann, 2017). Its graduates have been able to gain employability skills, and some have been absorbed into the private and public sectors of the economy and hence these youths have become self-reliant and economically useful to the country although a significant number of them were still unemployed (Mupimpila & Narayana, 2009; Choi, 2016; Bob, 2018).

There has not been much research conducted on the role of VE on the economy of Botswana. This study therefore examined the stakeholder perception on the role that VE has played in the economic development of Botswana in terms of the actual and perceived contribution to the creation of employment opportunities for its graduates. An examination of the effects of VE is important as it reveals its proficiency, or otherwise, as a measure of employees' productivity.

2 Related Literature

This section presents a review of related literature concerning the effects of VE on the economy by examining and analysing current and past studies. The section discusses the concept of VE and assesses its broader role in the general economy of a country and as a social inclusiveness tool.

2.1 Concept of Vocational Education

There is a lack of universality about the definition of VE. In practice, the definition of VE has been found to be ambiguous and highly contextual (Stone, 2002; Goldin & Katz, 2008; Agrawal, 2013). On further investigation, it appears there is agreement on the subject matter of VE (Clarke & Winch, 2007; Dike, 2009).

Cedefop (2009) and Morris (2015) view VE as a multi-dimensional alternative pathway that develops individual and collective work knowledge, skills and occupational competence.

A further attempt to explain VE is provided by Greinert (2005) and Agrawal (2013) who note that this type of education imparts practical skills that are acquired in a shorter timeframe for specific trades as opposed to the formal standard education system which takes longer and is much more demanding. These authors further aver that VE is a non-university education, learning and training which occurs post-secondary, consisting mainly of apprenticeship and technical education and training programmes at various educational levels for a specific vocation or career or trade in an occupational area. Some of the occupational areas covered by VE include works in industry, commerce, production, information communication technology (ICT) and trades in television production, masonry, electronics, carpentry, drafting, graphic communications, automotive studies, and electricity and horticultural studies (Greinert, 2005; Goldin & Katz, 2008; Agrawal, 2013).

2.2 Role of Vocational Education on the General Economy

Vocational education plays an important role in the economic growth and development of many countries, Botswana included (Choi, 2016; Bob, 2018). According to Alam (2007), the concept of VE is a human capital development strategy. The same author contends that in the 1960s, VE was viewed as a national investment into the development of human capital in order to develop capable manpower that could fill positions in government and other sectors of the economy and enable productivity increases thus fostering economic growth.

The role of VE in stimulating economic growth is further highlighted by Dike (2009) who concurs that this form of education is a formidable catalyst of economic growth. This view is reinforced by Mupimpila and Nayaran (2009) who contend that the physical and human capital variables that characterise VE have a significant impact on economic growth and development. This view is further buttressed by Bob (2018) who further postulates that economic prosperity can only be enjoyed from leveraging and harnessing human capital with infrastructure, technology and financial capital for the sourcing, manufacturing and distribution of goods and services. Investment in VE goes a long way into the development of human capital which stimulates economic growth and development.

Furtherance of the role of VE on economic growth is provided by Budría & Telhado-Pereira (2009) who argue that there are marked economic effects emanating from enhanced productivity of labour due to VE. The influence of VE on labour productivity is buttressed by Spielhofer and Sims (2004) who opine that the productivity of labour is slightly lower for employees with elementary VE qualifications than those with moderate and advanced certificates thus leading to a reduction in underemployment and unemployment rates. With reference to Europe, Dike (2009) concurs that VE meets immediate market demand and long-term structural changes in economies which have led to a significant transformation of the European economies. Several other cases of positive effects of VE on economic transformation in other countries, regions and specific sectors of the economy were identified by other authors (Spielhofer & Sims, 2004; Budría & Telhado-Pereira 2009; Mupimpila & Narayana, 2009).

One other way VE stimulates economic growth and development in a country is through facilitation of innovation and technology. Spielhofer and Sims (2004) observe that a few developed nations generate new technology and this is due to the level of human capital available to develop new technology and diffuse it internationally. The readiness and flexibility of a workforce and human capital to embrace innovation determines the extent to which developing countries benefit from new technology and innovations that emanate from VE skills (Budría & Telhado-Pereira, 2009; Cho & Honorati, 2013).

In Botswana, VE has been on the rise and an assessment of individuals who qualified through this form of education has revealed that their contribution to the general economy by way of enhanced productivity, innovation and competence has been significant. Mupimpila and Narayana (2009) state that the Botswana government has prioritised skills development as evidenced by the rise in enrolments for VE programmes and courses than in formal ones. Since gaining independence, Botswana has been one of the world's fastest growing economies, averaging about 5% economic growth per annum over the past decade, while growth in private sector employment averaged about 10% per annum during the first 30 years of the country's independence (Choi, 2016). As VE typically increases productivity at the company level, it seems plausible that it should be possible to observe a similar effect in macroeconomic growth as well.

The effect of VE on the economy is reinforced by Bob (2018) who posits that the purpose of vocational education and training (VET) is to provide individuals with skills that are directly applicable in the workplace. Other authors concur that these skills that enhance technological development, innovation and diffusion of that innovation are likely to have direct and immediate effects on productivity and consequently economic growth (Rommes, Faulkner, & Van Slooten, 2005; Tikkanen, 2009; Gvaramadze, 2010). This view is confirmed by Comyn and Barnaart (2010) who postulate that the assumptions that VET is beneficial to economic growth and to social inclusion are fundamental and classical and even aid agencies such as the World Bank and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) highly recommend VE as the panacea to economic development in developing countries.

Emphasising further on the role VE plays in stimulating economic growth and development, especially in Botswana, Choi (2016) and Bob (2018) observe that VE has several economic benefits that include raising regional and sectoral development, increasing exports, attracting foreign investment, and increasing wages. This view concurs with the position taken by international institutions such as UNESCO which recognise and prioritise VE as critical for educational development of mostly developing countries, enhancing labour market inclusion as well as addressing the challenges of income disparities in those countries (Choi, 2016).

2.3 Vocational education as a social inclusiveness tool

Besides equipping graduates with employability skills, VE also serves a social purpose. According to Wollschläger and Guggenheim (2004), VE can be employed as a tool for the promotion of social inclusion by eliminating all the barriers to education and training. It has positive social externalities and is a means for structural change especially where the youth are concerned. It works as a crime reduction tool enabling the youth to focus on skills development rather than on sex, drugs, crime and other social vices (Kingombe, 2011). Vocational education promotes social inclusion, cohesion, mobility, adaptability, employability and competitiveness in the labour market and the economy (Wollschläger & Guggenheim, 2004). Vocational education is superior to general education from a socialisation point of view and promotes access to the labour market (Stevenson, 2005).

The role of VE as a social inclusiveness tool is reinforced by Raymond (2007) who concurs that one of the goals of this form of education is to provide training to school leavers and impart in them the necessary skills to enable them to become self-reliant individuals who are useful to the society. When this goal is adequately achieved, it would lead to the development of a graduate who easily and quickly fits into his/her society thus becoming an active and effective participant in societal activities and programmes.

Vocational education facilitates social inclusion by ensuring that the graduate immediately fits into the society through self-reliance and discouraging the unemployment syndrome (Raymond, 2007; Igweh, 2008). This view is further reinforced by Igweh (2008) who postulates that when one acquires skills in any occupation, that person can set up a business and can even employ others. That is a way of making one part of a community and will participate in its activities with confidence and a sense of belonging.

Vocational education and social inclusion are closely inter-linked in that self-reliance that may emanate from this type of education facilitates the attainment of autonomy without unnecessarily resorting to begging or browning (Raymond, 2007). The author further posits that a self-reliant individual is one who achieves a steady supply of his needs and can diversify his/her resources in order to reduce dependency on other stakeholders such as government, donors, community leaders and other members of the society. These are the people who later develop into influential individuals in their society and would later want to exert their influence in the community by seeking leadership positions as councillors, members of parliament and so on. Such people will have been fully integrated into the communities they leave, a fit made possible through the acquisition of VE. This form of education will be responsible for their personal growth and development as citizens politically, socially and economically.

The social importance of VE is further highlighted by Nwogu (2009) who argues that its role embraces utilitarianism, that is, its graduates make a substantial contribution to the overall good of the nation and its inhabitants. As a result, VE has been adopted as an integral part of national development strategy in various countries and societies due to its impact on human capital development, productivity and economic growth thus making many citizens useful to their communities and countries (Igweh, 2008; Dike, 2009; Efajemue & Otuaga, 2010). In this way, VE becomes a critical tool in facilitating social inclusiveness as it produces young artisans, craftsmen, technicians and the necessary technologies that enable the youth to fit well in small scale enterprises, industries, colleges and universities thus preparing them for effective economic and social participation in a nation. Vocational education thus becomes an aspect of long-term learning and preparation for responsible citizenship (Igweh, 2008).

3 Methodology

A survey research design was adopted for this study. The justification for this choice of design was that it enabled the coverage of a large sample within a short space of time at a reasonable cost. A quantitative research methodology was adopted whereby a questionnaire was used to collect data to examine stakeholder perception on the effects of VE on the economy of Botswana.

The population of the study included all staff who were working in the Ministry of Education, vocational colleges and industry (employers of manufacturing concerns) at the time the study was conducted. Only managers were targeted because they were better placed to understand the formulation and implementation of VE policy and whether it was successful or not. As complete coverage of the whole population was not possible due to cost and time constraints, a subset of the population (sample) was studied. A sample of 61 was selected for the study using the convenience sampling technique. This sampling technique was adopted because it is easy to use and also allows the selection of information-rich respondents.

In order to ensure the reliability of the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted before the questionnaire was distributed to the actual respondents. The questionnaire was also pre-tested before final use. Voluntary and informed consent were sought from the respondents and they were informed that they could withdraw their participation at any time during the study.

4 Findings and Discussion

This section presents the findings on the stakeholder perception on whether VE contributed to the growth of Botswana's economy. A total of 61 respondents participated in this study and all the questionnaires were retuned ensuring a 100% response rate. The constructs used in this section were nine statements that required the respondents to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement. These statements were constructs that measured the perception of stakeholders on the role of VE on the general economy of Botswana through employment creation for the youths. The findings are indicated in Table 1below.

Table 1: Role of Vocational Education on the General Economy of Botswana

Code	**Role of VE on the economy**	**Strongly agree**	**Agree**	**Uncertain**	**Disagree**	**Strongly disagree**	**X**	**SD**
IIJP	Vocational education improves individual job performance and productivity of firms	16.4%	62.3%	6.6%	13.1%	1.6%	3.8	0.9
ECFC	Vocational education is an excellent catalyst for creating employment opportunities	18.0%	60.7%	14.8%	4.9%	1.6%	3.9	0.8
RIPR	Vocational education results in poverty reduction, food security and social cohesion in youths	13.1%	44.3%	14.8%	21.3%	6.6%	3.4	1.2
PEYB	Vocational education has positive effects on the youths in Botswana	21.3%	57.4%	8.2%	13.1%	0%	3.9	0.9
WTPR	Vocational education is a waste of taxpayers' resources	6.6%	16.4%	26.2%	29.5%	21.3%	2.6	1.2
ILFU	Vocational education increases labour force up skilling and productivity	16.4%	52.5%	11.5%	18.0%	1.6%	3.6	1.0
PWES	Vocational education results in positive wage effects to skilled workers and negative long run wage increases	16.4%	23.0%	31.1%	24.6%	4.9%	3.2	1.1
GIDG	Unemployed VE graduates increase dependence on government social programs	26.2%	39.3%	13.1%	18.0%	3.3%	3.7	1.2
PEGI	Vocational education promotes economic growth through industrialization/production	4.9%	4.9%	9.8%	57.4%	23%	3.9	0.9

Key: IIJP= VE improves individual job performance and productivity of firms; ECFC= VE is an excellent catalyst for creating employment opportunities; RIPR= VE results in poverty reduction, food security and social cohesion in youths; PEYB= VE has positive effects on the youths in Botswana; WTPR= VE is a waste of taxpayers' resources; ILFU= VE increases labour force up skilling and productivity; PWES= VE results in positive wage effects to skilled workers and negative long run wage increases; GIDG= Unemployed VE graduates increase dependence on government social programs; PEGI= VE promotes economic growth through industrialization/production

Table 1 above shows the results of the respondents concerning stakeholder perception on the role of VE on the general economy of Botswana as measured by the nine constructs, that is: IIJP, ECFC, RIPR, PEYB, WTPR, ILFU; PWES, GIDG, and PEGI.

According to Table 1, 78.7% of the respondents agreed that VE improved individual job performance and the productivity of firms, while 21.3% disagreed. This demonstrates that most of the respondents believed that VE improved job efficiency and firm output which directly contributes towards economic growth. These results confirm the literature findings that VE is a catalyst for creating employment opportunities for the youth thus enabling them to pay tax and increase consumption expenditure hence economic development (Alam, 2007; Dike, 2009; Budría & Telhado-Pereira, 2009). Taxes paid by employed youth are used by the government for infrastructure development thus further fuelling economic growth and development.

The results in Table 1 reveal that 57.4% of the respondents agreed that VE resulted in poverty reduction, food security and social cohesion in youths while 42.6% disagreed. The fact that just over half of the respondents concurred suggests that the number of people who were effectively improving their lives through VE may not have been very significant. The effect of VE on poverty reduction, food security and social cohesion was therefore of an average standard. What the findings mean was that close to half the sample surveyed believed that VE was not effectively playing a role in reducing poverty in the communities and in assisting societies to increase food production. Failure to do so meant that the willingness of members of the societies in Botswana to cooperate with each other in an attempt to enhance their survival and prosperity was negatively affected.

Table 1 also shows that 78.7% of the respondents agreed that VE had positive effects on the youth in Botswana, while 21.3% disagreed. Vocational education, according to the respondents, had marked positive effects on most of the youth in Botswana. This emanated from the positive effects VE had on the general economy resulting in benefits to young Batswana. In most developing countries today, the youth constitute the largest segment of the consumer population with a higher marginal propensity to consume than the adult population hence creating a higher demand for goods and services. This may motivate manufacturers to produce more goods and services that satisfy the specific needs and wants of the young people which may stimulate new technological innovations thus resulting in the expansion of the manufacturing industry and contributing to further economic growth.

Table 1 shows that 77% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that VE was a waste of taxpayers' resources while only 23% agreed. These findings demonstrate that most of the respondents acknowledged the vital role played by VE on the economy of Botswana and how it benefited the citizens. All things being equal, the 49.2% of the respondents (23%+ 26.2% uncertain) who did not clearly indicate that VE was not a waste of the taxpayer's resources was too high given its unquestionable role in the economic growth of especially developing countries. This view is supported by a number of studies that concur that VE is a national investment into the development of human capital (Alam, 2007), a formidable catalyst of economic growth (Dike, 2009), an enhancer of labour productivity (Spielhofer & Sims, 2004; Budría & Telhado-Pereira, 2009), stimulator of new technology and innovations (Budría & Telhado-Pereira, 2009; Cho & Honorati, 2013) and a promoter of social inclusion, cohesion, mobility and adaptability of graduates as members of a society (Wollschläger & Guggenheim, 2004; Kingombe, 2011). All these aspects play a critical role in stimulating economic diversification and growth of a country through galvanising domestic and foreign direct investment (FDI).

Table 1 shows that about 70% of the respondents agreed that VE increased labour force up-skilling and productivity, while about 30% disagreed. The results epitomised the prevailing state of VE in Botswana that it increased labour force up-skilling and productivity which may have, in turn, contributed towards positive productive output which directly affects economic growth. This meant that graduates of VE were positively contributing to human capital growth in the country. Given that critical role, it is not pleasing to note that about 30% of the respondents did not believe that VE increased labour force up-skilling and productivity.

Close to a third of the respondents were of the view that VE did not increase labour force up-skilling and productivity. This may mean that this type of education was not effectively producing graduates with boosted morale and productivity, which could imply that the investment in people was not solid enough. If VE graduates were not happy employees, then they were not likely to enhance customer satisfaction hence would not be a wise investment to the organisation and not promote the corporate brand within the organisation, the customers, the community and elsewhere.

Table 1 further reveals that about 39% of the respondents agreed that VE resulted in positive effects on the wages of skilled workers, while about 61% disagreed or were unsure as to whether such positive wage effects really arose. This finding is evidence that indeed there was a problem with VE's efficacy in translating positive net benefits to its recipients whether in getting jobs or in becoming economically empowered as a result of the jobs obtained. Based on this finding, it can be realised that intended benefits from VE that take various forms after training were not effectively available such as improved earnings, enhanced employment opportunities, increased labour force mobility, enhanced capacity for lifelong learning and improved general working conditions and job satisfaction. These are the obvious benefits expected by any employed VE graduate which were surprisingly not prevalent to the Botswana VE graduates based on the findings of the study.

Table 1 reveals insightful results as about 80% of the respondents did not agree that VE promoted economic growth through industrialisation/production while only about 20% agreed. While the results of the study revealed that most of the respondents appeared to acknowledge the link between VE and economic growth, most of them did not believe that the same economic growth stimulated industrialisation. This may mean that VE in Botswana may not have been effective in preparing graduates for the world of work through the acquisition of scientific and practical knowledge and skills to match the structural changes in Botswana's economy. Skills imparted by VE institutions may not have been adequate to encourage foreign investors to establish production, assembly and packaging plants in the country in order to supply the market with finished products previously imported mostly from South Africa.

Table 1 also shows the deviation for the role of VE on the general economy constructs that is: IIJP, ECFC, PEYB and PEGI which reveals a small standard deviation (SD range=0.8 to 0.9) which means that the values in the statistical data set are close to the mean (x=3.8 to 3.9) of the data set on average. This contrasts with the role of VE on the general economy sub-constructs that is RIPR, WTPR, ILFU, PWES and GIDG which have greater variability (SD range = 1.0 -1.2) around a lower mean range of between 2.6 and 3.7. It appears that there is an inverted relationship between the mean and the standard deviation in which a lower mean is associated with a higher standard deviation and the converse is also true.

The findings of the study reveal that the effect of VE on the general economy, based on the perception of the stakeholders, was an important one, playing a vital role in the supply of labour as a critical input into the generation of economic growth through individual performance, firm productivity, technological diffusion, and skills usage.

5 Conclusion and Recommendations

This study has demonstrated stakeholder perception on the fundamental roles and effects of VE on the economy of Botswana. The study demonstrated that stakeholders perceived that VE played a significant role in the general economy by facilitating the acquisition of scientific, practical and applied skills for employment and self-employment. It is evident from the findings of the study that the model for VE that existed at the time of the study was no longer effective and was out of touch with the demands of the youth, global consumers and industrial organisations.

The findings have established that generally, stakeholders were of the view that the role of VE on the economy of Botswana was positive in some variables identified in the study. The role of VE in Botswana was constantly shaped by the nature of VE, the policy actions and convictions of the government, the demands of employers and the global influences of international VE. Although VE had a positive impact on the economy in general through creation of employment for the youth, it was not effective in providing significant benefits to the employed graduates through improved remuneration and working conditions as expected.

Whereas in other countries where VE was effective, such as in Malaysia, the full cycle of the implementation of this form of education resulted in industrialisation though the establishment of manufacturing plants by foreign investors, stakeholders felt that the same has not happened in Botswana. At the time of the study, there was no significant manufacturing in Botswana and the economy remained predominantly retail and relying on imports from South Africa for most of its requirements. In order to realise the full benefits of VE, the following recommendations were suggested:

- There was need for the government of Botswana to review the VE curriculum and pedagogical strategies to ensure that the skills imparted into the learners were relevant to the needs of society and industry. This would enable VE graduates to contribute more effectively to economic development through increasing industrial production and revenue generation hence stimulating food supplies and poverty reduction.
- The role of VE in the economic development of Botswana needs to be more clearly articulated and publicised so that awareness of its importance among the citizenry is enhanced in order to justify continued government expenditure in VE. This would reduce the perception among some citizens that financing VE was a waste of the taxpayer's money.
- Activities of VE graduates also need to be documented and publicised through alumni association and state media so that Batswana are conscious of the importance of VE skills through their contribution to economic development. This would enable the citizens to appreciate that VE increased labour force up-skilling and productivity.
- The government should embark on a programme, through state entities such as the Local Enterprise Authority (Lea), the Botswana Development Corporation and the Citizenship Enterprise Development Authority (CEDA), that ensures easy access to cheap finance by VE graduates to enable those who are not employed to start their own businesses. In addition, the government should ensure that the minimum wage for VE graduates is high in order to boost their income hence their social status. This would make the people appreciate the benefits of VE to the recipients.
- The government of Botswana is urged to put in place measures to attract FDI into the country from heavy industry investors such as iron and steel, mining, car assembly and so on who would set up production plants utilising the scientific and practical skills of VE graduates. Such a move would stimulate industrialisation in Botswana using the technical skills of VE graduates.

References

Alam, G.M. (2007). Private higher education in Bangladesh: The impact on higher education governance and legislation. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Nottingham, United Kingdom.

Agrawal, T. (2013). Vocational education and training programmes: An Asian perspective. *Asia- Pacific Journal of Cooperation Education.* 14 (1). 16-17.

Bob, N.N. (2018). Perspectives and strategies of contemporary vocational education. Gaborone: Magnet Publishing.

Budría, S., & Telhado-Pereira, P. (2009). The contribution of vocational training to employment, job-related skills and productivity: evidence from Madeira. *International Journal of Training and Development.* 13 (1). 53-72.

Cedefop (2009). Continuity, consolidation and change: Towards a European era of vocational education and Training, Cedefop, Thessaloniki.

Cho, Y. & Honorati, M. (2013). Entrepreneurship programmes in developing countries: A meta regression analysis, IZA Discussion Paper no. 7333, April, accessed 12 November 2013.

Choi, S. (2016). Effects of vocational education on wages: Case of the Philippines. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development*. 7(10). 112-129.

Clarke, L. & Winch, C. (eds.) (2007). Vocational education: International approaches, developments and systems. London & New York: Routledge.

Comyn, P. & Barnaart, A. (2010). TVET reform in Chongqing: Big steps on a long march. *Research in Post-compulsory Education.* 15. 49-65. 10.1080/13596740903565335.

Dalby, D. & Noyes, A. (2015). Connecting Mathematics teaching with vocational learning. *Adult Learning Mathematics: An International Journal.* 10(1). 40-49.

Dike, V.E. (2009). Vocational education: Missing link in Nigeria's development policy. Retrieved on June 12th 2012 from: http://www.countrysides.us/Nigeria/56.htm.

Efajemue, O.O. & Otuaga, O.U. (2010). The need to equip youths with vocational skills for sustainable development in Nigeria: A paper presented at the third international conference on research and development at Miklim Hotels, East Legon, Accra, Ghana. Nov. 23rd – 26th, 2010.

Gvaramadze, I. (2010). Low-skilled workers and adult vocational skills-upgrading strategies in Denmark and South Korea. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training.* 62. 51-61. 10.1080/13636821003605395.

Goldin, C. and Katz, L.F. (2008). *The Race between Education and Technology.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Greinert, W.D. (2005). Mass vocational education and Training in Europe. *CEDEFOP Panorama Series. 118.*

Heitmann, W. (2017). Vocational education and training for inclusive growth in development cooperation. European Commission Tools and Methods Series, Reference Document No 24. DEVCO Migration, Employment, Inequalities Unit.

Igweh, A.U. (2008). Vocational technical training: A strategy for self-reliance and national development. *Ebonyi Technology and Vocational Education Journal,* 2(1). 112-117.

Kingombe, C. (2011). Lessons for developing countries from experience with technical and vocational education and training. London: International Growth Centre.

Morris, P. (2015). Review of the Pacific Framework for Technical and vocational education and Training [TVET]. Pacific Community (SPC) and UNESCO.

Mupimpila, C. & Narayana, N. (2009). The role of vocational education and technical training in economic growth: A case of Botswana. *Int. J. Education Economics and Development*. 1(1). 3-13.

Nwogu, P.O. (2009). The global economic crisis: A challenge to entrepreneurship development in technical and vocational education and training (TVET). A paper presented at NATT 22nd Annual National Conference Bauchi, Oct. 17-21.

Raymond, E. (2007). Constraints affecting electronics of roadside technicians in Minna Metropolis. *JONATT*. 6(2). 8-14.

Rommes, E., Faulkner, W. & van Slooten, I. (2005). Changing lives: The case for women-only vocational technology training revisited. *Journal of vocational education and Training*. 57(3). 293–317.

Spielhofer, T. & Sims, D. (2004). Modern apprenticeships in the retail sector: Stresses, strains and support. *Journal of Vocational Education and Training*. 56(4). 181-198.

Stevenson, J. (2005). The centrality of vocational education and Training. *Journal of vocational education and training*. 57(3). 335-354.

Stone, D. (2002). Policy paradox: The art of political decision making. New York: Norton & Company, Inc.

Tikkanen, T. (2009). The learning society as a greying society: Perspectives of older workers and lifelong learning. Modernising vocational education and training. Fourth report on vocational training research in Europe. Background report, Vol. 2, Cedefop Reference Series 70 (Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities).

Wollschläger, N. & Guggenheim, É. (2004). A History of vocational education and Training in Europe: From divergence to convergence. *European Journal: Vocational Training*.

Philosophical Identities in the ‘Market’ for University Education in Uganda

Denis Sekiwu *
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8366-6929
Faculty of Education, Kabale University

Nicholas Itaaga
College of Education and External Studies, Makerere University

Anthony Mugagga Muwagga
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7190-2819
College of Education and External Studies, Makerere University

Abstract. This study examines the metaphysics and political philosophy behind market competition for Uganda’s university education. Using grounded theory to filter the voices of 12 participants, the first phase of the study, which was qualitative, revealed that a rival (contestable) market of university education in Uganda has three challenges: funding, low research capacity and deregulation. In the second phase of the study, a quantitative study involving 180 participants finds that resource mobilization, financial audit compliance, grant writing, bursaries and loan facilities for students would help to minimize the market challenge. Subsequently, the paper examines the philosophy behind the market of university education. This is with the conclusion that this philosophy is part of the problem affecting university education in the country. More governmental control—to contain the challenges deregulation has posed—is urged.

Keywords: Liberalisation; Funding; Marketisation.

1 Introduction

This study examines the philosophy behind the competition in Uganda’s university education market. The subject of competition for university education is steadily receiving attention in contemporary higher education studies. Since the 1990s, for

East African School of Higher Education Studies & Development, Makerere University

Makerere Journal of **Higher Education**
ISSN: 1816-6822 (Print); 1816-6822 (Online)
11 (2) (2019) 119 – 137
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.3

Conflict of interest: None
Funding: None

* Corresponding author: dsekiwu@kab.ac.ug.

Cite article as: Sekiwu, D., Muwagga, A. M. (2019). Philosophical Identities in the ‘Market’ for University Education in Uganda. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education*, 11 (2), 119-137. http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.3.

example, there has been expansion in the industry of university education explained by rapid globalization ideologies such as modernism, liberalism and marketization of higher education (Salermo, 2006). These globalization currents have influenced increased student enrolments in the university, university financing challenges (Ziderman, 2003), changing patterns in management of universities and the expanding market of university education (Sicherman, 2005).

The market of university education in Uganda is characterized by the expanding size of the industry, from one university in 1987to over 50 universities to-date. Locating this analysis in the language of economics, the university education market is characterized as "monopolistic competition". Nijai (2017) defines competition as a market structure with many global players competing for the buying and selling of an education product. There is free entry and exist of players and consumers described by market rivalry. In Uganda, for example, there are over twenty universities. The massification of university education access posits conflicting interests trading in a similar education product (Marginson, 2006). In the politics of education access, conflicting interests by numerous players motivate the power to bargain for customers. A university with the highest bargaining ability has a higher consumer intake and higher price status (Sergey, Parenti & Thiss, 2011). This bargaining ability may be influenced by opportunities like product branding and excessive advertising for consumer attraction, low pricing of education products, and making the institutional philosophy relevant to societal demands.

The character of competition in the university education market brings in a fleet of challenges and plausible factors of quasi-contestability (Hansmann, 1999) that need the polemics of philosophical interpretation. Although studies have explored the philosophical character of a liberalized university education market for Uganda, there is a paucity of research focusing on the metaphysical and political philosophical dimension. Therefore, this paper explores four philosophical queries:

1) What is the metaphysical character of the Market Competition in Uganda's University Education?
2) What is the underlying political philosophy behind the Market Competition in Uganda's University Education?
3) How do these philosophical identities in Market Competition influence University Policy in Uganda?

2 Related Literature

2.1 Market Competition in University Education

The market of university education can be characterized by close and rival competition because of its liberalized nature (Kasozi, 2009). But the competitive nature of the university education market in Uganda determines rivalry among multiple providers and consumers of an education good at the prevailing market price (Roncaglia, 2005; Pepall & Norman, 2005). Rivalry is explained by close substitutability (Masanja & Lwakabamba, 2016), flaunted by huge clouts of private, national and global players (Baum, Sandy & McPherson, 2012) dealing in a heterogeneous education product but controlled by forces of demand and supply. Rivalry, in this market, induces contestability because of the differentiated nature of the education product. In Uganda there are over 50 universities, each bubbling with the question of financing education as a public good (Kasozi, 2009). Free entry and exit of players is built on the desire for attractive profits, although no comparable evidence how free entry and exist could guarantee long-run profit maximization, where firms are frozen into huge sunk costs of advertising and branding options. When the profits of education access are attractive in Market Competition, then players could enter the industry (Baum et al., 2012), although this does not validate cases where university education is supposedly non-profit making because education is a public good (Kasozi, 2009). In the non-profit design, the aim is not to make attractive profits yet people are attracted to enter business with profit expectations in the deregulated higher education industry. When competition increases, existing players reduce their price to appease the powers of competition, which, in the long-run, increases profit margins for potential customers, making sellers of the education product price-makers in volatile market competition.

However, the sunk cost ideology impairs the institution's investment potential to a shut-down position in the long-run (Roncaglia, 2005). When universities invest excessively in buying huge chunks of land for expansion and in excessive advertisement, they are amassing a huge challenge on their future potential in market competition. The survival of private universities in Uganda is highly dependent on cost management for revenue maximization (Musisi & Nansozi, 2003). It is in the wisdom of players in this market competition to minimize the sunk cost and promote consumer welfare (Otieno, 2004). When Makerere University was a monopoly of university education in Uganda, the quality of higher education crippled because of low contestability (Mugerwa, 2002). It is hugely contested in the literature (Hansmann, 1999) that, market competition possesses an 'associative character' with efficiency and fairness outcomes. When choosing a university, a student is interested not just in the curriculum, policy and facilities, but also global connectivity. The customer's attribute to specific quality requirements predates customer willingness to pay the prevailing price for the associative product (Hansmann, 1999). The products of higher education specify the type and quality they demand, and the market is available to provide a commensurate price of education for producers of associative goods have an incentive to pick only those that are of highest quality.

In market competition, product demand is stratified, and stratification gives market power not just to the institutions at the very top of the status hierarchy, but also to institutions lower down as well. In a status hierarchy, a university faces little threat of competition from high ranking institutions because of multiple products by multiple players in the industry of education (Pepall & Norman, 2005). Profits should be at levels just enough to reward investment and to accommodate varied expectations, those in higher status and those in lower status dimensions.

The researchers conclude that the market of university education in Uganda today is monopolistically competitive with huge costs to provide and access higher education. There are many providers and consumers of higher education and because of its highly competitive nature, providers of university education must each decide their entry into the market by each designing their own competitive institutional values. Profit maximisation (although education is not supposed to be profit oriented) is only attained where each university puts in place competitive drives that enable it access many consumers of its programmes and its philosophy.

2.2 Philosophy behind Market Competition in University Education

Philosophical issues have a remarkable impact on education to determine a 'philosophy of education' (Muwagga, 2011) to direct the "What" and "How" of organizing education challenges and policy. The philosophy of education influences education decisions and choices, education aims and strategy (Ornstein, 2011). The philosophy guiding university education is spelt out in the Government White Paper on Education 1992 and the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act, 2001. Constitutionally, Uganda's national philosophy of education emphasizes a set of epistemological and axiological values to promote good citizenship (Sekiwu, 2013) and globally, the philosophical direction of higher education in developing countries is teaching, research and community engagement.

Universities are institutions founded on different philosophical orientations dogged by the founding ethos (Muwagga, 2007). Their philosophical orientation gives them identity in rival market competition. The identity of Private-for-Profit Universities is to maximize profits while that of Public/Government Owned Universities is to promote the national directives on education, and they use this philosophical identity for branding. However, in competition, there is discrimination and intolerance among players because of market stratification calling for political philosophy to question policy alternatives (Sapru, 2007), public legislation (Bell, 2002), welfare scarcity and education access imbalances (Kasozi, 2009).

It can be concluded that each university in Uganda has its own philosophy on which its principles are drawn. This philosophical orientation of each university describes the uniqueness of a particular university. At the same time, the competitiveness of a university in the market of university education is determined by its philosophical orientation. However, much of the literature on the philosophy behind university education in Uganda focuses on the epistemological (knowledge bases) and axiological (values) direction of university dynamics. However, it is vital also to point to the metaphysical dynamics of these universities and their political philosophy as other perspectives of interpreting the philosophical identity behind the market for university education.

2.3 Linking Market Competition and University Policy

The challenges of the rival market competition can be resolved through political legislation, when the state mandates the university to make policy that counters the detriments of contestation and protects the opportunities of contestation (Osuji, Mafara & Chagbe, 2016). Contestability politics, in the market of university education, provides that institutions operate in a systems wave (Sapru, 2007). Here, environmental factors and forces determine demand for state legislation through institutional policy (Easton, 2007). University policy inputs are derived from environmental forces and challenges necessitating political inclusion to deal with the contestability dilemma.

In conclusion, debates in the literature provide an analytical domain to focus the key research questions. The analytical domain of this paper questions the metaphysics in market competition for University Education, by describing its factors, challenges and their underlying causes (Lajur, 2014). Second, to question those political ontologies explaining market competition for Uganda's university education, by querying political legislation in university policy decisions (Senyonyi, 2015). The paper does not extend debate to epistemological and axiological orientations of market competition of university education because this was the subject of earlier studies.

3 Methodology

The research used grounded theory. This guided the generation of emic explanations for the diverse forms of philosophical identities in a philosophical worldview. A mixed methods approach was followed. Qualitative data, which was collected using key informant interviews, was obtained during the first phase of the study. The key informants included two student leaders, two graduate students, two University Managers, two lecturers, two NCHE officials and two Officials from the Ministry of Education (Table 1). In order to protect the identity of the respondents and their institutions, pseudonyms were used.

Table 1. Participants' Profiles

Pseudonym	Location	Designation
Patrick	Lakunde University	Student Leader
Monica	Makomo University	Student Leader
Buladda	Lakunde University	Graduate Student
Bridget	Makomo University	Graduate Student
Akello	Lakunde University	Professor
Vincent	Makomo University	Registrar
Paul	Lakunde University	Dean of Students
Catherine	Makomo University	Lecturer
Pinto	NCHE	Accreditation
Lucky	NCHE	Quality Assurance
Kenneth	Ministry of Education	Research
Edith	Ministry of Education	Planning

Quantitative data collection was done in the second phase of the research. This was done using a questionnaire that was administered in October 2018. The mini-questionnaire elicited perceptions of what the respondents perceived as the most preferred remedies for dealing with the market contestability challenges of funding, low research and the deregulation problem. The study participants were individually approached by the researchers to seek verbal and written informed consent. Participation was voluntary and with informed consent. All the interviews and discussions were conducted by trained assistant. The qualitative data was subjected to thematic analysis using grounded theory. Subsequently, the themes identified were cross-referenced with other scholars' findings and conclusions. The quantitative data was analysed using descriptive statistics.

3 Findings and Discussion

3.1 Metaphysical Challenges

3.1.1 The Financing Problem

Funding is a big metaphysical challenge facing rival competition of Uganda's university education as indicated by Vincent, a Registrar in Makomo—a Public University, reiterating that:

> Since the privatization of University Education in the 1990s, financing university activity has been a problematic…Student enrolment is increasing in every university. And management, in these universities, needs money to expand facility. Of course, our university has faced many hurdles because of limited government funding.

Observations by Vincent corroborate Maringe, Felix & Gibbs (2009), that in market competition for education, economic actions are oriented towards financing the education product. Scarcity and exclusiveness are part of the economic hermeneutics of the contested market for education. This interpretation by Krauss conjugates with the empirical voice of Buladda, a graduate student of a degree of Master of Education Management of Lakunde University:

> The market of higher education in any society is about financing the education good to support acquisition of equipment, recruitment of adequate and quality teaching staff. However, in our university, we have a problem of inadequate teaching space—we are forced at times to have our lectures under trees". He puts on a sombre face, "We are inconvenienced as postgraduate students because we study amidst inadequate facilities. We wonder what our money does.

Buladda's trajectory of the market of university education is similarly expressed by Grima (2013) that funding is the final causality in the existential order; the prime theological path to the growth of higher education. Kasozi (2000) says that without funding, higher education is grossly impaired. But Akello, a Professor of Education in Lakunde University, a legend with a powerful trajectory of publishing in the field of higher education, tries to provide a deeper scholarly analogy of the funding dilemma facing universities in the developing world:

> I accept that funding is a big hindrance to the progress of university education in the developing world, but each university has some sort of quality assurance mechanism to regulate its financial functioning and then plan for resource mobilization.

Akello's reality about funding is linking well with Howard (2006) who offers that the cost of education is determined by the education cost theory. When the market of education increases, the cost will equally increase, needing a resource mobilization alternative as the efficient cause operative. Being a professor in management of higher education, Akello reasons that much as financing is a soaking market competition problem, in her scholarly wisdom; universities must think strategically and be visionary to ensure that they have more robust coping mechanisms like putting-up a critical resource mobilization base and implement it without fear or favour. The publishing, research and teaching she has done for over 20 years have taught her that talking about the university problem and pushing complaints under the carpet is not messianic enough to save the crippling institutions.

In a slightly different philosophical flavour, Monica a Third-year student of social sciences and student leader in Makomo University, innocently, shifted the blame to the university management, complaining about the ever-increasing tuition fees that students pay every year, "*Our university management thinks that addressing the challenge of an infrastructure vacuum is by keeping on raising tuition fees every other year*", she lamented.

Similarly, Pinto—an Accreditation officer at NCHE advances that,

> The unhealthy competition that is thrown around the university market", he advances his argument, "…has registered frustration and dismal expectations on the minds of most university managers in Uganda today.

Pinto seems to augur well with Jones (2018) that rival competitors in the market of university education force a cost implication on universities surviving in this environment. Bureaucrats must advertise extensively, they must rebrand their product and, above all, must recruit expensive, high calibre staff to fit into the contestable market euphoria. This further fits Aristotle's (1943) treatise, all men by nature have a desire for money, as the intuitive reason for this economic narrative. Fitting into the contestable market logic is an end and the sort of end that exists not for the sake of something else, but a sign of this natural joy competitors put in their sensibility, for quite some usefulness.

However, Pinto is blaming the low funding challenge to external market forces that pause unfair competition with devastating consequences that cripple the revenue-base of the institution, "*The tendency to regard university education as a profit maximization venture is running the whole trade crazy*", he decries with despicable verity. Brittle (2007) has the same opinion that if the value which men attribute to the economic sensibility in the market of university education is not sensational enough to counter the grief of the end-user (consumer) of the education good, then it is pure logic to disrepute the market forces.

Paul is a Dean of Students in Lakunde University. Being the students' spokesperson at the top management of the university, Paul told the research team that his main idea is to defend students' interests much as he must defend the interests of his university. As such, his ideas are not quite far from those of Pinto, especially on the argument that the positive expectations of universities are crushed by the highly priced university education,

> "The only way to afford a competitive environment of university education is to either highly price education. This is what we in management do because we want to keep the university running for some time…"

3.1.2 Low Research Capacity

Intellectual freedom at the 'Ivory Tower' cannot be guaranteed if the research and publication culture of the academia is depressingly declining (Mamdani, 2017). However, the current status of research development in Ugandan universities is devastating leading us to question the level of intellectual freedom pertaining. Professor Akello candidly justifies this gap by recounting that many universities are into quantitative numbers and teaching as a material cause of student learning, other than in the quality of research and publications. In her words:

> Academic staff are quite buried into teaching, teaching and teaching, plus changing curricular because NCHE demands periodic reviews. There, universities are rightly doing the needful! But there is less scientific research done and winning of fundable projects done really…little initiative indeed!

Akello's voice is re-echoed by (DiMartino & Jessen, 2018; Barnett, 2011) that intellectual education cannot be actualized if research programmes are ignored or given less treatment in the material cause of student learning. For no learning can occur without the instrumentality of pragmatic reference to social changes, to which research is an essential duality that gives the final contemplation of the highest good. However, Kenneth, an officer working with the research department of NCHE, does not discredit the capacity of academic staff to grow the research function:

> But all universities have the capacity to look for research grants because they have quality staff with an interdisciplinary record. In fact, Ugandan Universities rank top in the East African region on matters of research competence and development prospects.

Although Catherine, a lecturer in Makombe University, adds to Kenneth's voice, she however indicates that this academic staff potential to develop the research function of the university is despicably frustrated by the simmering politics of publishing, as she resonates below:

> Academic staff really have the skills to conduct research and publish but many cannot do it in 'cutting-edge' journals and publishing houses. Personally, I have tried many times to get a post-doc scholarship in some prestigious universities, but many times, I have been let down by the selection team who have often declined my application on the pre-text that I lack a list of publications in the so-called credible and high impact journals like Social Science Citation Index [SSCI]!

The question in the voices of the study participants is '*what does it take to publish in a so-called high impact journal?*' If it means getting the skills after one gets a Postgraduate degree, such training seems to be muted! Many participants, though not elaborative on the subject, still contend that '*training to win fundable research grants*' has been barely treated by the Directorate of Research and Graduate studies of these universities. Participant voices seem to suggest that research and publishing are a popular and powerful tool with which to account for excellence in contemporary university environments if universities could work hard to eliminate the hurdles to its nourishment. Their voices are close to Arnold's (2004) observation that through research and publishing, critical thought is advanced in the learners and the professor as the credibility of any modern university and a contribution to the development of knowledge for social progress.

Many academic staff engage in research and publishing for academic growth and to improve their curriculum vitae. Catherine, a lecturer in the department of Humanities, adds her voice; "*Most of us research when it is an opportune time to tender in our application for a promotion…There is rather not much research activity apart from that really…*". It is inner intuition for Catherine to reason that research and publishing are used for ulterior practical ends, like vying for an academic promotion. Apart from that, staff rarely apprehend it.

However, there are voices who contend that research and publication are not economically paying ventures. So, they are not bothered, what brought them to teach at university is to earn income to invest in their other streams of businesses for personal development. Bridget, a graduate student at Makomo University, seems to have heard one of her professors say something like this; "…*the research culture in the Ugandan university is less fancied because people think it does not pay dearly, which is why many do not engage in the trade*", she had made the point. When the business of research becomes for economic gains, then its central axioms are irrationally defensible—it is intuited as immaterial since the substance to which its formal causality is prefigured is destroyed in the principle of contradictions.

3.1.3 The Deregulation Challenge

Although the deregulation of Uganda's university education permitted breaking of government's long-time monopoly over the business of higher education, allowing the private sector players to participate in provision and management of university education; deregulation has both sociological and philosophical drawbacks. Edith, an officer in the department of planning in the Higher Education Ministry, just articulated her pessimism about deregulation of university education:

> The policy only widens the gap of social stratification and inequity in university education access…There are many potential students out there who cannot afford to pay for their university education, but who, if they got such education, would be useful to this country.

Deregulation creates social stratification. To Max Weber's meta-cognition, the basic condition of deregulation is the emergency of class—the unequal distribution of economic power, to which multiple universities are entrenched, and to unequal distribution of opportunity in so far as this chance is determined by the power to dispose of education goods or skills for the sake of income in a given market for higher education (Bendix, 1966). It is this inequity that sprinkles the cost of education to the detrimental effect of the actual end-user.

Being an economist and planner, Edith's worry is focused on the widening poverty level in the country that could not afford parents and guardians take their children to university, now that the legal provisions for access were relaxed by the privatization of higher education and introduction of cost-sharing in the public university. Edith's metaphysics links to Scullion and Nixon (2011) who examine the social distance hypothesis in the distribution of education as an economic good versus its public nature. Status stratification becomes the order of things in capitalist economic provision, creating social distance and mutual exclusivity. The more nearly the education society reaches a caste system, the more heterogeneous in character, discriminatory in economic conventions.

On the other hand, Patrick, a student of a degree of Master of Development Studies in Lakunde University, directs his dissatisfaction of the deregulation problem to ever-increasing and "un-friendly" user fees charged to students to pursue their education. The tuition fees are quite high because many players in the market of university education are into the trade for profit-making reasons only. Patrick's submission is as such:

> It is good the government privatized university education so that many can afford to get a degree, because Uganda today needs graduates! However, the tuition fees are too high and university managers do not mind whether the fees are high…They are just into business because that is what the proprietors of the university business want—to get more and more profits…Not all students can afford to pay for these expensive courses and programmes. Some come from a humble economic background; some of us pay for our tuition fees yet we also have families to support. It really becomes a huge problem on us.

The problem of high tuition fees is a cutting-edge dilemma in the marketization of university education in Uganda. The principles to which education is priced are indemonstrable, not logically defensible in terms of the public interest. With many families struggling to get the antidote to employment, leaving on just meagre resources because of rampant poverty and limited support systems to enable them to put their children to university; there is no-doubt that payment of tuition fees will always remain a thorn in the foot of the many wailing families and student fraternity. The supreme wisdom rests upon lowering the cost of access for the sake of knowledge. Being the most universal, the object of knowledge generation is the farthest a university can bestow, framed by systems of men to escape from their ignorance.

Getting student bursaries is often a much pressed-for remedy to address the university affordability mismatch. Universities have three types of bursaries: a) State bursaries, b) University bursaries, c) Donor-community bursaries, and c) Non-governmental Organizations (NGO) bursaries. However, accessing these bursaries is political, as some participants seem to agree. For example, Monica's plight has been saddening as she tries to narrate her ordeal:

> I have tried to get a bursary in one of the NGOs to enable me fund my education uninterruptedly but have really failed. In some of these offices, the desk officers ask for bribes, others want something beyond the bursary you want—if you are a lady, men want to use you first. It is really crazy…

Buladda, strong and hopeful, gives a glimpse of his disheartening story,

> "Me…I have tried this 'bursary thing' several times since my first year and am still trying. Am hopeful that one day I will get a bursary to relieve my guardian of this burden of paying tuition fees".

Buladda is in his second year of study and he is very optimistic it will work out some-day.

> "I have tried the government bursary scheme, but it is not easy to get. They told me that it is given to students offering science disciplines [He wonders]. I must

try elsewhere. I went to Bulange-Mengo, in the education ministry to see if I can get the opportunity, but the policy was very clear: bursaries are given to students in their first year of study and must have been identified by the King's chiefs."

Some NGOs have helped students with bursaries using the Higher Education Access programme for students who did not meet the government bursary entry points but have potential to excess. The Higher Education Access scheme is restricted to just a few universities. Paul is a university representative of an NGOs funding students on the Higher Education Access programme "*I have been engaged in linking the NGO funding to some students in my university to the university management*" he says boldly. "*The programme helps only students doing science courses and a few diploma holders*". He explains the contents of the scheme as well as the challenge within this scheme "…*the Higher Education Access programme can only support very few students given the number of student entrants and potential entrants into the university*" yet access to bursaries is, manifestly, for men to seek universal knowledge for no utilitarian end, because it is supposed to be free science, for it alone exists for itself (Aristotle, 1943). But even the NGO programmes in place to support students' access to universal knowledge provide restricted and limited assistance, yet the number of those who would like to access free higher education is growing.

3.2 Resolving the Market Contestability Challenge

In phase two of data collection, we sought quantitative data on how to resolve the three challenges (i.e. Funding problem, Low Research and Publication, and the deregulation problem), using 180 participants (Students=100; Lecturers=60; University Managers=20) picked from Lakunde and Makombe Universities.

3.2.1 The Funding Problem

On the funding problem as a contestable market challenge, we gave the participants a list of possible remedies to this problem then asked the following question "*Can the following remedies minimize the funding problem of the university in this competitive market of university education? [Please indicate your opinion for each remedy]*." Using descriptive statistics (Mean and Standard Deviation), participant opinions were summarized in Table 3.

Table 2. Resolving the Funding Challenge

Responses	**Students (=100)**		**Lecturers (=60)**		**Managers (=20)**	
Resource mobilization	1.4	0.49	1.5	0.50	1.8	0.41
Grant writing	1.1	0.30	1.7	0.42	1.7	0.47
Student loan schemes	1.8	0.40	1.4	0.49	1.45	0.51
Academic programmes	1.5	0.50	1.46	0.53	1.6	0.502
Financial audit compliance	1.3	0.47	1.5	0.50	1.75	0.44
Attract bursary opportunities	1.7	0.42	1.4	0.49	1.4	0.50
State Regulation of fees levied	1.7	0.42	1.36	0.48	1.3	0.47
Subsidized student employment	1.3	0.47	1.2	0.37	1.2	0.41

In Table 2, students indicated the student loan scheme as their most preferred (Mean=1.8) remedy for resolving the funding problem in the contestable market of university education. Then attracting more student bursaries (Mean=1.7) and government to regulate the fees levied by different universities (Mean=1.7) by putting a common fee bracket were other alternative remedies for students. However, students did not side with grant writing (Mean=1.1) because they did not understand how grants can help resolve their fees problem. Even in universities with a big grant winning record, they contemplate that fees have remained 'pathetically' high.

For the lecturers, grant writing (Mean=1.7) was the most sighted remedy to the funding problem of the universities. The lecturers feel universities should fulfil the higher education objective of research development by writing winning research grants. This would help the university diversify its funding options as it elevates the publishing record of the academic staff. Resource mobilization (1.5) was rated second by the same lecturers, because they feel all universities should have a robust research mobilization agenda. Encouraging student loan schemes (1.4), writing more academic programmes (1.46) and attracting more student bursaries (1.4) are also possible options to minimize the funding problem in universities as perceived by lecturers.

The university managers point out resource mobilization (1.8) as the most preferred remedy, financial audit compliance (1.75) and grant writing (1.7). It is the work of management to put in place a resource mobilization strategy and observe financial audit queries in order to minimize un-necessary expenditures. Many universities, thinking that through over borrowing moneys for expansion of infrastructure, they have been victims of huge financial gaps. They fail to comply with the numerous and progressive internal and external audit queries which puts them in a gross funding fracas.

These remedies are equally contemplated by Senyonyi (2015) who argues that there are various means to support funding in universities like direct grants from government, scholarships and loan schemes as provided by the National Development Plan to continue and embrace sponsorship, research grants through

Public-Private Partnerships with various corporates, and the model of a commercial centre to create an endowment.

3.2.2 Low Research and Publication

The Lecturers (N=80) and University Managers (N=20) were asked to list what they think would be strategies to promote research and publication in the university. The question was "What do you think could be done to promote the research and publications function in your university?" A list of possible answers from these participants was compiled and analysed (Figure 1).

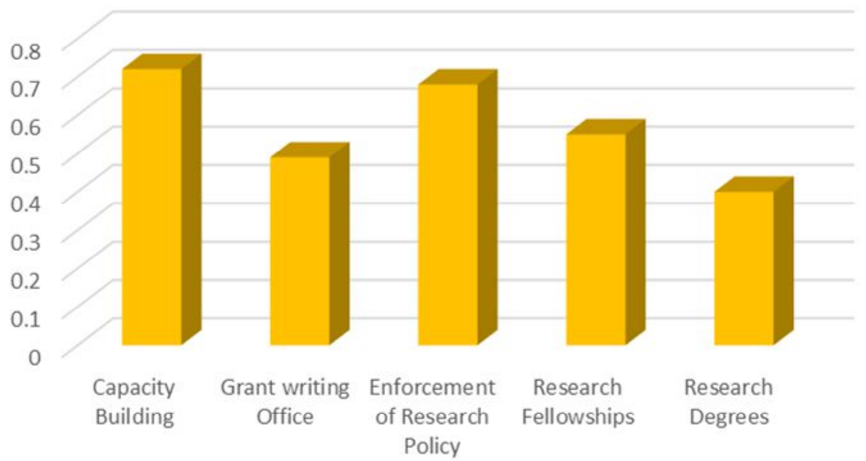

Figure 1. Suggestions for Resolving the Challenges

In Figure 1, capacity building trainings on how to write winning research grants (72%) was rated the most important strategy. Possession and enforcement of a research policy and agenda was also critical (68%), followed by institution of research fellowships (55%) like encouraging postdoc opportunities for academic staff and sabbatical leave to do cutting edge research. Establishing a grant writing office (49%) and encouraging more graduate research programmes (40%) like masters and doctorate degree scholars, were the least fancied remedies. Hazelkorn (2017) likewise thinks that African universities can sustain their research function by building a competitive advantage in training academics, establishing a research office, technological transfer and developing graduate training.

The lecturers (80) and university managers (20) combined, gave their views of how the problem associated with government's deregulation of university education could be addressed (Table 3).

Table 3. Resolving the Deregulation Problem

Summary Responses	Count	%
Regulation of student fees levied	45	56.25
Regulation of quality of universities	70	87.5
Regulation of Academic Programmes and Courses	75	93.75
Make Education a Public Good	60	75
Political Control of University Education	30	43.75

Although the state removes regulations that make it a monopoly of university education access, deregulation pauses serious efficiency challenges that usually affect consumer choice of the education product. It is vital to minimize these efficiency problems by instituting strict quality assurance mechanisms. Therefore, regulating academic programmes and courses offered by universities is the most sighted (93.75%) remedy for controlling the deregulation problem. But also, regulation of quality of the university operations (87.5%) through the licensing and chartering process (87.5%) is collectively agreed upon by lecturers and university managers. But political control of the market of university education (43.75%) was least preferred because universities would not wish to go back to the centralization of higher education.

The empirical findings on deregulation are however supported by Enders, de Boer and Weyer's (2013) secondary reflection that higher Education, world over, is dogged with the challenge of quality assurance especially where government is no longer the sole provider of education at that level. Through regulatory programmes, universities can ensure quality outputs for the market of higher education. This is also consistent with Edoru (2018) who defines quality assurance as necessary in universities to ensure excellence, meet the threshold standards and fitness for purpose.

3.3 Legislation, Rival Market Contestability and University Policy

This paper examines how the 'rival-contested' market of university education influence university policy. Again, the paper examines how the state uses political legislation to influence university policy. The role of the state in universities and their markets is emphasized in the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act (2001) which mandates the state to control university processes in relation to the larger market of university education. A university is an institutionalized 'social organism' decisively affected by its contextual behaviour and constraints, and through legislation, it controls and regulates contextual behaviour. Because of the institutional nature of the university-contestable market behaviour, we tried to bring out sections of the UOTIA and try to see how they resolve the identified contestability market challenges.

The state, through act of parliament, makes laws to guide institutional administration and university functions as indicated in section 4(1) of the UOTIA

(2001). Law, according to the Weberian Model of Social Stratification, is a system that is effective because people orient their action to it. It is provided with an enforcement apparatus (Pyakural, 2018; Noah, Adesoji & Bolaj, 2017). The university council formulates general university policy to guide institutional operations as shown in section 40 (2b) of the UOTIA (2001). This regulatory power of the council is done under state jurisprudence bearing the overall responsibility of controlling and regulating market forces. Once there is institutional legislation, whatever change occurs in the market of university education and the university policy process will lead to greater conformity, facilitated by coercive processes (Greenwood, 2008). In public universities, the state selects the university council membership because public universities are state controlled. In private universities, much as it is the owners of the university that choose the membership, government may send its representatives on the council to seal government's influencing arm. This is consistent with an earlier study by Scott (1992) that, university organizations have the potential to reconstruct the rules, norms and beliefs that guide their actions in the market of university education. These rules are the law and policy establishments.

The powers of the university council (section 41) precisely include 41(a) to represent the university in all legal matters. Because some challenges of the contestable market of university education may require legal interpretation and battles, the state gives university council mandate of legal representation. In political philosophy, human life presents numerous legal problems and the state has the mandate to formulate law to regulate and/or counter these philosophical problematics. In order to tackle the funding and resource mobilization problem, the university council appoints the finance and planning committees and mandates them to address these problems. But the extent to which these committees handle the assignment is what is questionable. If they have the mandate, then why are these persistent problems?

The state has also appointed the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) to oversee university business and operations on her behalf. The NCHE statutory regulation No.85 (2005) offers institutional standards to control quality (NCHE Statutory instrument No. 85, 2005), licensing (NCHE Statutory instrument No. 61 of 2007) and provision of minimum entry requirements to any course of study (NCHE statutory instrument No. 63, 2007). This regulation is meant to control free entry and exit of players in market competition. Though entry may be free, a player ought to fulfil the requirements of entry into a rival contestability market. Section 5(i) of the UOTIA (2001) "*All academic programmes of the university must meet minimum standards as set out by NCHE*".

University policy is reviewed periodically in line with market demands and challenges [Section 43(c) of the UOTIA (2001)]. In order to manage the research and publication problem, the university council appoints senate [section 45(2)] as a responsible committee to control and organize academic matters like teaching and research. Studies by Enders, de Boer and Weyer (2013) indicate that institutional regulation is necessary to put control on the operations and actions of an organization for collective rationality and aided performance. The senate does its role of initiating academic policy, review and evaluate courses, methodology and curricular. It also promotes the research function in the university as well as the admission policy of the university.

3.4 Conclusion and Recommendation

In this paper an effort was made to discuss the philosophical identities behind "the monopolistic competitive market" of university education in Uganda. The metaphysical character of this contestable market of university education perceives low funding, low research and publication, as well the problem of deregulation as its principle challenges. The political philosophical character dons that, forces and factors in the contestable market of university education are dealt through political legislation. The state mandates the university to make policies that challenge market forces with a destabilizing effect while protecting those that bear a long stint of opportunities for the same market. To counter all challenges of a monopolistic competitive market, this paper recommends an institutional legislation framework in which the state has the overall mandate to make regulatory frameworks.

References

Aristotle (1943). Metaphysics. *On man in the universe* (edited with introduction by L.R. Loomis). New York: Walter Black.

Arnold, G. B. (2004). Symbolic Politics and Institutional Boundaries in Curriculum Reform: The Case of National Sectarian University. *Journal of Higher Education, 75*(5), 572-593.

Barnett, R. (2011). The Marketized University: Defending the Indefensible. In M. Molesworth, R. Scullion & E. Nixon. (Eds.), *Higher Education and the Student as a consumer* (pp. 39-52). New York, NY: Routledge.

Baum, S. & McPherson, M. (2012). Monopolistic Competition and the very small college. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. http://www.chronicle.come/innovations/monopolistic competition/31279#.

Bell, H.R. (2002). *Understanding African Philosophy: A cross-cultural approach to classical and contemporary issues in Africa*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Bendix, R. (1966). *An Intellectual Portrait*. Lowe and Brydone (Printers) Ltd, London.

Di Martino, Jessen & Butler, Sarah (2018). Selling School: The marketing of public education. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Easton, D. (2007). Models of Policy Analysis. In R.K. Sapru (Ed.), *Public Policy* (2nd edition). India: Sterling Publishers Pvt, New Delhi.

Edoru, J.M. (2018). Quality Assurance in Higher Education Institutions: The Conceptual and Operational Issues. Paper presented at a Quality Assurance Workshop at Kabale University, 14th December, 2018.

Enders, J., de Boer, H., & Weyer, E. (2013). Regulatory autonomy and performance: the reform of higher education re-visited. *Higher Education, 65*(1), 5-23. DOI: 10.1007/s10734-012-9578-4

Grima, M. (2013). *Negotiating Indigenous Metaphysics as educational philosophy in Ethiopia*. ETF, Leuven, Belgium. Springer.

Hansmann, H. (1999). The state and the market of higher education. Ownership and competition in higher education. *Mercato Concorrenza Regole* 475-496.

Hazelkorn, E. (2017). University Research Management: Developing Research in New Institutions. OECD Publication.

Howard, M. (2006). *Explaining increases in Higher Education Costs. College of William and Mary*. Department of Economics, Working Paper, No. 42.

Jones, Glen A. (2018). Decentralization, Provincial Systems, and the Challenge of Equity: Higher Participation in Higher Education in Canada. In B. Cantwell, S. Marginson & A Smolentseva (Eds.), Higher Participation Systems of Higher Education (pp. 203-226). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Kasozi, A.B.K. (2009). Financing Uganda's Public Universities: An obstacle to serving the public good. Kampala: Fountain Publishers.

Kasozi, A.B.K. (2000). University Education in Uganda: Challenges and Opportunities for Reform. Fountain Series in Education Studies. Kampala. Fountain Publishers.

Lajur, W. (2014). *African Philosophy: Critical dimensions*. Kampala: Fountain Publishers. http://www.fountainpublishers.co.ug

Marginson, S. (2006). Dynamics of national and global competition in higher education. *The International Journal of Higher Education and Educational Planning*, Vol. 52(1), pp. 1-39.

Masanja, V. G. & Lwakabamba, S. (2016). Liberalization of higher education in Sub-Saharan Africa. *RUFORUM working Document Series* (ISSN 1607-9345), No. 14 (2), pp.1-7. Available from http://www.repository.ruforum.org.

Mugerwa, D. (2002). *Political Penetration and Primordial Attachment at Makerere University: A study of Organizational Effectiveness*. Kampala: MK Publishers (U) Ltd.

Musisi, Nakanyike, B. & Nansozi, M. (2003). *Makerere University in transition, 1993-2000: Opportunities and Challenges*. Oxford and Kampala: James Curry & Fountain Publishers.

Muwagga, A.M. (2007). *Myth and Reality behind the university axiological stances in African universities*. Presentations from the DETA conference. http://www.deta.up.ac.za

Muwagga, A.M. (2011). Reflections on the Philosophy behind the different universities in Uganda. *Educational Research*, Vol. 2 (1), pp. 736-744.http://www.interestjournals.org/ER.

NCHE (2013). The State of Higher Education in Uganda 2011: A report on Higher Education Delivery and Institutions. NCHE.www.unche.or.ug.

Nijai, P. (2017). *Case study of Monopolistic Competition in India*. Retrieved from: https://www.ukessays.com/essays/marketing/market-leader in soaps-and-detergents.php?vref=1.

Noah, A.O.K., Adesoj, A., & Bolaj, D.S (2017). Deregulation of Higher Education in Nigeria: A Call for Restraint. In Jude Ssempebwa, Peter Neema-Abooki & J.C.S Musaazi (Eds.), Innovating University Education: Issues in Contemporary African Higher Education. Kampala: Fountain Publishers.

Ornstein, A.C. (2011). Philosophy as a basis for curriculum decisions. In A.C. Ornstein, E.F. Pajak & O.B. Stacey (2011) (Eds.), *Contemporary issues in curriculum* (5th edition), New York, NY: Pearson

Ornstein, A.C., Pajak, E.F. & Stacey, O. (2011). *Contemporary issues in curriculum* (5th edition), New York, NY: Pearson.

Osuji, C.N.R., Mafara, R.M. & Chagbe, B. (2016). A Case for Private Sector Participation in Higher Education Development in Africa with specific reference to Recovery in a Globalized Economy. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education (MAJOHE)*, Vol. 8 (1&2), pp. 59-70.

Otieno, W. (2004). The Privatization of Kenyan Public Universities. *International Higher Education*, No. 36, Summer 2004.

Pepall, R. & Norman, P. (2005). *Industrial Organization*: *Contemporary Theory and Practice* (3rd Edition). Thomson Publishers, South-Western.

Roncaglia, A., (2005). *A History of Economic Thought: The Wealth of Ideas,* Cambridge University Press, the Edinburgh Building, Cambridge, UK

Salermo, C. (Spring 2006). Cost-sharing in Higher Education Financing: Economic Perils in Developing Countries. *International Higher Education*. Boston College, No.43.

Scott, W. R. (2005). Institutional Theory: Contributing to a Theoretical Research Program. In M. A. Hitt & K. G. Smith (Eds.), *Great minds in management: the process of theory development* (pp. 460-484). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Senyonyi, John (2015). Resource Mobilization for Universities. Uganda Vice Chancellors' Forum Bulletin. Kampala, Uganda.

Sergey, K., Parenti, M. & Thiss, J.F. (2011). *When is Monopolistic Competition the relevant market structure?* Accessible on http://www.researchgate.net/publication/228458962.

Sicherman, C. (2005). *Becoming an African University: Makerere University, 1922-2000*. Kampala: Fountain Publishers.

Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act (2001). Government of Uganda policy to regulate Higher Education Institutions.

Wilson, J.Q. (1992). *The Politics of Policy Making*. California: Sage Publishers.

Ziderman, A. (2003). *Student Loans in Thailand: Are they effective, equitable sustainable?* Bangkok: UNESCO.

Utilization of E-Learning Resources among Tertiary Students in Ogun State, Nigeria

Adeola Kiadese Lukmon
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8575-9363
Tai Solarin College of Education

Abstract. This study investigated assessment of e-learning resources utilization by students of tertiary institutions in Ogun State, Nigeria. The study was conducted using a descriptive survey design. Three hundred and eighty-one (381) tertiary students in the area were randomly selected for the study. A researcher-designed questionnaire titled "Utilization of E-learning Resources Questionnaire" (UERQ) with a Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of 0.76 was used to collect data. Frequency counts, percentages, means, t-test and ANOVA statistics were used to analyse the data. The findings were that there is a significant difference in utilization of e-learning resources based on class and institutions. However, there is no significant difference based on gender and age. It is recommended that tertiary institutions re-design their general studies curriculum to include e-learning skills so as to help students to understand how they can utilize e-learning resources.

Keywords: E-learning; Resources management; ICT.

1 Introduction

E-Learning is becoming a veritable tool employed in enhancing academic achievement. Nwokike (2010) defined e-learning as an innovative approach that delivers an electronically mediated, leaner centred and interactive learning environment to anyone, at any time and in any place by utilizing the internet and associated digital technologies. There is increasing recognition of the potential of e-learning to meet the world's ever-growing educational needs. E-learning takes various forms including web-based, satellite, TV, video conferencing, and mobile technology (Eke, 2011).

East African School of Higher Education Studies & Development, Makerere University

Makerere Journal of **Higher Education**
ISSN: 1816-6822 (Print); 1816-6822 (Online)
11 (2) (2019) 139 – 147
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.4

Reprints & permission: EASHESD
http://ajol.info/majohe
Conflict of interest: None
Funding: None

Cite article as: Lukmon, A.K. (2019). Utilization of E-Learning Resources among Tertiary Students in Ogun State, Nigeria. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education*, 11 (2), 139-147. http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.4.

In order for students to utilize and enjoy the usefulness of e-learning resources efficiently in Nigerian tertiary institutions, they must have the mastery of operating educational hardware. Also functioning e-learning resources must be available to them in their institutions and they should be motivated to use them. E-learning can occur inside or outside of the classroom. It can be self-paced (asynchronous learning) or it can be instructor led (synchronous learning).

Asynchronous E-learning is self-paced and allows participants to engage in the exchange of ideas or information without the dependency on other participants' involvement at the same time (Wikipedia, 2014). It uses technologies such as e-mails, blogs, wikis and discussion boards as well as web-support, textbooks (Loutcko, Kurbel & Pakhomov, 2002). On the other hand, Synchronous e-learning occurs in real time with all participants interacting at the same time (Wikipedia, 3014). It involves the exchange of ideas and information with one or more participants during the same period of time.

A face to-face discussion is an example of synchronous learning. In e-learning environments, examples of synchronous learning include online real time live teacher instruction and feedback, Skype conversations, chat rooms or virtual classrooms. Both the synchronous and asynchronous learning methods rely heavily on motivation, self-discipline and the ability to communicate in writing effectively. E-learning is not a new phenomenon in promoting education in some parts of the world. Some institutions in Nigeria use it to promote distance learning education and life-long learning. A good example is the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) and distance learning centres in some universities. Nwokike (2011) summarized the merits of e-learning as follows:

1. Electronic learning is both convenient to the teacher and the learner.
2. E-learning is flexible, and learning can take place anywhere and anytime.
3. Learners enjoy having the opportunity to learn at their own pace and their own time and
4. E-learning helps students to develop knowledge of ICT and digital technologies.

E-learning is beneficial to education, to teachers and to learners. It is one of the effective ways to facilitate teaching and learning in Nigerian tertiary institutions. Assessment plays an important role in the teaching and learning process. The essence of assessment is to ensure quality, to improve teaching methods and students' performance. It is crucial to the educational process both for teachers' advancement, students' promotion, and effective teaching. Assessments of learning (summative) generally occurs at the conclusion of a course, semester or academic year. Assessments for learning is formative in nature and is used by the teachers to consider approaches to teaching and next steps for individual learners and the class (Earl, 2003). Formative assessment provides feedback, which can be used to improve learning while the programme of instruction is still on.

In addition, assessment involves the collection of information about an individual's knowledge, skills, attitudes, judgment, interpretation and using the data to take relevant decisions about the individual, instructional process, curriculum or programme (Ugodulunwa, 2008). Anikweze (2013) defines assessment to include teacher, peer and self-assessment processes, where the goal is to develop new models of assessment, generally to foster life-long skills.

Because assessment covers all aspects of school learning, teachers must be skilled in different techniques of assessment. These techniques include tests, projects, observation, anecdotal records, interviews and rating scales etc.

The roles of e-learning in the teaching and learning process cannot be overestimated, especially in Nigeria where emphasis is being placed on technological development (Olutola & Olatoye, 2015). Based on the importance of e-learning resources in the teaching and learning process, this study investigated assessment of e-learning resources utilization by undergraduate students of tertiary instructions in Ogun State, Nigeria. The following questions were addressed:

1. What is the students' level of utilization of e-learning resources in Ogun State tertiary institutions?
2. Is there a significant gender difference in the e-learning resources utilization of students of tertiary institutions in Ogun State?
3. Is there a significant difference in the e-learning resources utilization by students of tertiary institution in Ogun State, on the basis of class level?
4. Is there a significant difference in the e-learning resources utilization by students of tertiary institution in Ogun State on basis of institutions?
5. Is there a significant difference in the e-learning resources utilization by students of tertiary institutions in Ogun State on the basis of age?
6. Is there a significant difference in the e-learning resources utilization between students of universities and college of education in Ogun State?

2 Methodology

The study adopted a descriptive survey design. The population comprised all students in public tertiary institutions in Ogun State, while the target population was made up of the students in Tai Solarin College of Education, Omu; Federal College of Education, Abeokuta; Tai Solarin University of Education, Ijagun; and Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye. Simple random sampling was used to select students from the institutions. A total of three hundred and eighty-one (381) students participated in the study. A researcher designed questionnaire titled "Utilization of E-learning Resources Questionnaires" (UERQ) was used. The questionnaire was divided into two sections, which respectively elicited data on the respondents and their utilization of e-learning resources. The utilization of e-learning resources was measured on a four point Likert-type scale. Expert judgment was used in validating the instrument. Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient for the instrument was established at .76. The data collected was analysed using frequency counts, percentages, means, t-test and ANOVA (at the level of confidence p. =.05).

3 Findings

3.1 Utilization of E-learning Resources

Table 1: Utilization of E-learning resources (%, n = 381)

E-learning technologies	Frequently used	Seldom used	Not used	Not available	No response	Total
Web-based resources	15	10	33	39	3	100
Computer based resources	13	8	35	42	2	100
Virtual Classrooms	20	9	24	40	7	100
Content delivery via e-networks	24	15	33	21	6	100
Audio/ video tapes	30	17	21	26	7	100
Satellite TV/dishes	30	14	18	32	6	100
CD-ROM	28	16	21	27	8	100
Video conference	46	14	17	14	10	100
I-pads	45	13	15	12	15	100
E-mail	8	7	23	55	7	100
Wireless and mobile technologies	6	9	20	62	3	100
Internet	4	7	18	68	3	100

From Table 1, 57 (15%) of the respondents affirmed that web-based learning resources are available and frequently used by them, 40(10%) responded that it is available but not frequently used by them, 127(33%) responded that it is available but not used at all and 147(39%) responded that web-based learning resources are not available to them and 10(3%). On the use of e-mail, item 10 reveals that 30(8%) of the respondents affirmed E-mail is available and frequently used by them, 28(7%) responded that it is available but not frequently used by them, 87(23%) responded that it is available but not used at all and 210(55.1%) responded that e-mail is not available to them.

3.2 Gender and Utilisation of E-learning Resources

Table 2. Difference in utilization of e-learning resources by gender

Variable	N	X	SD	Df	Cal. t-value	Sig. of t-value	Decision
Male	232	31.4335	8.298	379	0.321	0.748	Not Significant.
Female	149	31.1544	8.387				

Table 2 reveals that there is no significant difference in the utilization of e-learning resources between male and female students of tertiary institutions (t=0.32, P>0.05). Thus, male and female students in tertiary institutions in Ogun State are not significantly different in their use of e-learning resources.

3.3 Class Level and Utilisation of E-learning Resources

Table 3. ANOVA in utilization of e-learning resources by class level

Sources	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Remark
Between Groups	378	3	126.21	1.834	.140	Not Significant
Within Groups	25945	377	68.82			
Total	26323	380				

Table 3 reveals that there is no significant difference in the use of e-learning recourse by students' level of study (100 level to 400 level). All the students were using the resources.

3.4 Institution and Utilisation of E-learning Resources

Table 4. ANOVA in utilization of e-learning resources by tertiary institution

Sources	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Remark
Between Groups	324.109	3	108.036	1.567	197	Not Significant
Within Groups	25999-534	377	68.964			
Total	26323.643	380				

Table 4 reveals that there is no significant difference in the use of e-learning resources by students based on their institutions. Students in each institution use e-learning resources just like students in any other institution ($F_3 377 = 1.567$, $P > 0.05$).

3.5 Age and Utilisation of E-learning Resources

Table 5. Differences in utilization of e-learning resources by age.

Variable	N	X	SD	Df	t	Sig.	Remark
22 years and below	233	31.1121	8.70699	379	.594	0.553	Not Significant
Over 22 years	158	31.6266	7.76607				

Table 5 reveals that there is no significant difference between the use of e-learning recourses by students of tertiary institutions in Ogun State based on their age (t=-o.594, P>0.05). Thus, students in tertiary institutions in Ogun State are not significantly different in their use of e-learning resources based on their age.

3.6 Type of Institution and Utilisation of E-learning Resources

Table 6. Differences in utilization of e-learning resources by category of institution

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Df	t	Sig.	Remark
Universities	183	30.8	8.38	379	-1.166	.245	Not Significant
Colleges of Education	198	31.8	8.26				

Table 6 reveals that there is no significant difference between the use of e-learning resources by students of universities and colleges of education in Ogun State (t=-1.166, P>0.05). Thus, students of universities and college of education in Ogun State are not significantly different in their use of e-learning resources.

4 Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the data collected, the findings of this study revealed that there is no significant difference in the male and female students of tertiary institutions use of e-learning resources. This implies that male and female students in Ogun State have the same level of utilization of e-learning resources. The findings of this study is against the study by Amkpa (2007), which revealed that male and female students differ significantly in attitudes towards computer applications which later affect their job opportunities after graduation. In addition, Ford and Moss (1996) reported that gender is a predictor of internet use and attitudes, males seem to enjoy browsing on the internet for enjoyment, while females tend to only use it for work-related purposes. This finding disagrees with the studies by Manda and Mulkangara (2007) and Ford, Miller and Moss (2001) who reported that male students use e-resources more than female students, and that female students have more difficulties finding information online than male students Ozoemelem (2009) reported high frequency of use of electronic information resources by both male and female postgraduate students. Also, it was discovered that there is no significant difference in the e-learning resources utilization by students of tertiary institutions in Ogun State on the basis of class level (100 to 400 levels).

In addition, there is no significant difference between students of tertiary institutions in Ogun State on the basis of institutions. This study is against the study of Olatokun (2009), which found that the level of education had the strongest influence on the capability to use personal computer and computer with Internet services by different categories of people including students, with respondents having less education being more disadvantaged in the use of internet.

Chiaha, Eze and Ezeudu's (2013) study is in agreement with the findings of this study. In their study, they found that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of federal and state universities on the extent to which students have access to e-learning facilities. Their findings in both state and federal institutions revealed that a greater percentage (57.15%) of undergraduate students did not have access to e-learning facilities. Specifically, the study reveals that 60.48% of students did not have personal computers, while 57.4% and 61.61% did not have regular electricity supply.

Moreover, the findings show that there is no significant difference in the e-learning resources utilization by undergraduate students of tertiary institutions in Ogun State based on age. Age has no influence on the utilization of e-learning resources by students. This implies that the age of students cannot determine the utilization of e-learning resources in Nigerian tertiary institutions. The Pew Internet and American Lie Project found that although 73% of teens between the ages of 12 and 17 use media, the rates of social media use are even higher (83%) for young adults between the ages of 18 and 29 (Lenhart, Purcell, Aaron, & Zickuhr, 2010:; Madeen & Zickhur, 2011). Due to age restrictions and limited access to social media, pre-adolescent students do not appear to have the same level of social media use as older students (Lenhat et al., 2010). In addition to the number of teens and young adults using social media, two-thirds of adult Internet users also use social media (Madden & Zickhur, 2011).

This study investigated the assessment of e-learning resources utilization by students of tertiary institutions in Ogun State, Nigeria. The findings of this study revealed that the age, gender, institutions and class level of students in tertiary institutions had no influence on the utilization of e-learning resources by the students. This implies that the age, gender, institutions and class level of students cannot determine the utilization of e-learning resources in Nigerian tertiary institutions. The following recommendations are made:

1. Government should provide adequate fund to equip all the e-learning centres in Nigerian tertiary institutions.
2. Nigerian tertiary institutions General Studies (GST) curriculum should be re-designed to include e-learning utilization training to help the students to understand how they can utilize e-learning resources.
3. There should be an awareness campaign on the usefulness and utilization of e-learning resources in Nigerian tertiary institutions,
4. Government and other stakeholders in education should assess the level of utilization of e-learning resources by students of Nigerian tertiary institutions periodically to know their needs and challenges, and
5. Private sector, non-governmental and voluntary organizations should also assist to equip tertiary institutions' e-learning resource centres.

References

Amkpa, S. A. (2007). Gender and age difference in computer use and attitude among student of University of Maiduguri. *The Information Technologists (4(1), 60-67.*

Anikweze, C. M. (2013). Assessment practices and the challenges of innovations in Nigerian Education. *Paper presented at an institutional seminar organized by the Joint Admissions and Matriculation Board (JAMB), Abuja on 3rd September, 2013 at the JAMB Auditorium.*

Chiaha, G. U; Eze, J. U and Ezeudu, F. O. (2013). Education students' access to e-learning facilities in universities South-East of Nigeria. *Information and Knowledge Management, 3, (10), 32-41.*

Daniel, J. (2009). E-learning for development: using information and communications technologies to bridge the bridge the digital divide. *Common wealth Ministers Reference. Henley Media Group.*

Earl, L. (2003). *Assessment as Learning: Using Classroom Assessment to Maximize Student Learning.* Oak, CA, Crowin Press.

Eke, H.N. (2011) Modelling LIS Students' Intention to Adapt e-Learning: A Case from University of Nigeria Nsukka, *Library Philosophy and Practice,* ISSN 1522-0222.

Ford, N. and Miller, D. (1996). "Gender difference in internet perception and use". In M. Collier and K. Arnold (Ed). Electronic Library and Virtual Information Research. *ELI/IRA 3: Papers from the third ELVIRA conference 30 April 2 May 1996* 87-100.

Ford, N., Miller, D. and Moss, N. (2001). "The role of individual difference in Internet searching. An Empirical study". *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology, 52(12), 1049-1066.*

Hedge, N. and Haward, L. (2004). Reading roles: University e-learning contributing to life-long learning in networked world, *www. Nation master. Com.*

Internet & American Life Project. *Retrieved from: http:/pewinternet.org/Reports/2011/Social Networking-Sites.aspx.*

Lenhart, A. Purcell, K. Aaron, S., & Zickuhr. (2010). Social media & mobile Internet use among teens and young adults. Pew Internet & American Life Project. *Retrieved from http./pewinternet.org/Reports/2010/Social Media-and-Young-Adults.aspx*

Loutchko, I, Kurbel, K. and Pakhomov, A. (2002). Production and Delivery of Multimedia Courses for Internet Based Virtual Education. The World Congress "Networked Learning in a Global Environment: Challenges: and Solution for Virtual Education". Berlin. Germany, May 14, 2002.

Madden, M., & Zickhur, K. (011).65% of online adults use social networking sites: Women maintain their foothold on SNS use and older Americans are still coming aboard. Pew

Manda, P. A. and Mulkangara, F. (2007). Gender analysis of electronic information recourses use: A case of the University of Dar es Salaam. *Library Journal, 9 (1), 31-52.*

Nwokike, F. O. (2010), Economic implication of e-learning in Nigeria education system. A Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Annual Conference of the Faculty of Education Nnamdi Azikwe University, Akwa.

Nwokike, F. O. (2011). Optimizing e-learning for effective delivery of business education in tertiary institutions. In the 21st Century in Onyegegbu, N. and Eze, U. (Eds.) Optimizing E-learning Opportunity for Effective Education Service Delivery. *Publication of Institute of Education (UNN).*

Olatokun, W. M. (2009). Analysing socio-demographic differences in access and use of ICTs in Nigeria using the capability approach. *Issues in Inform. Sci. Inform. Technol. 6:479-496*.

Olutola, A. T. and Olatoye, O. O. (2015). Challenges of e-learning technologies in Nigerian university education. *Journal of Educational and Social Research, 5(1), pp.301-305*.

Ozoemelem, O. A, (2009). Use of electronic resources by postgraduate students of the department of library and information science of Delta State University, Abraka, Nigeria.

Ugodulunwa, C. A. (2008). *Fundamentals of Educational Measurement and Evaluation. Jos: Fab Anieh Nig. Ltd.*

Wikipedia (2014). E-learning, Retrieved on 25 May 2014: *http:/en.wikipedia.org/wiki/e- learning.*

Teachers' Perception of the usefulness of ICT in Colleges of Education in Osun State, Nigeria

Faremi Margaret Funke
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8675-9363
Department of Arts and Social Science Education, Faculty of Education, Osun State University, Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria

Abanikannda Mutahir Oluwafemi
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5599-9577
Department of Science, Technology and Mathematics Education,
Faculty of Education, Osun State University, Osogbo, Osun State, Nigeria

Abstract. This study sought information on teachers' perception of the usefulness of ICT on their effectiveness. The population comprised of the teachers in Colleges of Education teachers in Osun State. A random sample of one hundred (100) teachers was selected from these teachers. The data collected were analysed using frequency counts, percentages, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and t-test statistics. The findings were that there was no significant relationship between ICT resources and teachers' effectiveness; there was a positive relationship between teachers' attitudes towards the usage of ICT and their usage of ICT; and that there is a difference in usage of ICT in teaching by gender. It is argued that for teachers to appreciate usage of ICTs in teaching, they need to see that ICT tools are imperative for teaching.

Keywords: E-learning; ICT; Teacher training.

1 Introduction

Education is a process of bringing or moulding the young for living a pleasant and happy life. Educating someone or helping somebody to learn something by providing required information is teaching (Rupnar et al., 2017). Teachers in all nations constitute a major input in the accomplishment of educational goals and objectives, also trained and effective teachers are the principal asset of any educational system (Patrick et al., 2018). Improving teacher quality through

East African School of Higher Education Studies & Development, Makerere University

Makerere Journal of **Higher Education**
ISSN: 1816-6822 (Print); 1816-6822 (Online)
11 (2) (2019) 149 – 159
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.5

Reprints & permission: EASHESD
http://ajol.info/majohe
Conflict of interest: None
Funding: None

* Corresponding author: margaret.faremi@uniosun.edu.ng.

Cite article as: Funke, F. M., Oluwafemi, A. M. (2019). Teachers' Perception of the usefulness of ICT in Colleges of Education in Osun State, Nigeria. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education*, 11 (2), 149-159. http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.5.

enhancing teacher effectiveness has been of global concern. Teachers' effectiveness has been of major concern to researchers, educationists and policy makers all over the world for educational reforms during the last five decades. Teachers have a long lasting influence on their students. They directly affect how students learn, how much they learn and the ways in which they interact with one another and the world around them (Rupnar et al 2017 Kennedy, 2010; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005).

Effective teaching includes high level of creativity in analysing, synthesizing and presenting knowledge in new and effective ways. It instils in the learners the ability to be analytical, intellectually curious, culturally aware, employable and capable of leadership (Okolie, 2014). Effectiveness of individual classroom teacher is the single largest factor affecting academic growth of the students (Oviewe, 2016; Okolocha & Onyeneke, 2013). Some studies have revealed that the decision to adopt a particular technology is a very complex phenomenon that requires holistic, empirical investigation to be understood (Adamkolo et al. 2018; Abu Bakar, Abdul Razak & Abdullah 2013; AbdulRahman, Jamaluddin & Mahmud 2011).

As cited by (Buhari and Nwoji, 2015), It should be noted that The National Policy on Education by Federal Republic of Nigeria (2004) stated that no education system can rise above the quality of its teachers. However, some studies had shown that most teachers in Nigeria were not able to cope with the pace of technological adoption in the classroom owing to constraints such as lack of adequate ICT orientation and training for teachers, lack of availability of adequate ICT infrastructure in schools, and lack of stable power supply for effective ICT operational activities in schools (Asogwa 2013; Ololube 2014; Prasad et al. 2015; Anunobi 2015). It has also been observed that Nigeria is still regressive in ICT adoption and use, especially in education (Arekete et al., 2014; Iloanusi & Osuagwu, 2009; International Telecommunication Union, 2012, 2013, 2014).

Meanwhile, the application of ICT has changed the learning and teaching process in which students deal with knowledge in an active, self-directed and constructive way. ICT is not only employed as an instrument, which can be added for existing teaching methods but also seen as an important instrument to support new ways of teaching-learning process (Buhari and Nwoji, 2015). Undoubtedly, the adoption and effective use of ICT in the teaching and learning process is one of the most discussed issues in the current education policy making process (Baturay, Gokcearslan & Ke, 2017). The knowledge and skills required to embrace the emergence of ICT is also a priority for all education authorities worldwide (Tatto, 2006). The vital role of teachers in the effective adoption and use of ICT in education has been given prominence in latest studies in the field (Englund et al., 2017; Comi et al., 2017; Nikolopoulou & Gialamas, 2016). Hence, the accelerated adoption and use of ICTs has resulted in the globalization of information and knowledge resources (Islam and Islam, 2007).

The term Information Communication Technology (ICT) or its plural Information communication Technologies (ICTs), has been often used to describe internet technologies along with computer networks, the World Wide Web (WWW), and search engines, which are used in producing and sharing information (UNESCO 2010). Also, Thorpe (2010) defined ICT as the use of digital media and the internet. Despite the widespread benefits of ICTs in education, reports showed that over the past several years, most countries in sub Saharan Africa (Nigeria inclusive) were rated low across the globe in terms of ICT adoption/ uptake. Nigeria is ranked 143 on Usage index out of 176 countries surveyed with just 2.60% far below most African countries (International Telecommunication Union 2017; UNESCO 2015).

Consistently, some studies had shown most teachers in Nigerian institutions of learning did not have the capacity to integrate new technologies in the classroom (Mbaba & Shema, 2012; Ubulom et al., 2011; Nasir et al., 2013). To achieve the desired education reform in Nigeria, teachers must appropriately adopt ICTs and put them to use in their teaching activities (Onyia & Offorma 2011; Yusuf & Yusuf 2009). Coleman et al. (2016) also observed that the appropriate use of ICT in teaching transforms the learning environment from teacher-centred to learner-centred. When used appropriately, ICTs help in expanding access to education through faster information distribution and availability anytime and anywhere (Aktaruzzaman et al., 2011, Luhamya et al., 2017). Teachers and students are connecting them to each other and to a wide range of information in an efficient and effective way (Kreijns et al., 2013). There is increasing evidence with regards to the benefits of ICT usage in education (Blackwell et al. 2013; Tondeur et al, 2017). It has been reported that ICT use demanded greater creativity in lesson planning and as such much more time had to be invested in planning and preparation (Caty-Ann, 2011). He also cited Deaney et al. (2005) that all teachers who used ICT stressed the importance of having a back-up plan when using ICT in classroom delivery. Also, it helps teachers to design their lesson plans in an effective, creative and interesting approach that would result in students' active learning. (Gavifekr et al., 2015), It has also been observed that ICT has positive significant on classroom management (Ali et al., 2014)

Experience had shown that the present generation of students are technology users and they often question the ICT facilities available in their schools and how their teachers used it in classrooms. Geoffrey, (2010) revealed in his study conducted in a private university revealed that students wanted their teachers to use ICT in their teaching because students found it useful and believed that it reinforces whatever the teacher was teaching. Venkatesh et al., (2014) in a study making use of Exploratory factor analyses followed by multiple regressions show that engaging lectures, effective use of ICT tools for individual study and group-work, as well as active and self-regulated study strategies have a positive and significant impact on students' perceptions of course effectiveness.

Similarly, Emmanuel and Adelabu (2015) cited Ogunlade (2008) who observed that, the adoption of ICT in education would arouse a new interest among students, educators and educationists and possibly influence, if not change the attitude of teachers and students to learning. ICT in education would also promote global interaction and sustainable development. As cited by Salman et al (2013), (Thijs, 2002, Tinus2003) identified the benefits of ICT-based instructional strategy against the traditional method among others as a medium that provides learners the opportunity to work with people from different cultures, thereby helping to enhance learning and communication skills as well as their global awareness, encourages interaction and cooperation among students, teachers, and experts regardless of where they are. Also, Greece (2010) affirmed that ICT-based instruction facilitate student-centred learning. It was further explained that it focuses on students' needs, abilities, interests, and learning styles with the teacher as facilitator of learning.

However, the adoption and use of ICT for learning purposes will predominantly depend on whether students and instructors believe that using ICT in teaching and learning processes meets their particular academic needs. Therefore, the study focused on the perceived usefulness of Information and Communication Technology on Teachers' Effectiveness in Osun state colleges of education.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

In Nigeria, rapid change in the role of the teacher in recent years is emerging. There are many new modifications and tasks that teachers face, and are required to adapt to. Included in this are a more current and westernized approach from schools; new methods of teaching and learning, an increase in student numbers, and (most importantly) an explosion in the development of teaching with ICT. All this means teachers need to update their knowledge and skills to develop the educational process in the classroom. It was therefore paramount that teachers' perceptions on the usefulness of ICT integration in education be sought so as to establish any challenges (Nziwil, 2017). As mentioned earlier, teachers are the key curriculum implementers of school programmers.

With the emergence of a new philosophy towards ICT and its role in education, a wide body of research has developed investigating the role of ICT and its effects in developing an interactive education environment. However, many studies have been limited to investigating the impact of ICT on learners, theories on ICT models, ICT usage, Challenges and effectiveness at secondary school level (Oguniran et al., 2016; Thomas, Babatope & Jonathan, 2013; Ahmed et al., 2016; Deebom & Zita, 2016). Hence, it is against this backdrop that the study focuses on perceived usefulness of information and communication technology on teachers' effectiveness in Colleges of Education in Osun State, Nigeria.

1.2 Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no significant relationship between availability of ICT resources and teachers effectiveness.

2. There is no significant relationship between teachers' attitudes and their usage of ICT in teaching-learning processes.
3. There is no significant relationship between the perceived usefulness and usage of ICT in teaching-learning processes.
4. There is no significant difference in the perceptions of usage of ICT by gender.

2 Methodology

The study followed a descriptive survey design. The population comprised of the teachers in the Colleges of Education in Osun state Nigeria. A sample of 100 respondents were randomly selected from these. The selection was purposely done to represent each of the colleges and the schools of science, arts and social sciences, languages, vocational studies and technology and school of education. Two experts in the field of measurement and evaluation from Osun State University, College of Education, Osogbo, Ipetu-Ijesha, campus validated the instrument. Their observations and corrections were effected before it was administered to the respondents. The reliability of the instrument was established by test-retest method. The instrument was administered to 10 teachers who were not part of the sample. After an interval of two weeks, the same instrument was re-administered to the same respondents and scores were taken. The two sets of scores was computed and compared using Pearson Product Moment Correlation coefficients (r) and a reliability coefficient of 0.86 was obtained was considered high enough for reliability. A self-developed questionnaire titled "Perceived Usefulness of Information Communication Technology on Teachers Effectiveness" (PUICTTE) was used for the study. The researcher visited Osun state College of Education, Ila-Oranngun, Osun state, Nigeria covered by the study and personally administered the instrument to the respondents while five trained research assistants were used in the other Colleges in the state. The data collected were subjected to Pearson's Product Moment Correlation test at the .05 level of significance.

3 Findings

Hypothesis I: There is no significant relationship between availability of ICT resources and teachers effectiveness.

Table 1. Availability of ICT Resources and Teachers' Effectiveness

Variable	N	Mean	SD	*df*	R	P	Remark
Teachers effectiveness	100	3.8300	.4507	98	0.017	0.867	Insignificant
Availability of ICT	100	1.6100	.4902				

**Correlation is insignificant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed)

A Pearson product-moment correlation was performed to provide answer to the result of the relationship between availability of ICT resources and Teachers' Effectiveness. The result obtained is shown in Table 1: It revealed that the computed mean and standard deviation were (3.8300, 1.61100) and (.4507, .4902) respectively. The Table shows that r value of 0.017 is less than that of p value of 0.867 which implies that there is no significant relationship between ICT resources and teachers effectiveness. These could be attributed to the fact that the summation of the number of respondents were not able to cope with the pace of technology adoption in the classroom due to lack of availability of adequate ICT infrastructure in schools, and lack of stable power supply for effective ICT operational activities in schools expectations and also hinder effectiveness of teachers.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between teachers' attitudes and their usage of ICT in teaching-learning processes.

Table 2. Attitudes and Usage of ICT in Teaching-Learning processes

Variable	N	Mean	SD	*df*	R	P	Remark
Teachers attitudes	100	2.3100	1.0512	98	0.148	0.14	Significant
Usage of ICT	100	3.8000	.40202				

**Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed)

A Pearson product-moment correlation was performed to provide answer to the result of the on teachers' attitudes towards the usage of ICT in teaching-learning process. The result obtained is shown in Table 2: It revealed that the computed mean and standard deviation values of private and public were (2.3100, 3.8000) and (1.0512, .40202) respectively. The Table shows that r value of 0.148 is greater than that of p value of 0.141 which implies that there was a positive relationship on teachers' attitudes towards the usage of ICT in teaching-learning process. These implies that teachers are reported to have wider computer experience, report greater interest in and positive attitudes towards computer-related activities, and even appear to be more motivated about learning digital skills and this has enhance effective teaching and learning which ultimately influence general performance of teachers.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between the perceived usefulness and usage of ICT in teaching-learning process.

Table 3. Perceived usefulness and usage of ICT in Teaching-Learning Processes

Variable	N	Mean	SD	*df*	R	P	Remark
Usefulness	100	3.0700	.89052	98	0.538	0.000	Significant
Extent of Usage of ICT	100	3.5400	.50091				

**Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed)

A Pearson product-moment correlation was performed to provide answer to the result of the on the perceived usefulness and extent of ICT usage in teaching-learning process. The result obtained is shown in Table 3: It revealed that the computed mean and standard deviation values of private and public were (3.0700, 3.5400) and (.89052, .50091) respectively. The Table shows that r value of 0.538 is greater than that of p value of 0.000 which implies that there was a strong positive relationship on the perceived usefulness and extent of ICT usage in teaching-learning process. These implies that for teachers to appreciate using ICTs in the classroom, they need to see that ICT tools are imperative for teaching. Individuals viewed ICTs as useful to their jobs when they perceived that the time they spent on doing their jobs could be lessened and their job performances could be improved by their use of ICTs.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the perceptions of usage of ICT by gender.

Table 4: Difference in Perception of ICT usage by Gender

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Decision
Male	62	3.258	.44114	10.347	98	.000	Significance
Female	38	4.000	.00000				

In the Table 4 shows the result of the significant difference between the perception of male and female teachers on ICT usage in teaching- learning process. It revealed that the computed mean and standard deviation values of male and female were (3.258, 4.000) and (.44114, .00000) respectively. The result further revealed that the calculated t-value of 10.347 was less than the critical t-value of 121.816 at 5% level of significance or that the probability value of .000 is lower than 5% (0.05) significance level. Since the calculated t-value is less than the critical t-value, it means that there significant difference between the perception of male and female teachers on ICT usage in teaching- learning process based on gender (t=-.-10.347, df = 98, $p<0.05$). This implied that there is difference between male and female teachers on ICT usage in teaching- learning are significantly differed based on gender. In Table 4, Sig. was established at .00. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

4 Conclusions and Recommendations

For College of Education to be effective, computer literacy should be established through availability of computers, computer utilization, and content competencies in the schools, as well as through Teachers' Effectiveness in the areas of teaching-learning, record keeping, supporting students' academic performance, teachers job performance, school discipline and community services.

The application of ICT has transformed the learning and teaching process in which Colleges of Education teachers deal with knowledge in an active, self-directed and constructive way. ICT is not only perceived as an instrument, which can be added for existing teaching methods but also seen as an important instrument to support new ways of teaching-learning process. It is being integrated into the teaching-learning process in various educational institutions in Nigeria and the world in general.

This research revealed that the emergence of ICT can greatly improve the teaching-learning process in Osun state Colleges of Education teachers, Nigeria. ICT facilities are scarcely available in most Osun state Colleges of Education, Nigeria. However, there is still need for more training and retraining of teachers too on the use of ICT. Also, it is recommended that constant power supply should be made available in schools so as to avail teachers, more opportunity of using these facilities.

Finally, Non-Government Organizations, College of Education stakeholders, Religious Organizations, etc. should assist in providing the required ICT infrastructure in Osun state colleges of education in other to attain quality assurance through Teachers' Effectiveness.

References

Abu Bakar, A., Abdul Razak, F. Z. & Abdullahi, W. S. W. (2013). Assessing the Effects of UTAUT and self-determination predictor on student's continuance intention to use students' portal. *World Applied Sciences Journal, 20*(10), 1484-1489.

Abdul Rahman, A. L., Jamaludin, A. & Mahmud, Z. (2011). Intention to use digital library based on modified UTAUT model: Perspectives of Malaysian postgraduate students. *International Journal of Social, Behavioural, Educational, Economic and Management Engineering, 5*(3), 51-57.

Adamkolo M. I. Salleh H, Mohammed G Jafar K (2018) Influence of ICT Adoption on Tertiary Education: Investigating ICT Usage in E-learning Context among Nigerian Students. *Journal of Education and Practice* www.iiste.org.

Ali S., Gulnar O., Raziye I. (2014). The Effect of ICT Usage on the Classroom Management: A Case Study in Language Teaching. *International Review of Social Sciences and Humanities*. 7 (1) (2014), 232-245.

Asogwa, E. B. (2013). Utilization of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in secondary school administration in Obollo-Afor Education Zone of Enugu state. An Unpublished article M.Ed. thesis, Department of Educational Foundations, University of Nsukka, Nigeria.

Anunobi, V. N. (2015). A study of the Information and Communication Technology use among Student-teachers in universities in North Central Nigeria. *Journal of Information and Knowledge Management, 5*(1), 106–111.

Arekete, S., Ifinedo, P., & Akinnuwesi, B. A. (2014). Antecedent factors to end-users' symbolic acceptance of enterprise systems: An analysis in Nigerian organizations. *Proceedings of 6th International Conference on Adaptive Science* & *Technology* (*ICAST*) (1–8). Covenant University, Ota: IEEE.

Baturay, M.H., Gokcearslan, Ş. and Ke, F. (2017). The relationship among pre-service teachers' computer competence, attitude towards computer-assisted education, and intention of technology acceptance. *International Journal of Technology Enhanced Learning*, 9(1), 1-13.

Blackwell, C.K., Lauricella, A.R. and Wartella, E. (2014). Factors influencing digital technology use in early childhood education. *Computers & Education*, 77, 82-90.

Coleman, Gibson, Cotton, Moroney, Stringer (2015). Integrating computing across the curriculum: the impact of internal barriers and training intensity on computer integration in the elementary school classroom. J*ournal of Educational Computing Research*. http://doi.org/10.1177/0735633115616645.

Comi, S.L., Argentin, G., Gui, M., Origo, F. and Pagani, L. (2017). Is it the way they use it? Teachers, ICT and student achievement. *Economics of Education Review*, 56, 24-39.

Englund, C., Olofoson, A.D. and Price, L. (2017). Teaching with technology in Higher Education: understanding conceptual change and development in practice. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 36(1), 73-87.

Buhari, B. A. and Nwoji J.O. (2015). Investigation on the level of ICT Awareness among Secondary School Teachers in Sokoto State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Scientific Research in Science and Technology*. 1 (4). 105-111.

Deebom, M. T. Zite, B N(21016) Effectiveness of Information Communication Technology (ICT) in Teaching and Learning in Public Senior Secondary Schools in Ogoni Area, Rivers State *International Journal of Education and Evaluation*. 2 (4). 2016 www.iiardpub.org

Emmanuel O.A. Adelabu O. A.(2015)An Investigation into Teacher's Competence on Information Communication and Technologies (ICT) and Availability of E-Learning Resources in the Teaching of Mathematics in Secondary Schools *EdMedia 2015 - Montreal, Quebec, Canada, June 22-24, 2015*

Iloanusi, N. O., & Osuagwu, C. C. (2009). ICT in education: Achievements so far in Nigeria. In Méndez-Vilas, A. Solano, J. A. Martín, Mesa, González, J. Mesa & González (Eds.), *Research, reflections and innovations in integrating ICT in education* (1331–1335).

Islam, M. S, and Islam, M. N. (2007). Use of ICT in Libraries: An Empirical Study of Selected Libraries in Bangladesh. *Library Philosophy and Practice*, available at http: //todde.anadolu.edu.tr/tojde21/articles/islam.htm, accessed June 2010.

International Telecommunication Union (2012). *Measuring the information society*. Geneva: ITU. International Telecommunication Union (2013). *Measuring the information society*. Geneva: ITU. International Telecommunication Union (2014). *Manual for measuring ICT access and use by households and individuals*. Geneva: ITU.

International Telecommunication Union (2017). *Facts and figures*. Geneva: ITU.

Kreijns, K., Vermeulen, M., Kirschner, P.A., Buuren, H.V. and Acker, F.V., 2013. Adopting the Integrative Model of Behaviour Prediction to explain teachers' willingness to use ICT: a perspective for research on teachers' ICT usage in pedagogical practices. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education*, 22(1), 55-71.

Luhamya, A., Bakkabulindi, P. B. Muyinda, Krishnaveni, R. & Meenakumari, J. (2010). Usage of ICT for Information Administration in Higher education Institutions. *International Journal of Environmental Science and Development*, 1 (3), 282-286.

Mbaba, A., & Shema, I. (2012). Analysis of the frequency of academic staff and students' use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 3*(14), 91–97.

Nasir M. B, Umaru G., Umar M. (2014). Assessment of Information Communication Technology Integration in State Colleges of Education in North Western Nigeria. *Journal of Research & Method in Education.* 2(1), 48-55.

Nikolopoulou, K. and Gialamas, V. (2016). Barriers to ICT use in high schools: Greek teachers' perceptions. Journal of Computers in Education, 3(1), 59-75.

Okolocha, C.C., Onyeneke, E. N. (2013). Secondary school principals' perception of business studies teachers' teaching effectiveness in Anambra State, Nigeria. *Journal of Education and Practice,* 4 (2), 171-182.

Ololube, N. P. (2014). Managing and planning technology usage and integration in teacher education programs in an emergent nation.

Okolie, U.C. (2014). Management of woodwork workshop in tertiary institutions in Nigeria: An analytical study. *Malaysian Online Journal of Education*. 2(1), 20-36.

Onyia, C., & Offorma, G. C. (2011). Learning style preferences of Nigerian university undergraduates: Implications for new faculty development model. *Learning in Higher Education, 7*(2).

Patrick U. O. and Brenda. T. Ojukonsin (2018). Assessment of Computer Studies Teachers' Constraints In the use of information and communication technology. *International Journal of Education and Evaluation,* 2(4), 18.

Prasad, C. V., Lalitha, P., and Srikar, P. (2015). Barriers to the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in secondary schools: Teacher's Perspective. *Journal of Management Research, 7*(2), 190–208.

Rupnar D. (2017). Teacher Effectiveness and Related Characteristics: A Systematic Review *European Journal of Education Studies.* **3**. Available online at: www.oapub.org/edu.

Salman M. F., Ogunlade O. O., Ogunlade A A., Adegbami, O.A.(2013)Assessment of Secondary School Teachers' Professional Development in the Use of Information communication Technology for Teaching Mathematics in Ejigbo, Nigeria *ISSN: 2320-5407 Int. J. Adv. Res. 6(7), 246-277.* doi:10.21474/IJAR01/7360.

Thorpe, M. (2010). The impact of ICT on lifelong learning. *Open learning*, 2 (2).

Thomas Olabode Owolabi, Babatope Kolade Oyewole, and Jonathan .O. Oke1 (2016). Teacher Education, Information and Communication Technology:

Prospects and Challenges of E-Teaching Profession in Nigeria. *American Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences* 1(2), 87-91. Doi: 10.11634/232907811301314.

Ubulom, W., Enyekit, E., & Onuekwa, F. (2011). Analysis of ICT accessibility and utilization in teaching of business studies in secondary schools in Andoni Local Government Area of Rivers State. *Journal of Academic Research International, 1*(3), 349–354.

UNESCO (2010). *ICT transforming education: A regional guide*. Bangkok: Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education.

UNESCO (2015). Advances in multidisciplinary and scientific research, UNESCO Institute for Statistics. UIS/2015/ICT/TD/5/REV.2.

UNESCO (2015). Qingdao Declaration: International Conference on ICT and Post-2015 Education. Qingdao City: UNESCO.

Tatto, M. (2006). Education reform and the global regulation of teachers' education, development and work: A cross-cultural analysis. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 45(4-5), 231-241.

Tondeur, J., Aesaert, K., Pynoo, B., Braak, J., Fraeyman, N. and Erstad, O. (2017). Developing a validated instrument to measure pre-service teachers' ICT competencies: Meeting the demands of the 21st century. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 48(2), 462-472.

Venkatesh A. C., Jihan, R. (2014) Perceptions of Effectiveness of Instructional Uses of Technology in Higher Education in an Era of Web Science *International Journal of Arts and Social Science*. 2 (1).

Yusuf, M. O., Yusuf, H. T. (2009). Educational reforms in Nigeria: The potentials of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). *Educational Research and Reviews,* 4(5), 225–230.

Perception of Ecotourism among Undergraduate Students of Agricultural Science in Tai Solarin University of Education and Olabisi Onabanjo University

I. O. Ewebiyi *
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7677-5898
Tai Solarin University of Education

A. Aderinto
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6859-7964
Olabisi Onabanjo University

A. A. Akinsulu
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6856-1103
Tai Solarin University of Education

Abstract. This study investigated the perception of ecotourism among undergraduate students of Agricultural Science of Tai Solarin University of Education and Olabisi Onabanjo University. The study followed a survey design. Data was collected using a structured questionnaire from a sample of 132 respondents. It was analysed using descriptive statistics and a t-test. Participation in ecotourism was found to be high (55.3%). Visitation, sightseeing and trekking were the modal ecotourism activities. Insecurity, low interest, high costs and lack of time were the main hindrances to participation in ecotourism. It was concluded that most (75%) of the respondents had a favourable disposition towards ecotourism in the study area. Significant difference (t= -4.162, p=0.000) existed in perception of ecotourism in the two universities. Intensification of ecotourism awareness, funding of ecotourism, inclusion of ecotourism in higher education curricula, ecotourism advocacy and programmes that will encourage students' participation in ecotourism activities are recommended.

Keywords: Ecotourism; Curricula reform; Relevance.

East African School of Higher Education Studies & Development, Makerere University

Makerere Journal of **Higher Education**
ISSN: 1816-6822 (Print); 1816-6822 (Online)
11 (2) (2019) 161 – 170
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.6

Conflict of interest: None
Funding: None

*Corresponding author. Email: tayoewebiyi@yahoo.com.

Cite article as: Ewebiyi, I. O., Akinsulu, A. A., Aderinto, A. (2019). Perception of Ecotourism among Undergraduate Students of Agricultural Science in Tai Solarin University of Education and Olabisi Onabanjo University. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education*, 11 (2), 161-170. http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.6.

1 Introduction

Tourism is an ever growing industry around the world with many countries now dependent on the tourism industry within their countries for continued growth as development. It has penetrated human life as a necessity, as part created by man with man and for man. Tourism whether practiced knowingly or instinctively as one of human activities with an extensive search and development from the beginning of mankind especially now; in the 21st century. A report put out by the World Economic Forum States that there was an increase in the number of international tourism receipts from US&2.1 billion to US & 622.7 billion between 1950 and 2004. By 2006, the tourism sector accounted for 10.3% of World GDP: jobs in the industry making up 8.2% of total employment worldwide (World Tourism Analysis, 2007). The World Tourism Organization UNWTO (2016) has estimated that the industry has grown form 25 million international travellers in 1950 to over 800 million with a projection of 1.2 billion travellers by 2020. Many people involved in travel of especially to long distance to ease tension and maintain a healthy living through a change of environment devoid of all stress of life (Ojewola, 2008).

Tourism can develop and grow to her humans have positive view towards it and when they see their roles in the process of the tourism development. Ecotourism involves travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objectives of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery and its plants and animals as well as any existing cultural aspects. Honey (2008) defined ecotourism as travel to fragile pristine and usually protected areas that strive to be low impact and often on small scale. It helps educate the traveller, provide funds for conservation, upgrade the economic development and political empowerment of local communities and foster respect for different cultures. Ecotourism is a sustainable, non-invasive form of nature-based tourism that focuses primarily on learning about nature. First-hand, which is ethnically, manages to be low-impact, non-consumptive and locally oriented. It typically occurs in natural areas and should contribute to the conservation of such areas (Fennell, 2007).

Perception is socially and culturally constructed, and often interrelated with many influencing factors such as religion, cultural and ethnic background, collective pressure, laws and regulation. Accordingly, an attempt at finding out tourist or visitor knowledge and perception right from the school level particularly at higher institutions is worth the while Convelli et al, (2005) pointed out that concepts of quality as perceived by tourists including knowledge level, satisfaction and perception have rarely been applied in nature research. The submission above therefore suggests the need for investigating undergraduate students of Agricultural Science in Tai Solarin University of Education (TASUED), Ijagun and Olabisi Onabanjo University (OOU) Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State, Nigeria so as to increase student's knowledge in participation in ecotourism towards maximizing benefits derivable from ecotourism in the study area and Ogun State at large.

1.1 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study is to investigate perception to ecotourism among undergraduate students of Agricultural Science in TASUED and OOU Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State, Nigeria. The specific objectives are to:

1. Assess respondents' participation in ecotourism in the study area.
2. Determine respondents' perception of ecotourism in the study area.
3. Identify respondents' constraints to participation in ecotourism.

1.2 Hypothesis of the Study

It was hypothesised that there is no significant difference between respondents' perception of ecotourism in Tasued and OOU.

1.3 Significance of the Study

Ecotourism and sustainable development are intertwined in that conservation and preservation of the environment is crucial to attaining sustainable development

This research work is hinged on the need to address poor awareness that people have about ecotourism. The knowledge of students in higher institutions perception about ecotourism would help managers and operators of ecotourism plan the development of the industry. Proper perception of ecotourism particularly among youths in tertiary institutions is a requisite to making it a powerful instrument for preservation of nature with favourable outcome for populations.

The outcome of this research work will go a long way in assisting management of the two sampled institutions to come up with effective teaching of ecotourism towards creating more interest in ecotourism which may in the long run increasing revenue for Ogun State government through ecotourism.

2 Methodology

The study was carried out in TASUED and OOU, Ogun State, Nigeria. The target population consisted of undergraduate Agricultural Science final year students of the two institutions. Multi-stage sampling was used to select the departments and 132 respondents that were involved in the study. Data were collected by face to face interview, using a validated interview schedule from November, 2018- July, 2019. The face and content validity of the instruments were ascertained by experts. Test-retest approach was used to determine the reliability of the questionnaire and a coefficient of .83 was obtained. The information collected on personal characteristics of respondents includes: age, sex, marital status and institution. Other information collected includes: respondents level of participation in ecotourism, perception to ecotourism and constraints that limit respondents participation in ecotourism. The data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics and the hypothesis was tested using the student t-test.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Personal Characteristics of Respondents

Table 1 shows that most (94.7%) were within the age range of 20-30 years. This implies that respondents are matured and in their reproductive age and have vigour to engage meaningfully in ecotourism. Age is an important factor when considering participation in an activity. It has been argued that age in some instances, could be an entry criterion for livelihood activities (Ewebiyi, 2014). This result is in consonant with that of Alarape and Oladele (2018) who carried out a similar study among tertiary institution students in Abeokuta Metropolis Nigeria and reported same age distribution of their respondents. The result also implies that respondents are still in their prime ages and the quest for knowledge is expected to be high.

Sex plays a key role in any human endeavour; most of the respondents (56.8%) were males. This is at variance with Alarape and Oladele (2018) and Ogunjimi (2016) who reported more female respondents than males in their similar studies. The marital status of respondents as also indicated in table 1 showed that an overwhelming proportion (75.8%), were single, indicating or implies that respondents can fully concentrate on their studies with minimum or no distraction.

Furthermore, the findings of the study revealed that majority of sampled respondents (62.9%) are students of OOU while (37.1%) are from TASUED Agricultural Science Department. The difference between the sampled population numerically may die to the fact that OOU is a conversional University while Tasued is a specialized University of education where various areas of Agriculture that can stand as a department merged together to form a single department.

Table 1. Distribution of Respondents by Personal Characteristics

		Frequency	Percentage
Age	Less than 20 years	1	0.8
	20-30 years	125	94.7
	31- 40 years	6	4.5
Sex	Male	75	56.8
	Female	57	43.2
Marital Status	Single	100	75.8
	Married	32	24.2
Institution	TASUED	49	37.1
	OOU	83	62.9

3.2 Respondents' participation in ecotourism

The result of analysis regarding respondents' participation in ecotourism as indicated in Table 2 revealed that most (59.8%) participated in ecotourism. This result is in disagreement with Guany and Akinci (2017) cited by Alarape and Oladele (2018) where less than half (38.8%) of respondents participated in ecotourism activities engaged in visitation (32.6%), sightseeing (28.0%), walking/ tracking (19.7%) and rock/mountain climbing (9.1%).

This result implies or connotes high level of students' participation in ecotourism activities. Consequently, students after graduation will be encouraged to engage in any endeavour that is associated with ecotourism. The result further showed that more than quarter respondents (34.1%) participated in ecotourism activities monthly, yearly (22.7%) and once in a while (17.4%). This may be attributed to their fair interest in ecotourism and other myriads of constraints that limit their participation in ecotourism frequently.

Table 2. Respondents' Participation in Ecotourism

	Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Participation in ecotourism activities	Yes	79	59.8
	No	53	40.2
Activities	Rock/ Mountain climbing	12	9.1
	Sight seeing	37	28
	Visitation	43	32.6
	Walk/ trekking	26	19.7
	Cruising	10	7.6
Frequency of participation	Fortnightly	11	8.3
	Monthly	45	34.1
	Seldom	30	22.7
	Yearly	30	22.7
	Once in a while	23	17.4

3.3 Respondents' constraints to participation in ecotourism

Respondents' participation in ecotourism in the study area associated with some challenges. Result as revealed in table 3a shows that most respondents (78.0%), (77.3%) and (72.0%) identified lack of information, lack of interest and lack of safety as severe constraints militating against meaningful participation of respondents in ecotourism. Also 67.4% and 65.2% respectively observed lack of time and high cost of embarking on ecotourism as constraints that significantly limit their participation in ecotourism. The result of categorization of respondents' constraints in table 3bS revealed that most (84.8%) observed constraints being faced in participating in ecotourism at high level. This result is in consonant with what obtained during in-depth interview where respondents affirmed that they being constrained by lack of time and high cost to engage in ecotourism. Corroborated this result Ojewola (2008) and Ogunjimi (2016) in their similar studies reported that students' of higher institution participation or engagement in ecotourism was limited due to aforementioned constraints in Nigeria. The implication of this result is that respondents' participation in ecotourism may be limited due to high constraints.

Table 3a. Respondents' Constraints to Participation in Ecotourism

Constraints	High constraint		Mild constraint		Not a constraint	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Lack of safety	103	78.0	89	67.4		
Lack of interest	102	77.3			95	72.0
High cost	86	65.2			95	72.0
Lack of time	103	78.0	89	67.4		
Lack of information	95	72.0	103	78.0		

Table 3b. Categorization of respondents based on Constraints to ecotourism

Level	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	SD	Min.	Max
Low	112	84.4	2.4	1.9	0	10
High	20	15.2				
Total	132	100				

3.4 Perception of Ecotourism

The result in table 4a presents respondents' perception of ecotourism. It was found out that most respondents 76.5%, 74.2%, 73.5%, 72.0% and 71.2% positively perceived that ecotourism will encourage infrastructural development, bring about positive change in value system of the community and change to traditional culture. Furthermore, the result showed that most respondents 68.9%, 67.4% and 66.7% favourably disposed and asserted that ecotourism creates employment opportunity for indigenous population, enhances acculturation, promotes local culture and boosts preservation of nation integrity.

The overall result in table 4b corroborated and affirmed above findings and as well as revealed clearly that majority of the respondents' (75.0%) had favourable perception to ecotourism. This result implies that any initiation on ecotourism promotion will be welcomed by the respondents. Students are mostly youths and when they are groomed with the nitty-gritty of ecotourism while in school, they will be able to influence the larger society, thereby paving way for a better economy that is well productive and balance. This result is consistent with Mirjam (2013) who submitted in his similar study that tertiary institution students had favourable perception towards the positive economic and socio-cultural impacts of ecotourism.

Table 4a. Respondents' perception of ecotourism

	SA	A	D	SD
	F %	F %	F %	F %
Ecotourism will encourage infrastructural development	101 (76.5)	22(16.7)	0 (0.0)	9(6.8)
Ecotourism brings about positive changes in values system in the community	98(74.2)	23(17.4)	2(1.5)	9(6.8)
Ecotourism bring change to traditional culture	97(73.5)	25(18.9)	1(0.8)	9(6.8)
Ecotourism creates employment opportunity for indigenous population	91(68.9)	31(23.5)	1(0.8)	9(6.8)
Ecotourism enhance acculturation	91(68.9)	26(19.7)	6(4.5)	9(6.8)
Ecotourism provides incentives for the protection and conservation of natural resources	94(71.2)	27(20.5)	3(2.3)	8(6.1)
Ecotourism promotes the conservation of wild plants and animals	94(71.2)	23(17.4)	4(3.0)	11(8.3)
Ecotourism increases recreational opportunities	95(72.0)	23(17.4)	5(3.8)	9(6.8)
Ecotourism increases revenue of local government through visitation by tourist	97(73.5)	22(16.7)	2(1.5)	11(8.3)
Ecotourism boosts preservations of nation integrity	88(66.7)	29(22.))	5(3.8)	10(7.6)
Ecotourism encourages sustenance of cultural activities by local residents	97(73.5)	21(15.9)	5(3.8)	9(6.8)
Ecotourism make awareness of the potentials of the community possible	89(67.4)	29(22.0)	2(1.5)	12(9.1)
Destruction of natural beauty by establishment or presence of hotel and other tourist facilities	91(68.9)	24(18.2)	5(3.8)	12(9.1)
Ecotourism promotes erosion of local culture preserving	90(68:2)	28(21.2)	2(1.5)	12(9.1)

Table 4b. Categorization of respondents based on perception of ecotourism

	Frequency	Percentage	Mean	SD	Min.	Max
Unfavourable	33	25	35.5	10.2	1	42
Favourable	99	75				
Total	132	100				

3.5 Perception of Ecotourism by Institution

The result of analysis of difference between students' perception of ecotourism in TASUED and OOU in table 5 revealed that there is significant difference in ecotourism perception of students of TASUED and OOU ($t= 4.162$, $p= 0.000$). This may be due to difference in their interest in ecotourism as revealed in earlier findings of this study and myriads of constraints militating against their effective participation in ecotourism activities.

Table 5. Difference in students' perception of ecotourism by institution

Variable	N	Mean	SD	df	t-value	p-value	Decision
TASUED	49	-5.25	8.82	4.81	-4.162	0.000	Significant
OOU	83						

3.6 Conclusion and Recommendations

This study investigated perception of ecotourism among undergraduate students of Agricultural science in TASUED, Ijagun and OOU, Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State, Nigeria. Result showed that most respondents were males that are still in their prime ages and quest for high knowledge through ecotourism. Their level of participation in ecotourism was found to be moderately high among 55.3%. Lack of safety, interest, high cost and inadequate infrastructural facilities were severe constraints hindering respondents' effective participation in ecotourism activities in the study area. Respondents' perception of ecotourism was favourable among agricultural students in TASUED and OOU. The following recommendations are made:

1. Government and NGOs should provide adequate funding for promotion and accessibility of ecotourism among students for them to surmount financial constraint.
2. University curricula should be repackaged to accommodate teaching of potentials of ecotourism to undergraduate students. This will go a long way to increase their interest and participation in ecotourism and as well as receiving tourism education.
3. The stakeholders in ecotourism industry must be adequately enlighten the public, potentials embedded in ecotourism and the need to tap various opportunities within it, particularly among students of higher institutions.
4. Qualified personnel who are well grounded in ecotourism should be allowed to teach it effectively under conducive environment in our higher institutions of

learning in order to eradicate fallacy often associated with the concept of ecotourism not only in the study area but in the nation at large.

References

Alarape, A. A. and Oladele, O. O. (2018) Perception of ecotourism among tertiary institution students in Abeokuta Metropolis, Ogun-state, Nigeria, *The Nigeria Journal of Rural Extension and Development,* vol.12 (2) 66-72.

Ewebiyi, I. O. (2014) Livelihood Diversification of rural households in Southwest Nigeria. Unpublished PhD Thesis, Department of Agricultural Extension and Rural Development, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Fennell, D. (2007) The Ecotourism Concept and Tourism Conservation Symbiosis*, Journal of Sustainable tourism*, 13 (3) 373-390.

Honey, M. (2008) Ecotourism and Sustainable Development: Who owns Paradise? (Second Ed.) Washington, DC: Island press 5g726-125-8.

Mirjam, D. (2013) Students' Perception and attitude towards sustainable Development in Albania Mediterranean*, Journal of Social-Science,* 4(10): 706 - 714.

Ogunjimi A. A. (2016) Specialization preferences and perceived motivation in ecotourism and Wildlife Management Programme at the Federal University of Technology, Akure, Nigeria, *Journal of Agriculture Extension, vol.* 20 (20) : 59-75.

Ojewola, O. A. (2008) Sustainable Management of University of Ibadan Awba dan and Zoological garden for tourism. B. Sc. Project in the Department of Wildlife and Fisheries Management, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.

UNWTO (2016) World Tourism Barometer volume 14: Advance Release January, 2016. Madrid.

World Tourism Analysis: Tourism-Review. Com. 13 March, (2007) Accessed: 30th October, 2009.

Justifications for Undertaking Marketing Orientation Studies in Higher Learning Institutions in Tanzania

Francis Muya *
National Institute of Transport
Dar es Salaam, Tanzania

Hawa Tundui
Mzumbe University
Morogoro, Tanzania

Abstract. This paper was written with the major aim of presenting a number of issues which justify the undertaking of marketing orientation studies in Tanzania Higher Learning Institutions (HLIs). It was also the intention of the authors to give a brief picture of marketing practice in Tanzania environment and on the higher learning institutions. The information used in this paper was mainly collected through review of literatures on articles which focused on marketing orientation and higher learning institutions. The review of literature revealed that different aspects including challenges facing HLIs, sectoral variation, geographical concentrated literatures, qualitative based studies, review of literature based studies, single informants responses, small samples problems and limited responses limitations are major issues justifying undertaking a marketing orientation study in Tanzania HLIs.

Keywords: Marketing; Privatisation; Reform.

1 Introduction

The environment surrounding Higher Learning Institutions (HLIs) is comprised of different forces and changes including high competition, increased globalisation of education, increased societal expectations, and reduced government subsidies (Beneke & Human, 2010; Hussin, Soon & Sidin, 2000; Marginson, 2004; Starck & Zadeh, 2013; United Republic of Tanzania (URT), 2000).

In relation to competition, government owned HLIs are not the only providers of higher education. The mix of Tanzania HLIs is comprised of government, non-government religious, and non-government non-religious. Considering that

East African School of Higher Education Studies & Development, Makerere University

Makerere Journal of **Higher Education**
ISSN: 1816-6822 (Print); 2707-6113 (Online)
11 (2) (2019) 171 – 188
DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.7

Conflict of interest: None
Funding: None

* Corresponding author: mgosimuya@gmail.com.

Cite article as: Muya, F, Tundui, H. (2019). Justifications for Undertaking Marketing Orientation Studies in Higher Learning Institutions in Tanzania. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education*, 11 (2), 171-188. http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v11i2.7

different factors influence the choice of course and college of study, government HLIs cannot claim that they cannot have any enrolment problems. Enrolment is however a critical problem in Tanzania private HLIS. Even if enrolment may not be a problem, retention is among the major problems facing HLIs to date. This view is supported by American Federation of Teachers (AFT) (2011) which affirmed that the number of students with college education is not as high as it should be, and college student retention rates are not as high as any educator would want them to be. HLIs must therefore have strong strategies in place in order to fight enrolment and retention problem.

The boarders of providing domestic higher education are slowly eroding. Due to globalization, domestic higher learning institutions not only compete with domestic universities but also with international universities and colleges. In recent years it is common to find HLIs in Tanzania with Korean affiliations (United African University of Tanzania), with Indians Affiliation (St. Joseph University in Tanzania) and those originating from nearby East African Countries (Kampala International University Dar es Salaam College-from Uganda). Another indicator of globalization of higher education in Tanzania are exhibitions organized by TCU taking place every year. Such exhibitions include participants from both local and International HLIs. Specific organizations have been established in Tanzania which connects students with different HLIs worldwide. According to URT (2000) globalisation have reduced the need for learners to assemble in one place over a specified period in order to learn through distance learning. On other hand flexible training has been introduced and learners need to be equipped with a wide range of skills and to prepare them for a rapidly changing labour market. All these indicate that the boundaries of providing domestic higher learning education are disappearing slowly imposing some pressures on local HLIs. Due to globalization of education, the tasks are not such limited but extends on what measures and strategies can be institutionalized to make them competitive in such a challenging environment. This view is line with various people such as (Bloom, Canning & Chan, 2006) who underscore that knowledge-based competition within a globalizing economy is prompting a fresh consideration of the role of higher education in development and growth.

Than increased competition and Globalisation, Tanzania HLIs and even globally are facing economic and financial strains. Economically, the dictates of structural adjustment, subsuming budgetary cuts and discipline, cost sharing and diminished role of the state and international institutions are real and compelling (URT, 2000). For example from 1985 to 1989, 17 per cent of the World Bank's worldwide education-sector spending was on higher education. But from 1995 to 1999, the proportion allotted to higher education declined to just 7 per cent (Bloom, Canning & Chan, 2006). Higher education in Africa has suffered from such reductions in spending. Financing of education in Tanzania suffer the same trend, as its pattern is not stable and has been hit much by this trend. In the financial year 2012/2013, 719.8 billion were set for financing higher education. In 2013/2014 the amount declined up to 526.7, a decrease of 26.82 per cent from the 2012/2013 figure. The financing became worse in 2014/2015 when the amount set dropped up to 311.3 billion. The amount was raised slightly in 2015/2016 (URT, 2015). Such findings show how higher education and its institutions are increasingly marginalized by government financing year after year.

In addition to the changes mentioned above, Tanzania HLIs and global ones have different challenges including, low general gross enrolment (GUNI, 2007), bad image due to low quality education, receiving only domestic students despite presence of courses which can attract international students, limited finance for their operations, production of unemployable graduates and low university and technical higher education coverage (Ishengoma, 2008; Mpanju, 2012; Ndyali, 2016; URT, 2010, 2011, 2014, 2016). In overall terms, Tanzania is performing poorly in higher education and training component as revealed by Global Competitiveness Report (2017/2018), where the country is ranked 130 out of 137 scoring 2.6 out of 7 scores in Higher Education and Training sub index (Klaus, 2017).

2 Coping Mechanism

Taking into account of the changes and forces in the environment where HLIs operates, being marketing oriented is seen as a best strategy which can enable HLIs to survive in such a complicated environment. According to Sharp (2007) marketing orientation currently holds the place of leading modern business philosophy throughout the world's major corporations and leading business schools. Unless business schools succeed in improving their marketing, they will stand accused of not practicing what they preach.

Maringe (2006) espouse that the trends in the environment in which HLIs operate, have varying effect on them hence a driving force for the marketization of higher education. Rindfleish (2003) adds that with such forces, the sustainability of HLIs is questionable creating a need for adopting marketing oriented approaches and techniques as those applied in profit organisations. As competition among higher education institutions for students and resources intensifies, admissions and enrolment management administrators continue to view marketing techniques, strategies and activities that allow a better understanding of customers and competitors as valuable resources (Dolnicar & Lazarevski, 2009; Newman, 2002). This view is supported by Stachowski (2011) that as in other sectors where there is competition, there is marketing, so long as HLIs face competition, marketing is an unavoidable practice.

Andreasen and Kotler (2003) argue that decrease in support from traditional sources, such as government, has emphasised the importance for non-profit organizations to apply marketing principles by making use of a proper philosophy of marketing, systematic approach to solving marketing problems, awareness and ability to use the very latest concepts and techniques from the private sector.

3 What is Marketing Orientation?

Marketing orientation refer to the set of beliefs that shapes particular attitudes and culture of business (Salyovaa et al., 2015). The phrase is closely related with “market orientation” which can be traced from two famous sources of Narver and Slater (1990) and Kohli and Jaworski (1990). According to Narver and Slater (1990) market orientation is a culture within organisations that most effectively and efficiently creates the necessary behaviours for the creation of superior value for buyers and, thus continuous superior value for the business. Kohli and Jaworski (1990) view market orientation as the implementation of the marketing concept philosophy, which is centred on customer needs and organisation profits. They define market orientation as the organisation wide generation of market intelligence pertaining to current and future customer needs, dissemination of the intelligence across departments, and organisation-wide responsiveness to it. Hemsley-Brown and Oplatka (2010) view market orientation as the degree to which an organisation generates and uses intelligence about the current and future needs of customers; develops a strategy to satisfy these needs; and implements that strategy to meet those needs and wants.

Market orientation is conceptualised as an extension to the marketing concept as it magnifies the focus from being customer-centred to being market centred, including various stakeholders especially competitors, customers and factors outside organisations affecting customer needs (Goldman & Grinstein, 2010; Hunt & Morgan, 1995; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Narver & Slater, 1990). According to Levitt (1960) the concept of market orientation is the heart of marketing theory. This is supported by various authors such as (Goldman & Grinstein, 2010; Kirca, Jayachandran & Bearden, 2005; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990) who view it as a corner stone of the marketing management involving the implementation of the marketing concept. According to Sharp (1991), marketing orientation recognises the concept of consumer sovereignty and that consumption is the sole purpose of production, but it also recognises that a firm is free to pick who its customers are. A firm with a marketing orientation chooses its markets and manages its own productive capabilities in order to achieve its goals. Marketing orientation goes beyond a market orientation in that it considers information in the marketplace which is relevant, "where relevance is a function of the organisation's, not the market's, characteristics" (Sharp, 1991). According to Kurtinaitienė (2005) marketing orientation (sometimes called market orientation) contributes to the understanding and implementation of the marketing concept.

The two phrases “market orientation” and “marketing orientation” are sometimes used interchangeably as done by various authors including (Kohli &

Jaworski, 1990; Kurtinaitienė 2005; Tajeddini, Trueman & Larsen, 2006; Šályováa et al., 2015). The phrase marketing orientation is adopted in this paper. Šályováa et al., (2015) view marketing orientation usage as a proper phrase due its wide utilisation and linguistically referring to the marketing concept. In this study marketing orientation is therefore treated as synonymous with undertaking marketing activities as well as application of marketing principles.

4 Why Marketing Orientation?

Through marketing orientation, HLIs can obtain a wide array of benefits to themselves, students and the public they serve at large. Marketing orientation brings in sources of funding and competes for the funds granted by public and private sectors and compete for potential students (Caruana, Ramaseshan & Ewing, 1998; Svenson & Wood, 2007). Narver and Slatter (1990) found substantial effect of market orientation on profitability among different types of business.

Following marketing concept or being marketing oriented is associated with many other benefits including making a great difference in the ability of organisations to meet their service objectives including delivering quality services (Luk, 1997; Kurtz, 2008; SeyedJavadin, Estiri & Aghamiri 2012; Voon, 2006). It enables firms to be innovative and hence competitive both domestically and internationally (Hemsley-Brown & Oplatka, 2006; Maringe, 2004, 2005; Tajeddini, Trueman & Larsen, 2006). It is a way to reach the institutional goals such as surviving as organisation, increasing its professional reputation, improving facilities and faculty and developing enrolment and endowment (Ivy, 2001; Nguyen & LeBlanc, 2001; Polat & Umit, 2010); and adapting to demands in the society (Caruana et al., 1998). In the view of Rowley (2003), marketing can enable an organisation to have a loyal customer, and for businesses like Higher Education Institution (HEI), a loyal customer base leads to enhanced success and lowering higher investments of capturing new ones. The author is supported by others like (Ackerman & Schibrowsky, 2007; Lichiello, 2014 & Shepherd, 2008) who view marketing as essential in retaining students.

According to Stachowski (2011) being marketing oriented leads to fulfilment of the mission of the institution, improved satisfaction of staff and learners and the ability to attract greater resources, both financial and non-financial.

Moorman and Rust (1999) found that marketing function contributes to perceptions of firm financial performance, customer relationship performance, and new product performance beyond that explained by a firm's market orientation. For service firms, the value of the marketing function also is related positively to marketing ability to connect the customer to service delivery. These findings are in line with those of Zhang et al. (2017) who found that implementation of a market orientation leads to improved financial and marketing performance. Momrak (2012) also found a direct effect of market orientation on business performance in terms of profitability. The findings are in line with those of Tajeddini, Trueman and Larsen (2006) who found that customer orientation has a positive effect on performance as well as the level of innovativeness in each company.

5 Marketing Practice and Orientation in Tanzania HLIs

In Tanzania marketing is not a new phenomenon. It is however highly dominant in for profit organisation than in non-profit organisations such as HLIs. The state of marketing in Tanzania HLIs is not quite different as espoused by different authors that press release, public relations, advertisement attracting applications, education fairs and exhibitions and other means of communication remain the focus of many educational institutions' marketing activities (Ivy, 2002; Nicolescu, 2009;Young, 2005; Tabaku & Mersini, 2013).

As said above, marketing in the profit organisations is very dominant as revealed by different practices in different industries. Marketing is carried out by different players operating in different industries including telecommunications, beverage industry, hotel industry, media industry, banking industry, and manufacturing industry.

Most of organisations operating in those industries/sector have marketing directorates (Tanzania Breweries Limited [TBL], 2016; Vodacom, 2017; Tanzania Cigarette Company [TCC], 2015) and large budgets are set aside for marketing activities (CRDB Bank, 2015) which is an indication of the value placed on marketing functions by these organisations. Due recent trends in the business, Chartered institute of Marketing (CIM) (2015) argue that what was once seen as a departmental activity is now regarded as a frontline business attitude for all employees.

Marketing in Tanzanian organisations take different forms like new product development and launching (TCC introduction of Camel Black and White in the premium segment and Portsman mini in the value segment in year 2015, introduction of 3G and 4G mobile services and wireless broadband networks by telecommunications companies, Vodacom value added services like M-Paper and International Money Transfers (IMT) (Vodacom, 2017). Other forms includes, price setting and adjustments (TBL, 2015), sponsorship activities, communication campaigns at point of sale, thematic campaigns, consumer activations, contests, challenges and awards, distribution optimisation initiatives, opening of new depots and retail uptake promotion (TCC, 2015; Vodacom, 2017; TBL, 2015). At the National Microfinance Bank (NMB), marketing take different forms. From their mission statement which is "through innovative distribution and its extensive branch network, NMB offers affordable customer focused, financials" which indicates that the bank is more customer focused than organisational focused. The banks segments its markets into a group of wholesale segments (which includes corporate, institutional, government (local/ central), transactional services and Trade) and retail segments (which includes personal banking, civil servants and micro and Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) segments). The bank undertakes different campaigns and have self-service channels and a wide distribution network of Automated Teller Machines (ATMs) and branches throughout the country (Wiessing, 2014).

Marketing is playing a great role in these companies. It is a reason why customers consume their products (Hales et al., 2004). It is viewed as a means of improving company's capability and ability to improve its total service to retailers (TBL, 2008). Marketing is also recognised in building brands and royal customer base intangible assets that make up a large percentage of the value of a firm (Kotler et al., 2009).

6 Methodology

This paper was written based on review of 101 works on marketing orientation and issues connected with higher learning institutions ranging from journal papers, company annual reports, government publications and thesis and dissertations published between 1990 and 2018. The corresponding author did this on the course of developing his PhD proposal and decided to present his major findings from literature review in order to enlighten other PhD candidates on a number of gaps which can justify the undertaking of research in the areas where gaps where identified. The author's own PhD work is intended to fill some of the gaps identified.

7 Justifications for Marketing Orientation Studies

The following points reveal the justifications for undertaking marketing orientation studies in Tanzania HLIs.

7.1 Challenges Facing HLIs

It is beyond reasonable doubt that HLIs in Tanzania and globally are facing a multitude of challenges. HLIs in Tanzania are facing low general gross enrolment, bad images due to low quality education, receiving only domestic students despite presence of courses which can attract international students, limited finance for their operations, production of unemployable graduates and low university and technical higher education coverage (Ishengoma, 2008; Mpanju, 2012; Ndyali, 2016; URT, 2010, 2011, 2014, 2016). In overall terms, Tanzania is performing poorly in higher education and training component as revealed by Global Competitiveness Report (2017/2018), where the country is ranked 130 out of 137 by scoring 2.6 out of 7 in

Higher Education and Training sub index (Klaus, 2017). The stated weaknesses in higher education are contrary to the University Act, 2005, University Act (General Regulations), 2013, Education and Training Policy (2014), Vision 2025 and even the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which all emphasize the need for improved quality education as well as increased access and equity to higher education. The only way to cope with such challenges is to be marketing oriented which will enable HLIs to enjoy multiple benefits ((Dolnicar & Lazarevski, 2009; Newman, 2002; Hammond, Webster & Harmon, 2006; Svenson & Wood, 2007; Shepherd, 2008; Ivy, 2001; Nguyen & LeBlanc, 2001).

7.2 Marketing Orientation Centrality

Being marketing oriented is unavoidable in the current age given a bundle of benefits associated with this strategy. According to Sharp (2007) market orientation currently holds the place of leading modern business philosophy throughout the world's major corporations and leading business schools. Unless business schools succeed in improving their marketing, they will stand accused of not practicing what they preach.

7.3 Regulatory Requirements

Higher Learning Institutions governing bodies such as Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU), National Council for Technical Education (NACTE) and Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA), requires institutions under their jurisdiction to undertake self-assessment for the purpose of understanding their quality (IUCEA, 2014, NACTE, nd, TCU, 2014). A marketing orientation-performance study is a reminder for those institutions who do not undertake such a self-study. It is also a broad, an organization wide and comprehensive guidance on what form a self-assessment process can take. This is in line with the views of Ravi, Mansureh & Janelle (2016) and URT (2005, 2013) that underscore "self-study" of HLIs to assess their role in society as effective knowledge-transfer entities.

7.4 Sectoral Variation in Marketing Orientation Studies

Sector-wise, most of the studies in market orientation were in the profit sector rather than in non-profit sector (Dolnicar & Lazarevski, 2009; Tabaku, 2013; Pope et al., 2009), few in general non-profit organisations (Brady et al., 2011; Dolnicar & Lazarevski, 2009) and some in HLIs (Ackerman & Schibrowsky, 2007; Lichiello, 2014; Rowley, 2003; Shepherd, 2008). In Tanzania almost all studies on marketing and market orientation were done in the profit sector (Jaensson & Uiso, 2015; and Meitamei, 2009 (all these studied market orientation and others including Njawa, 2015; Singumlanji, 2009 based on general marketing). Studies on HLIs do exists, but were carried out in different topics (Bastos & Rebois, 2011 (performance of HLIs in science, technology and innovation); Buxay, 2013 (challenges facing HLIs in income generation); Kipesha & Msigwa, 2013 (efficiency of HLIs); ole Gabriel, 2005 (value co-creation and delivery systems in HLIs); and URT, 2000 (challenges of education). To carry a study on the relationship between marketing orientation and HLIs performance in Tanzania environment is therefore justifiable given this sectoral gap.

7.5 Geographical Concentrated Marketing Orientation Literature

Geographically, most of studies on marketing orientation were conducted in other countries outside Africa. Few were carried in Africa (Akomea & Yeboah, 2011; Burgess & Nyajeka, 2007; Mahmoud, Blankson, Owusu-Frimpong, Nwankwo & Trang, 2016; Maringe, 2005) and very few in Tanzania (Daulinge, 2009; Jaensson & Uiso, 2015; Meitamei, 2009). A study on the relationship between marketing orientation and HLIs performance is crucial in order to contribute to a worldwide discussion of marketing orientation on HLIs and other non-profit organisations hence adding new knowledge on the area which is limited and even lacking in Tanzania. The role of marketing orientation cannot be generalised across sectors and countries with different economic, political and cultural structure.

7.6 Variations in Research Methodology

7.6.1 Qualitative Based Studies

Some previous studies on marketing orientation were purely qualitative (Beck, 2015; Hannover, 2014) with findings which were seen as being weak in reliability and possibility to limit availability of more insight, expanded understanding of the studied research problem and difficult in making statistical comparisons (Babbie, 2007; Creswell, 2009). Other studies were purely quantitative. Such situation calls for a mixed method study which will combine both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Baskarada and Koronios (2018) view mixed approach research as the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches, for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration. Creswell (2009) argue that mixed method approach make possible the use of both approaches in tandem so that the overall strength of a study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research. Other advantages of mixed approaches is the potential for gaining a fuller, richer and more complete understanding of a research question with a potential disadvantage of lengthy data collection and analysis phases required and demand placed on the researcher to be expert in the use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches (Jupp, 2006).

7.6.2 Literature Based Studies

Other previous studies on marketing orientation were purely review of literature based studies (Akonkwa, 2009; Canterbury, 2000; Gibbs, 2011; Rotfeld, 2008). Such studies only provide limited findings on marketing of HLIs and information from literature review may also be outdated and may partially address the research questions and objectives (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2007). A study which combine both literature review findings and fresh views collected from the field is important to solve limitations associated with literature reviews.

7.6.3 Single Informant Researches

A number of studies were carried out using single group of informant/respondent (Zebal & Goodwin, 2012; Newman 2002; Polat & Donmez 2010; Voon 2008; McGrath 2002) and these authors complained that their studies posed the problem of absence of generalisability of the findings to other industry contexts and common method bias problems on the results hence advising studies which will involve multi respondents.

7.6.4 Small Samples Problem

A number of studies were carried out using small samples (Beck, 2015-two universities; Lwiza and Nwankwo, 2002-nine (9) respondents; Meitamei, 2010-one bank; Nicolescu et al., 2013-one university). The authors advised future research to use large samples which could be representative of the population in the areas of study, possibility to include critical and key informers who might be viable in providing market-oriented related information, avenue for enhancing enhance the generalisability of the conclusions and overcome other problem like failure to permit statistical analysis of the relationship between variables associated with small sample researches.

7.6.5 Limited Responses Limitation

A number of studies on marketing orientation complained of limited response problems (Ross, Grace & Shao, 2013-where the resultant sample of useable surveys was 159, representing a response rate of 26.1 per cent; Maydeu-Olivares & Lado, 2003-where 122 valid questionnaires were obtained, giving a response rate of 22 percent; Pope et al., 2009 where the response rate was 3.8 per cent; Goetz Hoelter & Krafft, 2013 who obtained a response rate of about 20 percent). The major reason cited by these authors was the use of mailed questionnaires. It was advised that future research use data collection methods which can facilitate high responses rates.

8 Conclusion and Recommendations

We have presented the state of marketing in Tanzania environment and the justifications for undertaking marketing orientation studies in Tanzania HLIs. It is the belief of the authors that this paper will now open the path for those who want to undertake a study on such a topic in such an environment. The justifications are not only for studies in this topic and in this environment only, but studies in any topic and in any environment can justifiably be undertaken based on the findings presented in this paper. Carrying a study because of a particular problem only, because of geographical factors only, because of sectoral variations only, or because of methodological variations only, are weak justifications for studies efforts.

Future research can now be done to fill the gaps stated in this paper. This can have a number of benefits including expansion of marketing orientation knowledge, tapping of marketing orientation associated benefits, improved validity and reliability of the future research findings and high responses rates.

References

Ackerman, R., & Schibrowsky, J. (2007). A business marketing strategy applied to student retention: A higher education initiative. *Journal College Student Retention,* 9(3), 307-336. doi.org/10.2190/CS.9.3.d

Akomea, S.Y., & Yeboah, G. (2011). Market orientation and firm performance in Ghana's pharmaceutical industry. *Journal of Science and Technology,* 3(2), 109-119. doi.org/10.4314/just.v31i2.69399.

Akonkwa, D.B.M. (2009). Is market orientation a relevant strategy for higher education institutions? Context analysis and research agenda. *International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences* 1(3), 311-333. doi.org/10.1108/17566690911004230

Andreasen, A.R., & Kotler, P. (2003). *Strategic marketing for non-profit organisations (6*th Ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Babbie, E. (2007). *Practice of social research (*11th ed). United States of America: Thomson Vvadsvvorth.

Baskarada, S., & Koronios, A. (2018). A philosophical discussion of qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods research in social science. *Qualitative Research Journal,* https://doi.org/10.1108/QRJ-D-17-00042.

Bastos, C.A., & Rebois, R.R. (2011). Review and evaluation of the performance of Tanzania's higher education institutions in science, technology and innovation: Final Report. Working paper 9. http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/SC/pdf/s

Beck, C. N. (2007). A Review of market orientation practices for selected public Carnegie high research activity institutions. A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctorate of Education in

Higher Education Administration Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana. https://studylib.net/doc/13550374.

Beneke, J., & Human, G. (2010). Student recruitment marketing in South Africa: An exploratory study into the adoption of a relationship Orientation. *African Journal of Business Management, 4(4), 435-44. open.uct.ac.za/bitstream/item/19028/*

Bloom, D., Canning, D., & Chan, K. (2006). Higher education and economic Development in Africa. Harvard University. http://ent.arp.harvard.edu/.

Brady, E., Jan, B., Brennan, L., & Conduit. J.J. (2011). Market orientation and marketing in non-profit organisations: Indications for fundraising from Victoria. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing,* 16(1), 84-98. doi.org/10.1002/nvsm.403.

Burgess, S.M., & Nyajeka, P. (2007). Market orientation and performance in low-income countries: The case of Zimbabwean retailers. In J. Antonio Rosa & M. Viswanathan (eds.), Product and market development for subsistence marketplaces. *Advances in International Management. Emerald Group Publishing Limited,* 215-257.doi/abs/10.1016/S1571-5027%2807%2920010-5

Buxay, B.T. (2013). Assessment of challenges facing higher learning institutions in income generation in Tanzania. A Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Business Administration (MBA-CM) of Mzumbe University. Retrieved from scholar.mzumbe.ac.tz/handle/11192/506.

Canterbury, R.M. (2000). Higher education marketing: A challenge. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education,* 9(3), 15-24. doi/abs/10.1300/J050v09n03_02

Caruana, A., Ramaseshan, B., & Ewing, M.T. (1998). Do universities that are more market orientated perform better?" *International Journal of Public Sector Management,* 11(1), 55-70. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513559810199898.

Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM). (2015). A Brief summary of marketing and how it works. Berkshire, L6 9QH. United Kingdom. https://www.cim.co.uk/media/4772/7ps.pdf.

CRDB Bank Plc. (2015). Annual report and financial statements for the year ended 31st December 2015. https://www.dse.co.tz/.../CRDB%20.

Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (3rded). Singapore: SAGE Publications Asia-Pacific Pte. Ltd.

Dolnicar, L., & Katie, S. (2009). Marketing in non-profit organizations: An international perspective. *International Marketing Review,* 26(3), 275-291. doi.org/10.1108/02651330910960780.

Gibbs, P. (2011). An Aristotelian model for ethical higher education marketing: The role of practical wisdom. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education,* 21(3), 203-214. doi/abs/10.../08841241.2011.623732.

Global University Network for Innovation (GUNI). (2007). *Higher Education in the World.* New York: Palgrave McMillan.

Goetz, O. H. A. & Krafft, M. (2013). The role of sales and marketing in market-oriented Companies. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management,* 3(4), 353-371. doi/abs/10.../PSS0885-3134330401.

Grinstein, A., & Amir, G. (2010). Stages in the development of market orientation publication activity. *European Journal of Marketing,* 4(9/10), 26. DOI: 10.1108/03090561011062899.

Hammond, K., Webster, R. L. & Harmon, H. A. (2006). Market orientation, top management emphasis, and performance within university schools of business: Implications for universities. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice,* 4(1), 69-85. doi.org/10.2753/MTP1069-6679140105.

Hemsley-Brown, J., & Oplatka, I. (2010). Market orientation in universities: A comparative study of two national higher education systems. *International Journal of Educational Management,* 24(3), 17. DOI: 10.1108/09513541011031565.

Hunt, S.D., & Morgan, R. M. (1995). The comparative advantage theory of competition. *Journal of Marketing,* 59, 1-15. DOI: 10.2307/1252069.

Hussin, S.R., Ho Soon, T., & Sidin, S.M. (2000). Marketing analysis of the higher education service sector in Malaysia: Consumer perspective *Pertanika J. Soc. Sci. and Hum,* 8(1), 1-6. http://psasir.upm.edu.my/id/eprint/3290/1/.

Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA). (2014). *Principles and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in Higher Education in East Africa*, Kampala.

Ishengoma, J.M. (2008). Financing public higher education in Tanzania: Towards a new model and implications for development and retention of the next generation of academics, Paper presented at the University Leaders' Forum: Next Generation of Academics, Accra, Ghana. www.foundation-partnership.org/.../presentations/.../S4_Ishengoma.

Ivy, J. (2001). Higher education institution image: A Correspondence analysis approach. *The International Journal of Educational Management,* 15(6), 276-82. doi.org/10.1108/09513540110401484

Jaensson, J., & Uiso, U. (2015). Assessing the link between market orientation and poverty reduction in the tourism Industry: The case of Tanzania. *International Journal of Business Tourism and Applied Sciences,* 3(1).http://www.ijbts-journal.com/images/column.

Jupp, V. (2006). *The Sage dictionary of social research methods*. 1 Oliver's Yard 55 City Road London EC1Y 1SP: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Kipesha, E.F., & Msigwa, R. (2013). Efficiency of Higher Learning Institutions: Evidences from Public Universities in Tanzania. *Journal of Education and Practice,* 4 (7). https://www.researchgate.net.

Kirca, A.H., Jayachandran, S., & Bearden, W.O. (2005). Market orientation: A meta-analytic review and assessment of its antecedents and impact on performance. *Journal of Marketing,* 69(2), 24-41. https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.69.2.24.60761

Klaus, S. (2017). *The global competitiveness report 2017–2018*. Geneva: World Economic Forum. https://www.scribd.com/document.

Kohli, A.K., & Jaworski, B.J. (2010). Market orientation: The construct, research propositions, and managerial implications. *Journal of Marketing,* 54, 18. DOI: 10.2307/1251866.

Kotler, P., Keller, K.L., Brady, M., Goodman, M., & Hansen, T. (2009). *Marketing Management*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Kurtinaitienė, J. (2005). Marketing orientation in the European Union mobile telecommunication market. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning,* 23(1):104-113, https://doi.org/10.1108/02634500510577500.

Levitt, T. (1960). Marketing myopia. H*arvard Business Review* July / August. 45-56.https://manchester.rl.talis.com/items/E63A8318-C798-56F6-80A8 600F1FCFD5AE.

Lichiello, P.C. (2014). The graduate retention relationship cycle: The role of performance, engagement, satisfaction, and alienation. Lynchburg College. *Theses and Dissertations. Paper 1*. https://digitalshowcase.lynchburg.edu/etd/1.

Luk, S.T.K. (1997). An Examination of the role of marketing culture in service quality. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Managemen*t, 9(1): 13-20. https://doi.org/10.1108/09596119710157522.

Lwiza, D.R.B., & Nwankwo, S. (2002). Market-driven transformation of the banking sector in Tanzania. *International Journal of Bank Marketing,* 20(1), 38-49. https://doi.org/10.1108/02652320210415971.

Mahmoud, M.A., Blankson, C., Owusu-Frimpong, N., Nwankwo, S., & Trang, T. P. (2016). Market orientation, learning orientation and business performance: The mediating role of innovation. *International Journal of Bank Marketing,* 34(I5), 623-648. doi.org/10.1108/IJBM-04-2015-0057

Marginson, S. (2004). Competition and markets in higher education: A 'glonacal' analysis", *Policy Futures in Education,* 2(2). doi.org/10.2304/pfie.2004.2.2.2.

Maringe, F. (2004). Vice Chancellor's perceptions of university marketing: A view from universities in a developing country." *Higher Education Review,* 36(2), 3-68. https://eprints.soton.ac.uk/id/eprint/41025.

Maringe, F. (2005). Interrogating the crisis in higher education marketing: The CORD model. *International Journal of Educational Management,* 19(7), 564-578. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540510625608.

Maringe, F. (2006). University and course choice: Implications for positioning, recruitment and marketing. *International Journal of Educational Management,* 20(6), 466-479. doi.org/10.1108/09513540610683711.

Maydeu-Olivares, A., & Lado, N. (2003). Market orientation and business economic performance: A mediated model. I*nternational Journal of Service Industry Management,* 14(3), 284-309. doi.org/10.1108/09564230310478837.

McGrath, J. M. (2002). Attitudes about marketing in higher education: An exploratory study. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education,* 12(1), 1-14.doi.org/10.1300/J050v12n01_01.

Meitamei, L. (2010). Market orientation and performance of a bank: The case of Twiga Bancorp Limited. A Dissertation Submitted in (Partial) Fulfilment of the

Requirements for the Degree of Master of Business Administration (Finance) of the University of Dar es Salaam. http://41.86.178.4/jspui/bitstream/1/313/1.

Momrak, E.M. (2012). Effects of market orientation on business performance: Environmental moderators, effectiveness and efficiency mediators and the role of firm capabilities. Thesis Master of Science in Business and Administration Specialization in Marketing, Buskerud University College, Hønefoss. https://brage.bibsys.no/xmlui/handle/11250/142133.

Moorman, C., & Rust, R.T. (1999). The role of marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 63(Special Issue), 187-197. DOI: 10.2307/1252111.

Mpanju, A.K. (2012). The impact of foreign direct investment on employment creation in Tanzania." *ZENITH International Journal of Business Economics & Management Research* 2(1):14. http://zenithresearch.org.

NACTE (nd). *How to discover our quality: Handbook for quality monitoring in technical education in Tanzania.*

Narver, J.C., & Slater, S.P. (1990). The effect of a market orientation on business profitability. *Journal of Marketing,* 54 (October), 20-35. DOI: 10.2307/1251757.

Ndyali, L. (2016). Higher education system and jobless graduates in Tanzania. *Journal of Education and Practice,* 7(4), 6. https://www.iiste.org.

Newman. C.M. (2001). The current state of marketing activity among higher education institutions. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education,* 12(1). doi/abs/10.1300/J050v12n01_02.

Nguyen, N., & LeBlanc, G. (2001). Image and reputation of higher education institutions in students' retention decisions." *International Journal of Educational Management,* 15(6), 303-311. https://doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000005909

Nicolescu, L. (2009). Applying marketing to higher education: scope and limits. *Management and Marketing,* 4(2), 35-44. http://www.managementmarketing.ro/pdf/articole/134.pdf

Niculescu, M., Xu, B., Hampton, G.M., & Peterson, R.T. (2013). Market orientation and its measurement in universities. *Administrative Issues Journal: Education, Practice and Research,* 3(2). DOI: 10.5929/2013.3.2.2.

Njawa, J.J. (2015). The effects of advertising on organizational performance: A case study of TIGO telecommunication network. Unpublished dissertation Submitted in Partial/Fulfilment of the Requirements for Award of the Degree of Master of Business Administration (MBA) of Mzumbe University. http://hdl.handle.net.

ole Gabriel, E. (2005). An assessment of value co-creation and delivery systems in the higher education sector of Tanzania. *African Journal of Finance.* https://edenconsult.net.

Polat, G., & Umit, D. (2010). Marketing management functions of construction companies: Evidence from Turkish contractors. *Journal of Civil Engineering and Management,* 16(2), 267-277. doi/abs/10.3846/jcem.2010.31

Pope, J.A., Isely, E.S., & Asamoa-Tutu, F. (2009). Developing a marketing strategy for non-profit organizations: An exploratory study. *Journal of Nonprofit and Public Sector Marketing,* 21(2), 184-201. doi.org/10.1080/10495140802529532

Rindfleish, J.M. (2003). Segment profiling: Reducing strategic risk in higher education managements. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management,* 25(2), 147-159. doi.org/10.1080/1360080032000122624.

Ross, M., Grace, D., & Shao, W. (2013). Come on higher ed. … get with the programme! A study of market orientation in international student recruitment. *Educational Review,* 65(2), 219-240. doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2012.659656

Rotfeld, H.J. (2008). The largest segments that should not be served: Higher education marketing serving the growing slacker segment. *Journal of Consumer Marketing,* 25(6), 378-380. doi.org/10.1108/07363760810902512.

Rowley, J. (2003). Retention: rhetoric or realistic agendas for the future of higher education. *International Journal of Educational Management,* 17(6), 248-253, https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540310487578.

Šályováa, S.J., Petrovičováa, T., Nedelováa, G., & Ďaďoa, J. (2015). Effect of marketing orientation on business performance: A study from Slovak foodstuff industry. *Procedia Economics and Finance,* 34, 622-629. https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/82801284.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2007). *Research Methods for Business Students (*4th Ed). New York: Prentice Hall.

SeyedJavadin, S., Rayej, H., Yazdani, H., Estiri, M., & Ali, S.A. (2012). How organizational citizenship behaviour mediates between internal marketing and service quality: The case of Iranian Gas Company. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management,* 29(5), 512-530. https://doi.org/10.1108/02656711211230508

Sharp, B. (1991). Marketing orientation: More than just customer focus. *International Marketing Review,* 8 (4). https://doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000001540.

Shepherd, I.D.H. (2008). The application of marketing thinking to student retention. *Planet,* 19(1), 26-30. doi.org/10.11120/plan.2008.00190026.

Singumlanji, L.I. (2009). The role of marketing in sustainable water and sanitation project. The case of MORUWASA. Unpublished dissertation Submitted to Mzumbe University. http://hdl.handle.net.

Stachowski, C.A. (2011). Educational marketing: A review and implications for supporting practice in tertiary education. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership,* 39(2), 186–204. doi.org/10.1177/1741143210390056.

Starck, K., & Hossein, S. Z. (2013). Marketing within higher education institutions: A case study of two private Thai universities: Master thesis in business administration. Mälardalen University, the School of Business, Science and Engineering EFO704. http://www.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:625908/fulltext02.pdf

Svenson, G., & Wood, G. (2007). Are university students really customers? When illusion may lead to delusion for all!. *International Journal of Educational Management,* 2(1), 17-28, https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540710716795.

Tabaku, E., & Mirela, M. (2013). An Overview of marketing means used by non-profit organizations: A detailed overview of NPOs operating in the district of Elbasan. *Journal of Marketing and Management,* 4 (2), 78-95. https://studyres.com/doc/5019039

Tajeddini, K., Trueman, M., & Larsen, G. (2006). Examining the effect of market orientation on innovativeness. *Journal of Marketing Management,* 22, 5-6. doi.org/10.1362/026725706777978640

Tanzania Breweries Limited (TBL). (2015). *Annual report.* Retrieved from https://www.ab-inbev.com/.../reports.

Tanzania Breweries Limited (TBL). (2016). *Annual report.* Retrieved from https://www.ab-inbev.com/.../reports.

Tanzania Breweries Limited. (2008). *Annual report and accounts.* Retrieved from https://www.ab-inbev.com/.../reports.

Tanzania Cigarette Company (TCC). (2015). *Annual report.* Retrieved from https://www.dse.co.tz/.../TCC-%20Annual%20Report%.

Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU), (2014). *Quality assurance: General guidelines and minimum standards for provision of university education in Tanzania* (2nd ed), Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

United Nations Development Programme. (2014). *Sustainable development goals 2030.* https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/?menu=1300.

United Republic of Tanzania. (2000). *Education in a global era: Challenges to equity, opportunity for diversity,* Paper Presented at the Fourteenth Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers (CCEM) Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada, 27 –30.

United Republic of Tanzania. (2005). *University Act.* Dar es Salaam: Government Printer.

United Republic of Tanzania. (2010). *Higher education development programme* 2010-2015, Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, Public Administration.

United Republic of Tanzania. (2011). *Tanzania, beyond primary education, the quest for balanced and efficient policy choices for human development and economic growth,* Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

United Republic of Tanzania. (2013). *Government budget for financial year 2012/2013* Citizens' Budget Edition, Ministry of Finance.

United Republic of Tanzania. (2014). *Government budget for financial year 2013/2014* Citizens' Budget Edition, Ministry of Finance.

United Republic of Tanzania. (2014). *Tanzania development vision 2025: National key result area education-big results now.* Dar es Salaam: Ofisi ya Rais Tume ya Mipango.

United Republic of Tanzania. (2014). *The study on national skills development to Facilitate Tanzania to become a strong and competitive economy by 2025*. President's Office, Planning Commission, Dar es Salaam Tanzania.

United Republic of Tanzania. (2015). S*peech by the Minister for Finance Hon. Saada Mkuya Salum (MP) Introducing to the National Assembly: The Estimates Of Government Revenue and Expenditure for Fiscal Year 2015/2016*. Government Printer.

United Republic of Tanzania. (2016). *National five year development plan, 2016/17 – 2020/21,* Ministry of Finance and Planning, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

United Republic of Tanzania. 2013. *University act general regulations*. Dar es Salaam: Government Printer.

Vodacom Tanzania Public Limited Company. (2017). *Vodacom Tanzania Public Limited Company annual report for the year ended 31 March 2017*. Retrieved from https://vodacom.co.tz/en/investorrelation/index/investorrelation.

Voon, B. H. (2006). Linking a service-driven market orientation to service quality: Managing service quality. *An International Journal,* 16(6), 595-619. https://doi.org/10.1108/09604520610711927.

Voon, B.H. (2008). SERVMO: A measure for service-driven market orientation in higher education. *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education,* 17(2), 216-237. doi.org/10.1080/08841240801912583.

Wiessing, M. (2015). National Microfinance Bank Plc investors' presentation. https://www.nmbbank.co.tz/investor-relations-nmb/...presentations.

Young, L. (2005). *Marketing the professional services firm: Applying the principles and the science of marketing to the professions*. The Atrium, Southern Gate, Chichester, West Sussex PO19 8SQ, England: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Zebal, M.A., & Goodwin, D. R. (2012). Market orientation and performance in private universities. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning,* 30(3), 339-357. https://doi.org/10.1108/02634501211226302

Zhang, L., Kara, A., Spillan, J.E &, Mintu-Wimsatt, A. (2017). Exploring market orientation among Chinese small and medium-sized enterprises. *Chinese Management Studies,* 1(4), 617-636. https://doi.org/10.1108/CMS-08-2016-0158.

Makerere Journal of
Higher Education

ISSN: 1816-6822 (Print)
ISSN: 2707-6113 (Online)
Volume 11 Number 2
August 2019

Contents

East African School of
Higher Education Studies and Development
College of Education and External Studies
Makerere University
P. O. Box 7062
Kampala, Uganda

ISSN 1816-6822
9 771816 682322