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*Full Length Research Paper*

# **Demystifying the Ivory tower syndrome in universities through the use of transformational leadership**

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**One of the major criticisms of top management in universities in most African countries is arguably the isolation of both top management team and intellectuals from the real problems and issues of the real world and business of universities. This disconnect, often referred to as the Ivory tower syndrome, has become a source of concern. Based on experience, observations over the years on administrative practices of vice chancellors and an extensive review of the literature on the nature of the university, Ivory Tower Syndrome, and transformational leadership, ideas derived therefrom are analyzed and thereafter fine threads are synthesized in this study. The integrated ideas helped to highlight the factors responsible for the persistence of the Ivory Tower Syndrome in universities. How the characteristics of transformational leadership can be used to eliminate, or at least, reduce this isolation from the people - staff and students - at the bottom of the ladder with their problems which often lead to strikes and other crisis situations are discussed. Social connectedness is recommended as a strategy that should be imbedded in university governance in Nigeria.**

**Key words:** Higher education institution, hierarchical disconnects, intellectual isolation, leadership theories, social connectedness, transformational leadership, universities.

## **INTRODUCTION**

The success or failure of any organization, nation, and the world over is often attributed to leadership. Leading, therefore, has come to be universally offered as a panacea for almost any social problem. Bolman and Deal (2003), for instance, pointed out that around the world, middle managers are often of the view that their organizations would thrive if only the chief executive provides real leadership. In addition, a widely accepted cannon holds that leadership is a very good thing that organizations need more of, at least, more of the right

kind. This is because even good management is not leadership. It has come to be known that “managers do things right, and leaders do the right things” (Bennis and Naus, 1995: 21). And in complex organizations such as the university, what is required the more to avoid the ivory tower syndrome is leadership, the right type of leadership.

Leadership is a complex term to define. An anonymous writer says ‘leadership is like pornography, love or beauty that is hard to define but easy to recognize’. In spite of

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the popular usage and numerous studies and writings on the subject, there is yet to emerge a universally accepted definition, like most social sciences concepts (Downtown, 1973). In fact, there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept and a search of the word in Google could get us over “479, 000,000 results, each definition as unique as an individual leader” (Daskal, 2016; Burns, 1978; Penn, 2020).

The term leadership comes from an Anglo-Saxon noun, *laedan*, which means a course, a way, a path, and verb *laedan* which is to lead or mark, a sense of direction. From the etymology of the word, leadership may be defined simply as “one who shows others the way” (on a journey). This explanation, though simple, however, gives an insight into what leadership is all about. For the purpose of this paper, therefore, leadership is defined comprehensively as the process in which the chief executive of the university persuades, inspires and influences the attitudes, behavior and actions of others and directs their activities in such a manner that they work willingly, cooperatively and enthusiastically towards the accomplishment of goals, a new and improved position, and in fulfilling the mission and vision of the university. The key features of this definition are the recognition that successful leadership involves subordinates or followers who should be treated as humans, exerting influence and not necessarily authority. It also involves taking employees to not only where they want to go but a greater leader takes them to where they do not necessarily want to go, but ought to be (Carter, 2012) and focusing on the accomplishment of goals. It thus shows that leadership is not an end in itself but a means to an end and it involves unequal distribution of power between leaders and organization members.

### Leadership theories

There is a plethora of leadership theories and these have been grouped under various broad classifications by various authors (Bradley, 2020; Corporate Finance Institute, 2020; Cherry, 2019; Peretomode, 2012). The importance of leadership theories include “a stable focus for understanding what we experience, criteria for what is relevant, enable us to communicate effectively and thus help move into more complex relationships with other people” (Olum, 2007: 16; Olum, 2005). Each of those theories serves as useful guide to action among leaders as their tenet provides wisdom that endures till today. The major leadership theories that will be briefly discussed are grouped as follows:

- i. The Classical Theories of Leadership
- ii. The Behavioural and Styles leadership theory
- iii. The Situational Leadership theory
- iv. The Contingency Leadership theory
- v. Transactional Leadership theory and

### vi. Transformational Leadership Theory

#### The classical theories of leadership

This category of theory was the earliest attempt at the systematic study of leadership. The first of these was the “Great Man” theory which began in the late eighteenth century. As the name suggests, the perspective neglected “women”, as it never thought women could be leaders and those referred to as leaders were born into the right family as members of royalty, aristocracy, head of industries, high ranking military officers and so on. It argued that great leaders will arise from the proper class when there is a great need. Personalities such as Nelson Mandela, Joseph Stalin, Adolf Hitler, Benito Mussolini, Sir Winston Churchill, Franklin D. Roosevelt, Charles de Gaulle, Napoleon Bonaparte, Indira Gandhi and others are considered as “great men” who arose as a result of the circumstance of the time and had impact on their nations and the world. The underlying assumption is that leaders are “born and not made”.

The “Great Man” theory was attributed to the 19<sup>th</sup> Century Scottish Philosopher and Commentator, Thomas Carlyle (1840. 1888). He postulated that “the history of the world is but the biography of “great men”, and Caplan (2005) pointed out that “It is often, indeed, once people accept you as a “great man”, it is easy to get them to do all sorts of things. Men will kill for you, bleed for you, and sit around doing nothing for you. These postulations including the Aristotle’s assertion in his book, *Politics*, Book I (1885) “from the hour of birth, some are marked out for subjection, some for rule” are some of the philosophical positions often used to support the Great Man theory of Leadership.

The trait theory was developed from the “Great Man” theory of leadership. It holds that leaders are born with certain inherent characteristics called traits in the right combinations. Some of the traits that have been identified through studies are, above average intelligence, initiative, personality traits such as alertness, integrity, originality and self-confidence. The classical approach has been criticized for its elitist and sexist view of leadership. Its failure to understand that “Great Man” were merely products of their social environment, its failure to take cognizance of the role of followers or “little men” in the history of great men, and the list of traits which were unending were considered as serious limitations (Grant et al., 2011). These criticisms notwithstanding, the strengths of the approach cannot be overlooked. As Yaverbaum and Sherman (2008) and Penn (2020) have rightly pointed out, that studying the characteristics, behaviours and knowledge and lives of famous royal, military or industrial leaders or great political leaders such as Nelson Mandela of South Africa, Margaret Thatcher of Great Britain and Julius Nyerere of Tanzania may in fact provide you with some tools that help to develop your

own leadership qualities, both inherent and learned.

### **Behavioral and styles leadership theory**

This theory emerged as a result of a shift from the emphasis on Great Man and traits approaches to the actual actions and observable behaviours of leaders. It focused on what the effective leader does”, the right behaviors and styles. The behavioural approach sought the “One best” style of leadership that will be effective in all situations. This style could either be concern for tasks also referred to as initiating structure or concern for employees called consideration or people oriented. The dimensions’ studies by Ohio State University, University of Michigan and Blake and Mouton (1964)’s studies that built on the previous two studies which resulted in the development of the managerial grid are under this broad category of leadership theory. One of the major criticisms of this category of theories is that they only merely classified leaders without telling them how best to behave in order to be effective. Similarly, they identify a universal style suitable for all circumstances.

### **Situational leadership theory**

This theory hypothesizes that there is no simple one right way to lead and for a leader to be effective, he/she must determine the situation they are facing and adopt appropriate style. It assumes that leadership styles are relatively flexible enough for the leader to move along the continuum, front and back, from autocratic to democratic or from task oriented to people oriented. In other words, effective leaders change their styles to fit the situation as different situations demand different styles of leadership and decision making. The Tannebaum and Schmidt’s leadership continuum model, the Reddin’s 3-D Theory of leadership, the Hersey and Blanchard’s Life Cycle theory of leadership and path-goal theory of leadership are four that belong to the category of situational leadership theory.

### **Contingency theory of leadership**

This theory, like situational leadership theories, maintains that no leadership style is best under all circumstances. Unlike situational theory which stipulates that leadership is relatively flexible and therefore a leader can change from one style to another depending on the characteristics of the situation, contingency theory holds that leadership style is relatively inflexible. Therefore, the right approach should be to diagnose a situation and select a leader with the appropriate style to fit the situation, if he or she is to be effective. Three common contingency theories are

Fieldler’s contingency theory of leadership effectiveness, Cognitive resource leadership and Strategic contingency theory.

### **Transactional leadership theory**

This theory is referred to as management theory of leadership. The transactional leadership views leadership as mutual and reciprocal process of exchange between leaders and followers. This exchange needs not be money or materials; it could be anything and the more exchange two people have, the stronger the relationship (Babou, 2008).

Transactional leaders motivate followers by exchanging rewards for services rendered. If a person achieves his task then he/she can expect to be rewarded; but if he/she does something poorly or does not accomplish the task assigned, he/she will not be rewarded; he could expect to be punished. People are likely to follow leaders if they consider their rewards/incentives as fair and equitable in relation to what is required of them (Zigarelli, 2020). The transactional leadership emphasized external rewards to motivate employees (Maxwell, 1993; Howell and Costley, 2001). Burns (1978; 2003) argues that the transactional leader recognizes an existing need or potential demand in followers and seeks to exploit or satisfy them so as to engage the full person and followers. Transformational leadership would be discussed in details a bit later.

### **Objectives**

The objectives of this paper are to study:

- i. The nature of universities and explain the Ivory Tower Syndrome
- ii. Factors responsible for the ivory tower syndrome
- iii. Explain transformational leadership
- iv. How university leaders can demolish the ivory tower syndrome and adopting and applying the transformational leadership style.

### **METHODOLOGY**

This paper is not based on the usual scientific procedure. It is not a quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods research. Therefore, instruments were not used to collect data, research questions or hypotheses were not formulated, population, sample and sampling technique was not used, validity and reliability coefficient of instrument used was not determined and statistical techniques were not used to analyze data. As a result, there was no presentation of results and discussion and no recommendations were given. This is a positional and theoretical paper based on an eclectic approach - a

combination of administrative experience, discussions in conferences and observations of the administrative practices of colleague vice chancellors that have been considered as good and effective leaders. The knowledge from these sources and ideas from the extensive review of the relevant literature on the ivory tower syndrome and transformational leadership were analyzed; they were thereafter synthesized and used to make a new and creative meaning in addressing the objectives of the paper.

### The nature of the university

A university, small, medium or large; private, profit, non-for-profit or public, is considered a complex organization. By definition, an organization is a group of people deliberately brought together and organized to work to accomplish an overall common goal or set of goals. Complex organizations have many people, processes, strategies, basic rules and many diverse and autonomous but interrelated and interdependent components linked through many interconnections (Wikipedia, 2020; Hasenfeld, 2013). Such organizations are shaped by the interrelationships of the individuals within them and by the contexts of the environment in which they exist. They are designed to find solutions to problems. Complex organizations are so important that Hasenfeld (2013) considered them as fundamental building blocks of modern societies.

The university as a complex organization is, however, unique in a number of ways. For these features it has come to be referred to as an example of an organized anarchy (Cohen and March, 1974), loosely coupled system (Weick, 1976), a chaotic system or a garbage can (Cohen et al., 1972). Other general properties of the university that has earned it these descriptions include its problematic preferences as universities operate on the basis of inconsistent and ill-defined preferences, ambiguity in goals and objectives, fragmented professional teams, unclear technology and fluid participation of members. It is also characterized by fragmentation due to division by subject field and highly fragmented departmental structure, highly diffused decision making process and high resistance to change (Mainardes et al., 2011).

Further, Cohen and March (1974) and Becher and Kogan (1992) observed an excess of personal styles, a lack of precision in communication and institutional interaction between its internal and external environments among universities. Meyer (1982), in his findings, concluded that the main actions differentiating the university from regular companies are; the political nature that prevails in decisions taken, the demands of decentralized and fragmented structure, the difficulties of measuring the products resulting from organizational actions and lack of performance standards and

commitments to results (Mainardes et al., 2011). Finally, in universities, the diversity of students demand a voice and want to be heard, and they have to be listened to, and their demands, sometimes, even unreasonable, influence decisions. It is for the above reasons that Baldrige (1980) described universities as complex institutions with fragmented professional teams that use a vast range of abilities to handle wide range of routine issues and problems.

### The “Ivory Tower Syndrome” Explained

The origin of the term, “Ivory Tower”, is traceable to the book of knowledge – the Holy Bible. In the Song of Solomon, Chapter 7 verse 4, it is written, “Your neck is like a tower of Ivory”. This same term was later used in the sixteenth century as a symbol of the Blessed Virgin Mary. According to Wikipedia (2020), the same term was used from the nineteenth century to designate:

*a world where intellectuals engage in pursuits that are disconnected from the practical concerns of everyday life. As such, it usually carries pejorative connotations of a willful disconnect from everyday world; esoteric, over-specialized, even useless research; and academic elitism, if not outright condescension (p. 1).*

Wikipedia (2020) also expressed the point that it is a common knowledge today that the term, “Ivory Tower” is also used as a shorthand for academia or the university; an institution where specialists are deeply concerned with their disciplines and some simply accept that even the educated people cannot understand their lingua franca and therefore live in intellectual isolation. That is, being out of touch with the “real world or the rest of the world” or “becomes disconnected from the reality of the business” of the organization (Ahmed, 2007). From the above analysis, it can be argued that the term, ivory tower, is being used in two different ways;

- a. In a positive sense to mean a citadel of learning and
- b. In a negative sense to mean being out of touch with the “practicalities of the real world”.

According to Ahmed (2007: 3), being out of touch with the real world, or real problems or people within an organization, is a major problem with respect to leaders in Africa and most other developing countries. The situation in which top management becomes so disconnected and out of touch with the experiences and problems of those at the bottom of the organizational hierarchy, who actually get the work done, is what is called “the Ivory Tower Syndrome”. Thus, Ivory Tower Syndrome is used as a disparaging term to refer to elitist detachment from real issues or problems. It came to be commonly used in the twentieth century to refer to

intellectuals in universities (Shapin, 2012). It has been pointed out, that when leaders get stuck in the isolated ivory tower syndrome, their decisions are beclouded as they lose focus and tend to cater to the issues and problems with other leaders and managers. The result is that decisions make them interfere with client service, and strategic decisions do not take into consideration every implication for clients and employees (www.optimumimpact.org, 2014). There are inherent dangers in this state of affairs for an organization on its way to achieving effectiveness and efficiency. Terry (2013) lucidly explained what Ivory Tower is and its dangers when he hypothesized that:

*Ivory tower syndrome is the biggest barrier to progress for any leader, because it's essentially a huge disconnection – that is, the leader is spending too much time behind a desk, in front of a computer, in meetings with other tower inhabitants, in discussions with lawyers, bankers, club members, and investors, or working the business social circuits .... When the syndrome is in full flower, the leader is fully separated from the reality of the business – a truly dangerous place. Decisions get made on partial information or worse yet, based on hearsay (p.1).*

The reason given by President Lincoln in September 1861 for example, for relieving General John C. Fremont of his Missouri command is a vivid illustration of a man who was stuck in his "Ivory Tower". Lincoln has said of the General that,

*"His cardinal mistake is that he isolates himself, and allows nobody to see him; and by which he does not know what is going on in the very matter he is dealing with"* (Meyer, 2004).

There is no doubt that the Ivory tower syndrome is a real thing; it is quickly noticed by employees and makes leaders to "forget what life is like in the trenches" (www.ivyexec.com). Similarly, Morales (2019) reminded us that the Ivory tower" was a beast to be reckoned with.

### **Factors responsible for the ivory tower syndrome**

There are a number of reasons that can be adduced for the existence of the ivory tower syndrome in complex organizations such as the university. These factors include the following:

1. The very complex nature of universities and complex organizations, particularly those with tall structures. This leads to filtering of information at every layer of the organization and gets distorted before reaching the top hierarchy of the organization.
2. Pressures and time demands on the chief executive

and top management of the organization. Some of these pressures are self-imposed and others due to lack of good time management practices.

3. The leader not having access to information or having access only to already filtered information from employees or friends of a particular knitted association.
4. Concentration of decision making on self or the top management team.
5. Inappropriate use of communication and communication channels.
6. Under or over-supervision by management.
7. Lack of appropriate support for staff and lack of responsibility and accountability
8. The tendency of the chief executive to spend most time with other leaders or managers or his close associates in the organization and not with those at the bottom. Consequently, he soon gets out-of touch with the non-managers, those at the bottom of the organization, who work directly with the clients or customers.
9. The chief executive standing in the 'Ivory Tower' without getting out to reach out to the staff, going round the departments once in a while to find out what their concerns are, if any .
10. Decisions affecting employees are made without their input. Decisions are made from the boardroom. Emphasis is on top-down approach to management, and any staff who raises concern on the generality of staff and problems of the organization is looked upon as a trouble maker that must be silenced.
11. Handing procedures down as edicts (Ahmed, 2007; Wanless, 2012; Nelson, 2010; Ron, 2014; Peretomode, 2020) without opportunity for input or observations.
12. Keeping and relying on an inner circle – a small group of knowledgeable staff who keep the leader informed and advised but are just a pack of pathetic hypocrites (independent.co.uk, 2011).
13. Rigidity and inflexible leadership style followed with intimidation of employees.

### **Transformational Leadership**

Transformational leadership, unlike transactional, is based on the assumption that people will follow people who inspire them and that working collaboratively is better than individually (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985, 1990). It is also referred to as relationship theory because it focuses on the relationship between leaders and their followers or subordinates. The term transformational leadership (TL) is now frequently used in everyday discussions in politics and organizations. First coined by J. V. Downton in 1973, the term was popularized by James McGregor Burns in his Pulitzer Prize Winning book, Leadership, published in 1978. Later, Bass (1985), Bass and Avolio (1998) and other scholars extended and operationalized the term. Transformational Leadership (TL) is about change. TL leaders are said to be flexible

and adaptable, often inspiring others to follow a shared vision, knowing that change is one of the only constants in the universe, and the leadership process is also based on a set of ethical values (Groves and LaRocca, 2011).

According to Burns (1978), TL is a process and practice by which a leader engages his followers in such a way that the leaders and followers raise one another to higher ideals and values of followers. And Bass (1985) identified three ways in which leaders transform followers:

- (i) Increasing their awareness of task importance and value
- (ii) Getting them to focus first on team and organizational goals rather than individual interests, and
- (iii) Activating their higher order needs, as similarly expressed by Maslow (1943).

The major assumptions of transformational leadership are well articulated in Peretomode (2012) to include the following:

- (i) People will follow a person who inspires them
- (ii) Awareness of task importance motivates people
- (iii) Working cooperatively and collaboratively is better than working individually, even with the best of energy
- (iv) A person with vision and passion for the vision made can achieve greater things
- (v) The way to get things done is by injecting enthusiasm and energy in the work place (Bass, 1985).

The four components of transformational leadership are; idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1998; Hoy and Mickel, 2005). However, it is the additive effects of pulling together these components (Figure 1) that enable a leader, the transformational leader, to reach a performance level which is beyond expectations (Northouse, 2007; Reger, 2010) as he “pulls” people with enthusiasm and energy and commitment to achieve set goals.

Seven major themes or patterns and connections have been identified to be associated with transformational leadership. These have been gleaned from the works of Pielstick (1998) and summarized thus:

1. Vision-ability. This is the ability to develop a shared vision that synthesizes the dream and aspirations of others and thus helping to create a sense of unity and community among employees.
2. Constantly communicating the shared vision to the different constituents so as to inspire, motivate and reinforce the vision among them.
3. Building relationships and value high quality collaboration.
4. Developing a supportive culture, recognizing accomplishments and fostering cooperation within and

between groups.

5. Guiding implementation of the shared vision zealously to ensure success.
6. Exhibiting character – operating from principles of honesty, integrity, trust, fairness, equity, justice, dignity and respect for self and for others.
7. Achieving results

### **How university administrators can demystify and eliminate the ivory tower syndrome through transformational leadership style**

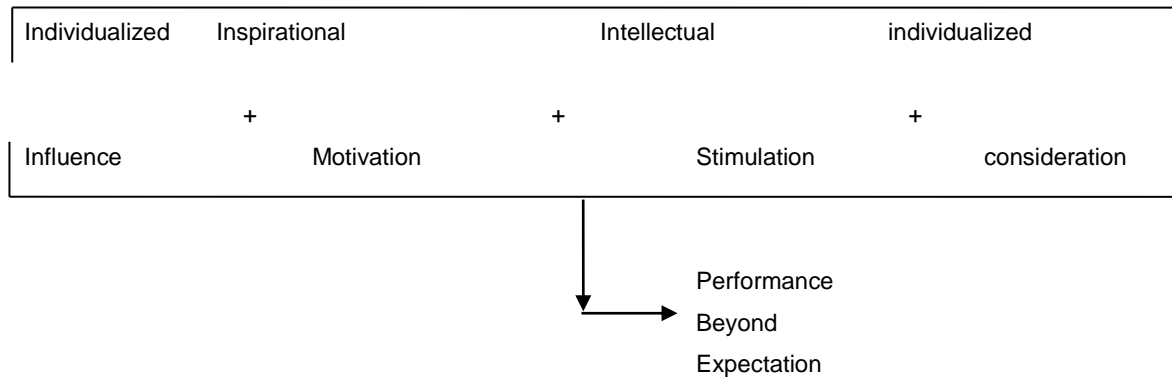
The Ivory Tower Syndrome is a common feature of most universities and other types of tertiary institutions in Nigeria and in most other developing countries today and unless the leader makes conscious effort to stay in touch with employees of the organisation, especially those in the lower cadre, he/she would be struck in the ivory tower. Demystifying the ivory tower syndrome therefore implies a leader paying genuine and conscious attention and allocating time to staying in touch with the employees. He/she must come down from the ‘ivory tower’ in order to remove this mystery/syndrome associated with most complex organizations.

Evidence abound that supports the proposition that transformational leadership is an effective form of leadership (Bass, 1985) and experience has shown that this leadership style is being used knowingly or unknowingly, to bring about an unprecedented transformation to the university in all aspects. These include innovative academic programmes, quality control mechanisms, new assessment methods, administrative reforms, infrastructural developments – roads, accommodation –staff, offices, accommodations, students and lecture halls. The process should be based on top-down and bottom – up approaches to get the inputs of the lower level. He should establish good working relationship with staff, the various unions, students, stakeholders, community and government agencies. Staff and students welfare should be paramount in his agenda.

The university’s top administrator should emphasize staff development and training and re-training, determining first their renewal needs and secondly their preferred development practices. It is when there is a congruence between development training needs and preferred development practices that the Chief Executive would be able to achieve this uncommon transformation because he would have been seen as having “come down from the “Ivory tower” to determine the staff development needs and inspire the people toward a shared vision and making informed decisions.

The Vice Chancellor should be able to demonstrate all the components of a transformational leader identified by Pielstick (1998) – visionability, communication of share vision, development of a supportive culture by involving those to be affected by and those who will implement the

## Transformational Leadership



**Figure 1.** Additive effect of transformational leadership

**Source:** Reger (2010). Leadership Theories. school

Org>leadership-theories-andrea-reger-theories. Retrieves 23<sup>rd</sup> November, 2020

shared vision, guiding implementation of the shared vision, delegating responsibilities, exhibiting integrity and above all achieving desired results. The chief executive should possess a passionate and powerfully clear vision of what he wanted accomplished and be able to share that vision which becomes a shared vision by communicating it as clearly as possible to as many employees as he possibly could.

As a transformational leader, the Vice Chancellor should inspire hope among followers/employees and that vision of hope would fire up employees to join hand with him. The result would be the needed support and team work to achieve the transformation he needed the university to achieve during his/her tenure as the Vice Chancellor. By so doing, his/her monumental achievements would enable his/her tenure to be considered as the “golden age” of the university.

Besides, the Vice Chancellor should grow others; he should make many other leaders by building outstanding teams and outstanding team leaders. He should be able to achieve this by the free hand he gives to those whom he had delegated responsibilities, emphasizing the importance of team work and achievements of results. He should always maintain that once he has delegated responsibilities, the person should be given commensurate authority to enable the person achieve them. The application of the management principle of management-by-exception in his leadership pattern would help build confidence and sense of responsibility and accountability in staff.

Further, the Vice Chancellor should be a very good communicator. But more importantly, he must even be a greater and better listener. He should be willing to learn from his employees and even admit honest mistakes. The Chief Executive should also have an open door policy. He should be approachable and accessible to

those at the lower hierarchy. His phone lines should be opened, even to students and lower level employees and should meet with the students and staff unions even if not regularly. He must be in touch and several of his actions should be based on bottom-up decision making approach, at least have their inputs on matters that would impact them and those who would participate in the implementation of critical decisions.

As the Chief executive, he must never be stuck at the Ivory Tower. He should regularly walk around the campuses/sites and be physically present with the employees. He should speak and joke with staff and students and listen to them. He should visit offices, units, faculties and departments not to closely supervise them but to hear their challenges, problems, threat and their initiatives or preferred solutions to problems or potential problems. This would pay off tremendously as he would be aware of potential problems and take proactive actions for the betterment and progress of the institution. Prevention, they say, is better than cure. Terry (2013) is also of the view that efforts must be made to establish communities of practice and community engagement networks (Bucleys and Toit, 2009; Hoyt and Hollister, 2020), as this would assist in bridging the gap and gulf between the top management and those employees at the lower hierarchy.

Finally, the Vice Chancellor on whose table ‘the buck stops’ should hold frequent management meetings, and sometimes expanded management meetings, in addition to monthly meetings of Senate to bring people on board on his vision, relevant current happenings and in translating this in these meetings. He should listen more and do not dominate the discussions. The result is that whenever he is away, officers of the University – the Deputy Vice-Chancellors, Deans, Directors and Head of Departments - know exactly what is to be done. As Syque

(2010) will put it, because the “leader is a transformational leader, and connected with his staff, great things will happen. He and the led would often be on the same page as all their strategy will be focused to achieve maximum results with less oversight. Because he had articulated the target goal, everyone would understand the direction to move towards”. The above point is made more explicit when one considers the statement from an army officer in Afghanistan as quoted by Syque (2010):

*A Chechen commander was killed in 2008. On his body was found a diary that compared fighting the U.S. with fighting Russians. He noted that when you take out the Russian leader, the unit stops and mills about, not sure of what to do next. But when you take out a U.S. leader, somebody always and quickly takes his place with no loss of momentum. A squad leader goes down; it may be a private that steps up to the plate before they can iron out the new chain of command. And the damn thing is that the private knows what the hell he is doing.*

The above quotation should be the goal of good leadership, a leader who is not stuck in the ivory tower in a university, a leader who wants to overcome the ivory tower syndrome, a leader who is not isolated from the led or followers or employees. Shared vision, collective agenda, making more leaders, and developing common strategy are crucial in demystifying the ivory tower syndrome.

## CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The ivory tower syndrome is a natural and common process in most organizations including the university. This state of affairs could be attributed to the multi-task nature of the job pressures and demands; the Chief executive may spend most time with other top management, focus on the big issues and pay little attention on the “little things” and the people below who work directly with the clients. Overtime, he becomes disconnected from the people. To unlock the ivory tower syndrome, therefore, the chief executive should be aware of this phenomenon and pay conscious attention to those at the bottom of the organization through social connectedness. Social connection is the experience of feeling close and connected to others” even while physical distance exists. According to Eissenberger and Cole (2012), social connection involves feeling loved, cared for and valued”. It is the energy that exists between people when they feel seen, heard, and valued; when they can give and receive without judgment and they derive substance and strength from the relationship (Brown, 2010). Social connection can therefore be considered to be similar to Maslow’s man’s belongingness and love needs and this is a core human need, and the desire to connect is a fundamental drive and this is crucial to development (Baumeister and Leary, 1995;

Lieberman, 2013; Jaak, 2004). He must work out strategy that enables him interact with the various constituents with honesty and integrity and also listen to them. The Vice Chancellor, during his tenure as the Chief Executive of his University, must come down from the Ivory Tower, mix with the people and carry them along and they would be with him. By his leadership style which is transformational in nature, he and his inspired employees could bring about an unprecedented development and transformations by the time his tenure expires.

## CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The author has not declared any conflict of interests.

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*Full Length Research Paper*

# **Performance appraisal training of employees: A strategy to enhance employees' performance in public teacher training colleges in Kenya**

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Human Resource (HR) practices like performance appraisal (PA) training are meant to ensure that employees are equipped with the knowledge and skills needed for the attainment of organisational goals. However, gaps still exist on the relationship between PA employees' training and employees' performance. This study aimed to establish the relationship between PA training and employees' performance in Public Teacher Training Colleges (PTTCs) in Kenya. A cross-sectional survey study was conducted among 282 employees comprising 185 appraisee's and 97 appraisers in all the 27 PTTCs. Proportionate stratified sampling technique was used and a self-administered semi-structured questionnaire was used to collect sociodemographic data and PA practices. Linear regression analysis indicated that PA training contribution to employee's performance was not significant ( $R^2 = 0.001$ ). Appraisee's preferred quarterly appraisal trainings and appraisers preferred those conducted twice a year ( $P=0.0054$ ;  $P=0.0025$ ), respectively. Personal request ( $P=0.0086$ ) was the basic selection criterion considered for appraisers to attend PA training whereas for appraisee's, the management considered individual performance ( $P=0.0011$ ). The PA training among appraisers focused on corruption prevention and service delivery ( $P=0.0031$ ;  $P=0.0232$  respectively) whereas for appraisee's, it focused on conflict resolutions ( $P=0.0299$ ). Additional courses besides PA training were intended to enhance employees' personal development ( $P=0.0002$ ). Appraisers opined that the relevance of PA training on employees' personal development was not relevant at all ( $P=0.013$ ) and ineffective ( $P=0.0055$ ). Results suggest well-designed PA programmes that guarantee employees' personal development and career progression enhances their commitment and may positively affect their performance.

**Key words:** Appraisers, appraisees, teacher training, performance appraisal training, employees' performance.

## INTRODUCTION

Human resource (HR) is considered to be significant and a critical area of management especially over the last few years. The effect of HR practices on employees' performance has attracted considerable attention globally in the past 25 years (Mohammad et al., 2017). In organizations which implement these HR practices, employees feel secure and comfortable which in turn enhances the level of employees' job performance (Nadarajah et al., 2012; Saleem and Khurshid, 2014). Human resource practices like training have been linked to almost all managerial functions. Implementation of these HR practices helps to maximize the competences of employees (Saleem and Khurshid, 2014). Training efforts seek to improve knowledge, skills, attitudes, or behaviour (Bell et al., 2017).

Organizations have utilized training to introduce new management skills such as employees' performance appraisal (PA) which is the systematic evaluation of the performance of employees to understand the abilities of a person for further growth and development (GoK, 2012). In the Education sector in Kenya, performance appraisal management reforms were introduced in Primary Teacher Training Colleges (PTTCs) in 2008 through the Ministry of Education, Education Strategic Plan (2008-2012). PTTCs are under the Directorate of Basic Education responsible for coordination and management of programmes and activities in the Early Childhood Development, Primary Education and Teachers Training Colleges for P1 where they supervise the management and service provision in the institutions. One aspect of the plan was to achieve optimal utilization of human resource in PTTCs by introducing a Performance Appraisal Training for their staff. The purpose of PA training in PTTCs was to review and improve teaching standards in basic education training through a systemic appraisal approach, with a view of evaluating tutor's performance and promoting professional development. To achieve this, PA is guided by various objectives; these include: to provide quality education to trainees in all public institutions, to give tutors opportunity to improve on their performance competencies, to analyse tutor's performance gaps and provide support for professional development and to maintain cumulative records of teaching and learning performance for decision making.

Adoption and effective utilization of new or improved management innovations like employees' PA requires enabling HR practices like training to create awareness and clarify expectations (Singh and Kassa, 2016). In this

regard, the PA training strategy is effective in providing awareness to senior managers and the training objectives should be linked to organizational strategic objectives (Kelli et al., 2015). Effective PA training culminates in senior managers creating training tools which involve designing the process, training employees on how to use the tools, training managers on how to provide feedback and set performance goals (Sujith, 2019). This should be done while adhering to legal guidelines, distributing resources and instructions as well as monitoring the whole process. Comprehensive PA training enables organizations to validate that employees have the right skills and knowledge to complete job tasks and produce quality products and services. Performance appraisal training activities designed to support an effective PA process involve establishing an on-going communication process between employees and managers. It helps in increasing the performance of employees both at individual and organizational level (Al-Mzary et al., 2015; Okechukwu, 2017). Researchers (Afsana et al., 2016; Singh, 2016) have found positive relationship between training and employees' job performance. However, most of these studies have been conducted in industrial organizational settings (Khan et al., 2016; Tahir et al., 2014) while less attention has been given to such relationships in the higher education sector (Al-Mzary et al., 2015).

An effective PA process aids management in decision-making processes associated with promotion, discipline and salary administration activities. Dealing with performance problems promptly avoids long-term problems, including legal liabilities. Improved employees' performance reduces costly mistakes, increases productivity and motivates personnel to achieve strategic goals (Ikramullah et al., 2016). Top-down training strategy has been shown to be more effective by providing awareness training first to senior managers and team-building training later. It has been previously noted that a single training will not change employees' behaviour (Kelli et al. 2015). Therefore, it is vital that managers be aware of the possible bias among associates and conduct training on a continuous basis. Organizations should therefore perform training needs assessment and design the training programmes accordingly. In this regard, Roberson et al. (2003) suggested that when dealing with diverse workforce, human resources managers should carefully perform training needs assessment and offer training programmes which aid attainment of organizational goals. Performance appraisal also offers an opportunity for a supervisor and a

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subordinate to recognize and agree upon individual training needs. Performance appraisal training should encourage employees to engage in career development in order to take on more complex roles. Too often, it appears this fundamental view of staff development is unheeded or forgotten. The focus of development tends to be primarily on an organization's future, manpower requirements and not on the growth needs of individuals in the workplace (Sujith, 2019). Staff development is considered a joint and collaborative effort of the organization and the employees to enrich employees' attitudes, experiences, knowledge, skills and abilities to improve their effectiveness (Noe et al., 2003).

Results of the empirical studies conducted by Hafeez and Akbar (2015), and Falola et al. (2014) demonstrated that PA training has a positive effect on employees' performance. Lim and Ling (2012) argued that when organizations follow the best PA processes, employees feel that the organization is committed to providing equal opportunities, which creates satisfaction amongst employees. Similarly, when organizations provide PA training opportunities, employees feel that the organization cares about their career development, which creates job satisfaction. Despite the global changes in HR practices, some organisations still do not have clearly defined training plans and policies. Although several studies have been done in human resource management, gaps still exist on the relationship of PA training and employees' performance, especially how this relates to employees' performance in academic institutions especially in the developing countries (Ongalo and Tari, 2015; Kamoche et al., 2004). In addition, literature on PA training is sketchy in the East African region, regardless of the effort put towards employee training (Afshan et al., 2012; Debrah and Ofori, 2006). In view of the above, the present study assessed the relationship between PA training practices and employees' performance in public teacher training colleges in Kenya.

## METHODOLOGY

Stratified random sampling was used to select a sample of 330 respondents from a target population of 1881 employees. A cross-sectional survey approach was used in which data were collected from 282 employees, comprising 185 appraisees and 97 appraisers in all the 27 Public Teacher Training Colleges in Kenya. To avoid the common method bias problem, two different questionnaires and interview schedules were developed and respondents (appraisers and appraisees) were asked to respond to a set of open and closed ended, and Likert scale questions. Positive and negative phrasing of questions was used to avoid tutors answering similarly to every question (de Winter and Dodou, 2010). To ensure validity and reliability, the questionnaires were verified and a pilot study was conducted. Internal consistencies were computed during the pilot study using Cronbach's Alpha co-efficient. The coefficients for the

variables under study ranged from 0.764 to 0.814 and according to George and Mallery (2003) coefficients greater than  $\alpha > 0.7$  are acceptable while  $\alpha > 0.8$  are good.

A total of 330 questionnaires were distributed to appraisers and appraisees and 282 questionnaires were returned after completion and were used for data analysis. Data analyses were conducted using SPSS, version 20 (IBM SPSS Inc., New York, USA). Pearson's Chi-square test (Table 1) and Welch's two-sample t test (Table 2) were used to determine the distribution of proportions of independent variables among the appraisers and appraisees. Differences in appraisers and appraisees' responses were considered significant if the *P*-value was  $\leq 0.05$ . Responses to questions structured as Likert scales were assigned a number between 1 and 5 (Boynton and Greenhalgh, 2004), to enable calculation of mean scores and their standard deviations, and subsequent statistical comparison of appraisers and appraisees responses. A hypothesis was formulated to establish the relationship between performance appraisal training and employees' performance in Public Teacher Training Colleges in Kenya. A regression model was used to test the hypothesis and an ANOVA was used to test the significance of the model (Tables 3 and 4). The conceptual framework is illustrated in Figure 1.

## RESULTS

Questionnaires were sent to all 330 sampled tutors in the 27 PTTCs in Kenya. Two hundred and eighty-two (282/330: 85.5%) tutors responded. 97(34.5%) were for appraisers and 185 (65.5%) were for appraisees.

### Aspects of employees' PA training in public teacher training colleges in Kenya

Based on the analysis, all employees had attended PA trainings in PTTCs ( $P=0.001$ ). In addition, frequency of PA training varied in various colleges where appraisees preferred the quarterly appraisals trainings ( $P=0.0054$ ) but appraisers preferred the appraisal trainings conducted twice a year ( $P=0.0025$ ). Personal request ( $P=0.0086$ ) was the basic selection criterion considered for appraisers to attend PA training whereas for appraisees the management considered individual qualification ( $P=0.0011$ ). Moreover, PA training did not address employees' needs ( $P=0.0317$ ). The PA training programme among appraisers mainly focussed on corruption prevention and service delivery ( $P=0.0031$ ;  $P=0.0232$  respectively); whereas for appraisees it focussed on conflict resolutions ( $P=0.0299$ ). Appraisers found it necessary to undertake other courses apart from PA training conducted in PTTCs as compared to appraisees ( $P=0.0241$ ). The extra courses besides PA training were purposed for enhancing employee's personal development as opposed to PA training competency ( $P=0.0002$ ). Appraisers opined that the relevance of PA training on employee's personal development was not relevant at all ( $P=0.013$ ); although

**Table 1.** Aspects of employee training and development in public teacher training colleges in Kenya.

Variable	Appraiser		Appraisee		P-Value
	n	%	N	%	
<b>Awareness of PA Training</b>					
Yes	52	53.4	89	47.8	0.3725
No	45	46.6	96	52.2	
<b>Attendance of PA Training</b>					
Yes	56	57.7	171	92.4	0.001
No	41	42.3	14	7.6	
<b>Facilitation of PA Training</b>					
Self	24	24.7	31	16.7	0.1075
College	58	59.8	130	70.3	0.0761
Other individuals or organization	15	15.5	24	13	0.5645
<b>Availability of PA Training Programme</b>					
Yes	43	44.3	102	55.1	0.0853
No	54	55.7	83	44.9	
<b>Frequency of PA Training</b>					
Continuous	8	8.2	15	8.1	0.9768
Quarterly	13	13.4	52	28.1	0.0054
Twice a year	26	26.8	23	12.4	0.0025
Yearly	13	13.4	41	22.2	0.0751
After 2 years	12	12.4	17	9.2	0.4019
Never	25	25.8	37	20	0.2648
<b>Selection for PA Training</b>					
Personal request	16	16.5	12	6.6	0.0086
Appraiser recommendation	10	10.3	18	9.7	0.8729
Individual qualification	1	1.0	23	12.4	0.0011
Individual performance	10	10.3	11	5.9	0.1811
Departmental performance	18	18.6	40	21.6	0.5545
College demands	42	43.3	81	43.8	0.936
<b>Employee Need to Undertake PA Training</b>					
Personal performance	5	5.2	14	7.6	0.447
Department performance	15	15.5	37	20	0.3556
Career progression	51	52.6	79	42.7	0.1138
College needs	26	26.7	55	29.7	0.5973
<b>Employee Need Addressed by PA Training</b>					
Yes	13	13.4	45	24.3	0.0317
No	84	86.6	155	75.7	0.0317
<b>Key Areas of Training Programmes</b>					
Corruption prevention	14	14.4	8	4.4	0.0031
Management	15	15.5	35	18.9	0.4784
Conflict resolutions	12	12.4	43	23.2	0.0299
Customer satisfaction	10	10.3	35	18.9	0.0614
Service delivery	30	30.9	35	18.9	0.0232
Gender mainstreaming	9	9.3	22	11.9	0.5083
Safety	7	7.2	7	3.8	0.2138

**Table 1.** Contd

<b>Undertaking other courses</b>					
Yes	29	29.5	33	17.8	0.0241
No	68	70.5	152	82.2	
<b>Purpose for Undertaking other courses</b>					
PA Competency	31	40.0	36	19.5	<b>0.0002</b>
Personal Development	66	60.0	149	80.5	
<b>Relevance of PA Training on Employee Personal Development</b>					
Not relevant at all	30	30.9	33	17.9	<b>0.013</b>
Ineffective	16	16.5	59	31.9	<b>0.0055</b>
Not sure	31	32	35	18.9	<b>0.0138</b>
Effective	17	17.5	48	25.9	0.112
Very effective	3	3.1	10	5.4	0.3603

**Table 2.** Sample t-test analysis on the role of PA training among appraisers and appraisees on employee performance in public teacher Training Colleges in Kenya.

<b>Causes</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>T-Value</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>P-Value</b>
Training should be provided to key employee in the college before and during implementation	Appraisers	83	3.29	7.385	0.031	0.975
	Appraisees	170	3.29		030	
Once employees understand what needs to be done to improve the organization they then need all the skills and resources necessary to be able to accomplish those improvement	Appraisers	83	3.18	17.986	-1.210	0.227
	Appraisees	171	3.41		-1.144	
Empowerment training is more remedial and it prepares for collaboration and higher level of performance	Appraisers	83	3.10	4.555	-0.318	0.751
	Appraisees	169	3.16		-0.310	
Training of any kind should have as its objective the redirection or improvement of behaviour so that the performance of the trainee becomes more useful and productive for himself and organization	Appraisers	83	3.16	2.813	-0.034	0.973
	Appraisees	169	3.17		-0.033	
Lack of trained personnel, development, advancement in technology, faulty methods, prevention of accidents and need for career development	Appraisers	82	3.01	0.004	1.236	0.217
	Appraisees	162	2.77		1.231	

**Table 3.** Sample t-test analysis on whether performance appraisal training influences employee performance and its extent in public Teacher training colleges in Kenya

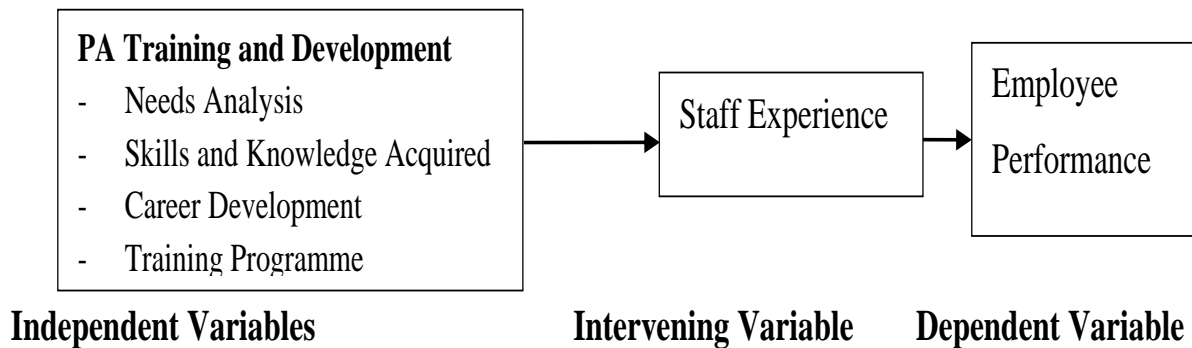
<b>Causes</b>	<b>Groups</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Test value</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>P-Value</b>
Does staff training influence employees performance in the college (yes/no)	Appraisers	75	1.00	0.116	-1.688	0.734
	Appraisees	163	1.15	-	-1.629	-
Extent staff training influence employees performance in the college (*)	Appraisers	75	2.28	3.657	-0.904	0.056
	Appraisees	159	2.42	-	-0.869	-

\* 5=Very large extent, 4=Large extent, 3=Moderate extent, 2=Low extent, 1=Very low extent.

**Table 4.** Regression model summary for relationship between performance appraisal training and employee performance in Public Teacher Training Colleges in Kenya.

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	0.034 <sup>a</sup>	0.001	-0.006	1.851	2.757

a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee training on performance appraisal. b. Dependent Variable: Employees performance.



**Figure 1.** Performance appraisal training and evaluation criteria and its effect on employee performance.

an equal number of them was not sure ( $P=0.0138$ ) the appraisees opined that it was ineffective ( $P=0.0055$ ). The other parameters like awareness, facilitation of regular training of employees and availability of a training programme as well as employees' drive to undertake PA training were not significant (Table 1).

### Role of PA training on employees' performance in the PTTCs

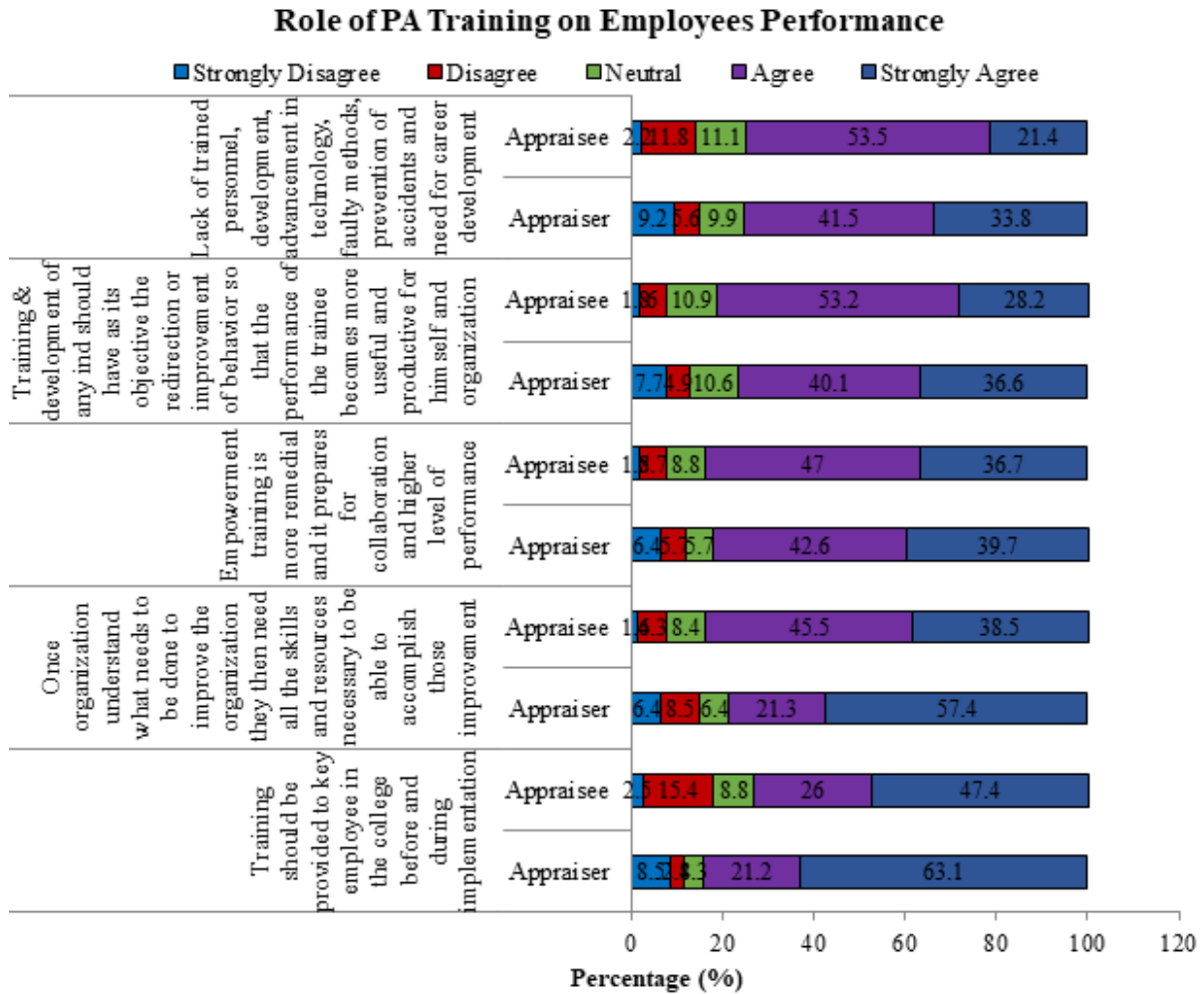
Results indicate that majority (83.3%; 73.4%) of the appraisers and appraisees "agreed" and "strongly agreed" that PA training should be provided to key employees in the college before and during implementation process; whereas 11.3 and 17.9% "disagreed" and "strongly disagreed". Similarly, 78.7% and 84% "agreed" and "strongly agreed" that once employees understand what is to be done to improve their organization, then they need to be given all the skills and resources necessary to accomplish their tasks; while 14.9 and 7.7% "disagreed" and "strongly disagreed". In addition, 82.3% and 83.7% appraisers and appraisees "agreed" and "strongly agreed" that empowerment training is more remedial and it is prepared for collaboration and higher level of performance; whereas 12.1 and 7.5% "disagreed" and "strongly disagreed".

Moreover, 76.7% appraisers and 81.4% appraisees felt that training and development of any kind should have as

its objective the redirection or improvement of behaviour so that the performance of the trainee becomes more useful and productive for himself and the organization; while 12.6% and 7.8%) "disagreed" and "strongly disagreed". Majority (75.3% and 74.9%) "agreed" and "strongly agreed" that lack of trained personnel, development, advancement in technology, faulty methods, prevention of accidents and need for career development were drivers for training; whereas 14.8% and 14% "disagreed" and "strongly disagreed". The opinion of the employees on the effect of PA training on employees' performance is presented in Figure 2.

More varied opinion exists on the role of performance appraisal training among appraisers and appraisees on employees' performance (Table 2).

There was no significant difference in the opinion of appraisers and appraisees on the role of PA training in employees' performance ( $P>0.05$ ). First, they concurred that PA training was a necessity to employees in the college before and during implementation of PA. Secondly, PA training was regarded as crucial for employees who have understood its needs since they need skills and resources to accomplish the required improvement. Similarly, appraisers and appraisees agreed that, PA training should focus on employees' empowerment remedies, to prepare them for higher level performance. Lastly, the employees concurred that PA training was key in improving employees' behaviour to make them more productive. They also concurred that



**Figure 2.** Opinions of appraisers and appraisees on the role of performance appraisal training on employee Performance in public teacher training colleges in Kenya.

PA training alone was not a remedy to lack of trained personnel, advancement of technology, prevention of accidents and career development.

Consensus opinion exists among appraisers and appraisees on whether PA training influences employees' performance and the extent of its influence (Table 3).

There was no significant difference existing among appraisers and appraisees on the influence of PA training on employees' performance ( $P=0.734$ ). Similarly, both appraisers and appraisees agreed that the PA training influence on employees' performance was low (mean 2.28 and 2.42, respectively). Additionally, the extent PA training influenced employees' performance was not significant among appraisers and appraisees ( $P=0.056$ ).

The results of the regression model revealed that only 0.1% variation in employees' performance could be

explained by performance appraisal training. This suggests that performance appraisal training contributed about 0.1% of employee's performance in public teacher training colleges in Kenya (Table 4).

The R column value ( $r = 0.034$ ) depicts that the correlation between performance appraisal training and employees' performance is insignificant. The R-Square ( $R^2 = 0.001$ ) indicates the amount of variability in employees' performance accounted for by performance appraisal training.

The ANOVA results of  $F=0.163$  with 1 and 94 degrees of freedom and  $F$  were not significant. This implies that performance appraisal training does not affect employee's performance in public teachers training colleges in Kenya ( $P=0.687 > 0.05$ ), as shown in Table 5.

The regression coefficient revealed that a unit (1)



**Table 5.** ANOVA for relationship between performance appraisal training and employee's performance in public teacher training colleges in Kenya.

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	0.557	1	0.557	0.163	0.687 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	469.500	137	3.427		
	Total	470.058	138			

<sup>a</sup>. Dependent Variable: Employees performance. <sup>b</sup>. Predictors: (Constant), Employee training on performance appraisal.

**Table 6.** Regression coefficient for the relationship between performance appraisal training and employee's performance in public teacher training colleges in Kenya.

Model		Coefficients <sup>a</sup>					Collinearity statistics	
		Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients	t	Sig. (P)	Tolerance	VIF
		B	Std. error	Beta				
1	(Constant)	31.49	0.533		59.051	0.000		
	Employee training on performance appraisal	-0.011	0.026	-0.034	-0.403	0.687	1.000	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Employees performance.

increase in performance appraisal training leads to decrease in employees' performance by -0.011. The results also indicate that there was a negative and statistically insignificant relationship ( $P > 0.05$ ) between employees' performance and performance appraisal training (Table 6).

Coefficient of determination shows the predictor variable (performance appraisal training) contributes to the model. The equation provides information about the change in the value of the dependent variable corresponding to the unit change in the independent variable. The data indicate the constant (31.49) represents the y-intercept with a slope of -0.011. Given regression equation  $Y = \alpha + \beta x_1$ , this output could be shown as:

Employees' performance (Y) = 31.49 + -0.011 Performance appraisal training (X)

Where, Y is the estimated value of the dependent variable, and X is the value of the independent variable.

### Other ways staff training affects employees' performance in the college

When probed further, appraisers and appraisees felt that staff training in teacher training colleges was envisaged to raise employees' level of morale, help them to understand the purpose of the appraisal and respond positively to appraisal system. In addition, it enables

employees to understand the benefit of appraisal and help them work hard by boosting level of performance of task and it improves social interaction and creativity among the employees. Lastly, it reveals the goals and the way forward/ intervention, and raises their self-esteem or positive change of attitude among the employees and thinking in performance of duty.

However, this is largely not achieved as employees indicated that they still remained demotivated, some were not able to set clear target, monitor their achievement and carry out set evaluation. Employees attributed this to selective staff training (where college trains friends, relatives, tribesmen/women, college clerks and cartels with no fruit of employees' performance). Those who are not given preference in training felt demoralized and therefore had negative attitude towards the appraisal system. Employees noted that the training programmes did not take into account the core business of the college which was to influence learner outcomes but focused on preparing employees for retirement, achievement of personal goals together with organizational goals. They recommended that the capacity building seminars outside the college should be fairly distributed so that any member of a department can attend and not the usual "suspects" only.

### DISCUSSION

The present study determined that the PA training

programmes in PTTCs in Kenya were not well developed and in some instances were not precisely executed. This is indicated by the diverse opinion of appraisers and appraisees regarding the attendance of the PA trainings despite largely being facilitated by the respective colleges. Although employees' performance appraisals were conducted in PTTCs on quarterly and annual basis as per the TPA system ([www.tsc.go.ke](http://www.tsc.go.ke)), most PTTCs had adopted diverse short-term appraisal sessions to serve various college needs. Performance appraisal training guidelines were not developed in PTTCs as envisaged in the Code of Regulations for Teachers (TSC, 2015), hence various colleges had introduced a wide range of training schedules. The trainings were geared towards addressing the college and employee performance requirements. This resulted in conflicting information among appraisers and appraisees on the activities that were meant for training, internal evaluation and those that were conducted for management decision making as per the Teachers Service Commission Code of Regulations for Teachers. The quarterly PA training was more recognised by appraisees as compared to appraisers who recognised the PA trainings conducted twice a year. Cappelli and Conyon (2018) noted that increasingly, corporate organizations are phasing out transactional models of performance appraisal and about 70% of multinational firms were replacing their transactional appraisal model such as annual reviews with a summative appraisal model.

The present study suggests that although employees were trained on PA, the criteria for selection varied. Appraisers were trained upon their request while PA training for appraisees was based on their individual performance as evaluated and recommended by the appraisers. Moreover, the study revealed that PA training conducted in PTTCs did not address employee needs, but it mostly focussed on the institutional needs identified by management. Appraisers PA training in PTTCs mainly focussed on corruption prevention and service delivery while for appraisees it conflicts resolutions. This indicates lack of a well-designed employee PA training programme that is policy guided to address individual employee needs like personal development and the college management needs like enhanced employee performance. Takeuchi et al. (2007) noted that the possible reason for the absence of a training programme to support PA training and employee performance relationship might be that the relationship is contingent not on all but specific organizational factors or environmental factors. Similarly, in this regard, Holck et al. (2016) suggested that management in PTTCs should re-evaluate PA training programme and activities to effectively deal with new challenges and make effective use of diversity among employees. Furthermore, past studies have confirmed that effectively prepared and guided PA training

programme enhances employees and organizational performance (Hye et al., 2015; Madera et al., 2016).

Although most employees had not enrolled in other performance related courses, the key drive for enrolment among employees in PTTCs was personal development related and not PA competency related. In addition, appraisers opined that the relevance of PA training on employees' personal development was not relevant at all and the appraisees described it as ineffective. This indicates that although employees were undertaking PA training, they felt that it was designed to address the performance needs of the PTTCs and not their personal development. There is negative relationship between PA training and employees' performance though insignificant. This is in agreement with the study by Chadwick et al. (2015) which indicated that HR practices can be destructive or helpful because failure or success of HR practices depends on some internal and external boundary conditions. In some contexts, some HR practices could be detrimental or have an insignificance role to enhanced performance. Data from the current study indicate that sole utilization of selected HR practices such as PA training could be a negative driver of employees' performance. This result solidifies the findings of the extant literature which includes among others Saleem and Khurshid (2014), and Falola et al. (2014). Performance appraisal training is found in the current study to have non-significant effect on employees' performance. This finding signifies that the findings of the extant literature on PA training-performance nexus are inconclusive. Ariely et al. (2009) indicated negative nexus between PA training and employees' performance. The introduction of the training programme in the organization should be characterized with high level of trust, sufficient information on accrued benefits and effective performance appraisals (Ismail et al., 2015a).

## Conclusion

The current study determined that PA training does not influence employees' performance in PTTCs in Kenya. Performance appraisal training in PTTCs should be guided by an established policy framework to enhance clarification to employees on matters concerning frequency of training, criteria for selection of trainees and objectives for training among appraisers and appraisees.

Management in PTTCs should develop PA training programmes derived from the established framework carefully by considering the needs of each employee to realise the college needs. Performance appraisal training that is perceived to be biased in selection of trainees does not guarantee employees' personal development but focuses barely on PA competency and college need demotivates employees. Overall, the investigation

regarding the relationship between PA trainings and employee performance reveals that PTTCs in Kenya lack well designed and properly implemented PA training programmes guided by PA policy framework which is a key factor to enhance employees' performance.

## CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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**QUESTIONNAIRE**

**RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT ON PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE**

1. Have you undergone any performance appraisal training?  
 Yes  No
2. If Yes, who facilitated or funded the training?  
 Self  College  Other individuals or organization
3. Does staff training on performance appraisal take place in the College?  
 Yes  No
4. How often does the training take place within the College?  
 Continuous  Quarterly  Twice a year   
 Yearly  After 2 yrs  Never
5. What is the criterion applied in selecting employees for training?  
 Personal Request  Appraiser Recommendations   
 Individual qualifications  Individual Performance   
 Departmental Performance  College Demands
6. What prompted your need to undertake the training?  
 Personal Performance  Department Performance   
 Career Progression  College Needs
7. In your opinion, to what extent has staff appraisal been beneficial to you?  
 To a very large extent  Large extent   
 Moderate extent  Low extent   
 Very low extent   
 Kindly explain.....
8. How would you rate employee performance appraisal within the College and the public sector in general?  
 Extremely Relevant  Relevant   
 Neutral  Irrelevant   
 Very irrelevant
9. Which are the main areas covered by the College's Performance Appraisal training programmes to its Employees?  
 (Tick the most applicable)  
 Corruption Prevention  Management   
 Resolutions  Customer satisfaction   
 Service delivery  Gender mainstreaming   
 Safety  Others (Specify) \_\_\_\_\_
10. Does staff training influence employees' performance in the College?  
 Yes  No
11. To what extent does staff training influence employees' performance in the College?  
 Very great extent  Great extent  Moderate extent   
 Little extent  No extent
12. Apart from college trainings, have you undertaken any course to enhance your skills to cope with performance appraisal system in the college?  
 Yes  No
13. To what extent has performance appraisal courses undertaken contributed to your personal development within the College?  
 To a very large extent  Large extent   
 Moderate extent  Low extent   
 Very low extent
14. To what extent do you agree with the following statement relating to staff training influence on employees' performance in the College? Indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements by using a scale of 1 to 5 where 1= strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree by circling your choice.

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Training should be provided to key employees in the College before and during implementation process	1	2	3	4	5
Once employees understand what needs to be done to improve the organization, they then need all the skills and resources necessary to be able to accomplish these improvements	1	2	3	4	5
Empowerment training is more remedial and it prepares for collaboration and higher level of performance.	1	2	3	4	5
Training and development of any kind should have, as its objective the redirection or improvement of behavior so that the performance of the trainee becomes more useful and productive for himself and the organization which he is part of	1	2	3	4	5
Lack of trained personnel, advancement in technology, faulty methods, prevention of accidents and need for career development are drivers for training	1	2	3	4	5

15. How else does staff training affect employees' performance in the College that is not mentioned above?

*Full Length Research Paper*

# **Factors influencing the choice of higher education institutions in Angola**

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**Higher education (HE) plays a predominant role in the development of any society. The expansion of HE all over the country (Angola) through the creation of new public and private higher education institutions (HEIs), as well as the creation of internal and external scholarships, have been some of the policies aimed at increasing access to HE, especially the increase in women's access to HE. Giving the growing number of HEIs throughout the country, the Government's main concern is their quality. This article aims to assess the factors that lead students to choose a particular HEI. The question raised is whether, the factors influencing the choice of an HEI in a developed country are the same when it comes to a developing country. To obtain the data, focus group was applied, whose answers were the basis for the construction of a survey that was distributed to students. As a result, 6 dimensions were obtained: Issues related to scientific activities, such as ranking of research, lectures and location; although the importance in determining the HEI does not carry the same weight in the choice of an HEI by these students.**

**Key words:** Higher education (HE), determining factors in the choice of higher education institutions (HEI), Angola.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Higher education (HE) has always been fundamental to a country's development. In Angola, there was greater opening of HE at the end of the civil war in 2002. From that period onwards, there was an urge to increase the HE access to young people, which resulted in a policy set creation that includes creating new Higher Education Institutions (HEI), public and private, HE regulation

standards establishment as well as implement internal and external scholarships system in order to encourage higher education search.

There is a paucity of literature in Angola (Langa, 2013), thus this work aim to determine the most relevant variables regarding an HE selection in Angola and confirm if they are or tend to be the same as in developed

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countries, where the requirement level is considered higher.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Nowadays students are more careful regarding HEIs selection (Beneke and Human, 2010; Aydin, 2015; Aydin and Bayir, 2016). The reason for choosing a specific institution over another is based on the characteristics of that institution (Manoku, 2015), starting from reputation built over time (Agrey and Lampadan, 2014), cultural values and the environment in which the HEI is placed in, as well as the aspects connected to the student, such as his own interest regarding the degree course, his ability to attend it or family advices (Proboyo and Soedarsono, 2015). It is fundamental that the HEI managers are aware of the factors that influence students during HEI selection (Aydin, 2015; Rudhumbu et al., 2017), mainly for allowing those to use information in order to develop marketing strategies to attract students with the desired characteristics (Manoku, 2015; Wiese et al., 2010).

Chapman (1981) was one of the first to present a model with the factors that influence HEI selection, and says that it depends on two major groups, students' personal characteristics and external factors set (Table 1). Other authors point out economical, sociological, combined models and marketing approach, as basis to explain HEI selection process (Aydin, 2015; Manoku, 2015). The economic model has the assumption that the student wants to maximize its utility and minimize risks (Aydin, 2015), that is, it is based on the idea of a rational choice in which a comparison is made between costs and the HEI offered benefits (Krezel and Krezel, 2017).

Goodman et al. (2015) indicate there are many factors that the economic model does not refer to. Those factors are related to the fact that, on one hand, the HEI selection comprise the existence of a large number of institutions, each with several attributes, and the students preferences regarding institution registration and the institution attributes are heterogeneous; and on the other hand, students have precise information about HEI potential. Sociological model has its focus in the cultural and social aspects (Aydin, 2015), and sustains that sociological variables such as gender, academic capacity, sociological *status*, school context and other people opinions are the main factors that influence students in HEI selection (Mustafa et al., 2018). Combined model is the sum of both economical with the sociological model (Aydin, 2015).

All this "decision making process" regarding factors that may probably influence students in their HEI selection (Zain et al., 2013; Wiese et al., 2010; Manoku, 2015) is

generally composed by a set of steps that should be properly understood by the institution (Wiese et al., 2010). These authors claim that these steps comprise recognizing the need to obtain superior education, gathering information about the institution and course, institution evaluation, institution selection and its registration process. Manoku (2015) says that selection of HEI is compared to acquisition process, in which several stages are analyzed (marketing approach), and therefore it is not an easy process to understand (Aydin and Bayir, 2016; Ionela and George, 2014). The information gathering stage includes the process of factors identification that influences students during institution selection. Institution evaluation and selection will be according to the factors identified in the previous phase. Çokgezen (2014) claims that students do not only have expectations regarding educational experience, as clean and safe HEI, with cultural, sport and social activities, or high-quality teaching with good administrative services, but also expect return in the form of good income and high social position after graduation. This means that in the HEI evaluation moment, students have in mind the prospects of having a good job in the future.

Proboyo and Soedarsono (2015), based on Chapman model (1981), present the factors that influence HEI selection as student interest, his own capacity to perform the course, family advices, and also institutional factors such as HEI reputation, institution values and previous students' success. Agrey and Lampadan (2014) listed factors that influence HEI selection in Thailand, with evidence that learning environment is conducive and good job perspectives having greater impact in the institution selection.

University location and city image, as well as region development level have great influence in the university selection for students (Uyar, 2018). Uyar (2018) underlies that image produces a positive impression that allows tourism and education areas development, which is connected to appropriate infrastructures, urban living cost, access networks structure, and historical, political and cultural characteristics. He claims that proximity with student's usual residence is one of the factors that influence HEI selection the most, and a positive image of the city in which HEI is located influences students choice. Bringula (2013) says among the two factors he analyzed, school proximity and accessibility, only school accessibility influences HEI selection. Mustafa et al. (2018) showed that demographic variables also have an impact in HEI selection. Aydin and Bayir (2016) were the first to analyze demographic variables effect (gender, family income, school type and having a job, or not, during study time) on the facts that influence HEI



**Table 1.** Influence factors in the HEI selection.

Dimension	Variable	Author
Students characteristics	Education level aspirations, school performance	
External factors	Significant people: friends, relatives and someone from school. Institution established characteristics: financial support, location, programs availability. School effort to communicate with students, written information, campus visit, admission/recruitment.	Chapman (1981)
Institutional factors	Institution location; academical programs, institution image and reputation, staff quality, education facilities quality (classrooms), fees, possibility to obtain scholarships and job perspectives for graduated students	Rudhumbu et al. (2017)
Marketing factors	Advertising, school tours from university employees, career fairs and future student's campus visits	

Source: Own elaboration.

selection. The factors analyzed include team quality, exchange program opportunity, scholarships opportunity, job perspectives and social facilities and physical conditions as those with greater impact in HEI selection. Other facts such as city center proximity or their house, friends and relatives' advices, education cost, advertising, influence of friends who studied in the same institution or teacher's advice, are not that relevant.

Rudhumbu et al. (2017) considers that institutional factors are the ones that influence students HEI selection the most (Table 1).

Çokgezen (2014) in his study in Turkey identifies fees, city population characteristics in which the HEI is located, academic performance and class language as decisive factors for HEI selection. He claims the student is inclined to compare future perspectives and the institution services with the costs of education process; considering cost (fees) as a major factor. Therefore, if HEI offers high quality services, it will be chosen by future students over others.

HEI quality may be connected to the quality of teaching and research programs, as well as its offered services (Aydin, 2015). Goodman et al. (2015) opine that academic choices made by a brother end up influencing another.

Kusumawati (2013), with his study result made in Indonesia, identified cost, institution reputation, student residence proximity, finding a job and influence of relatives as key factors that determine HEI selection by the student. Beneke and Human (2010) also show that the institution reputation is the most important factor, followed by geographical location and facilities safety.

### HE in Huila's province, Angola

Angola is a country that has been at war for many years. First, the fight for independence (which occurred in 1975), then for political stability, which happened in 2002. Since then, it was seen public and mainly private HEI creation. In Angola, HE is characterized for HEI, namely universities, academies, higher institutes and higher schools. With the purpose of HEI progressive and sustainable implementation, as well as balanced education distribution all over the country, academic areas were created. Although some works point to relatively low-quality indexes of HEIs in Angola (BTI, 2012; Carvalho, 2012), new institutions were created in 2017 (Presidential Decree 132/17), and the current Minister of the HE pointed out the need for more HEI and more courses. Nearly 22 public institution and 40 private institutions, distributed in 7 academic areas created within Decree nº5/09, April 7th. Tessema and Rao (2018) said the search for quality education has been a major challenge for many African countries. This growing importance given to the education quality, is linked to the fact that it improves the level of productivity and minimize the organization's cost (Ali et al., 2019), becoming the keyword of HE, and understood as exception, perfection, appropriate to the objective, value for money and transformation, and can be achieved through the improvement of professionalism of academics and administrative staff, and of the students' ability to learn.

Huila province is located in south Angola, Namibe province, which is the 6th Academic Area, known as "Knowledge City". It has five HEI, two of them public

(Mandume Ya Ndemufayo University - UMN and Higher Education Institute - Huila ISCED) and three private (Tundavala Higher Polytechnic Institute - ISPTundavala, Independent Higher Polytechnic Institute and Gregório Semedo Higher Institute).

Carvalho (2012) considers that UMN possesses "academic tradition" for having installed Modern Languages Faculty in Lubango (Huila City Capital) in 1969. The same can be stated about ISCED, it was established in 1963 with Angola General University Education creation. UMN is in Lubango city, Agostinho Neto University structures (Economy, Law and Medicine faculties). During the academic year 2016, nearly 20140 students were enrolled in Higher Education, in Huila, being that 7149 students were enrolled in private education institutions and most students (12991) enrolled in private HEI. Therefore, the following research issues were raised:

- (1) Which factors influence students in a HEI selection?
- (2) Are the HEI influencing factors in a developed country the same when it comes to a developing country?
- (3) Are those variable factors according to students' sociodemographic characteristics?

## METHODOLOGY

The study is an exploratory research, which is represented by the accomplished "art state", allowing recognition of the problem (Vilares and Coelho, 2011). In the first part, qualitative research was applied, through *focus group* method, allowing collection of information to compound the survey variables. The acquired information with focus group is essential to complement the quantitative research. Quantitative research was applied to the second part, appearing as result of the survey from the students (data was collected between August and September, 2018). The combined application of both methods allowed understanding and better explaining of the research problem (Creswell, 2012), and also complement, validate, explain and reinterpret the obtained data from the same students (Bento, 2012).

For *focus group*, we had 12 groups of several HEI from the VI Academic Area (Huila and Namibe provinces, Angola), comprising 6 students each, supervised by a moderator. They answered only one question: what would make him choose one HEI over another? The focus group, is considered a structured interview, aimed at a small group of people and based on their discussions; it allows us to gather a set of detailed information about the topic to be studied. In this case, getting more perspectives for the students themselves. The whole narrative was developed from the aforementioned topic, since its objective was to identify a set of variables for the student's awareness in order to select a HEI. The survey structured according to the focus group obtained answers, regarding to the factors that led them to choose a specific HEIs, with the disposed questions in 7 points Likert scale (Appendix) distributed to some private and public HEI students from VI Academic Area (Huila province). The non-scale (Appendix) distributed to some private and public HEI students from VI Academic Area (Huila province).

The non-probabilistic sampling method was used for convenience, for being fast, easy and less expensive (Sousa and Baptista, 2011).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Regarding *focus group*, almost every group unanimously state that the first factor to consider is the course they intend to study, that is to say, the HEI courses variety. The institution reputation, as well as institution staff, has major significance in the HEI selection. However, parents' financial condition constrains a lot in the HEI selection; many choose public institution since it does not charge fees, even if it does not have the course they desire to do. One of the groups answered that:

*"The fact that it is one of the only Faculties in Angola with that course"* (Group 9).

*"... public HEI have little course variety when compared with private HEI. But due to parents' financial conditions, we always have a public HEI as first choice, since they do not charge fees. Therefore, we always have a second option regarding courses to do. On the other hand, if I was in Luanda, I would choose Catholic University for being in Ranking<sup>2</sup>, but conditions do not allow it..."* (Group 2).

*"HEI reputation is, without doubt, decisive in the institution selection. Reputation includes lecturer's quality and much more... For example, many quit Economy Faculty in the Mandume Ya Ndemufayo University<sup>3</sup> for the curriculum it has: one cannot move on to 3<sup>o</sup> grade with failed course subjects. Many times, one stays almost an entire year without studying because the subject is carried out in one semester only. Therefore, many choose private institutions where one can go until 4th grade with failed course subjects. The purpose, most times, is obtaining certificates to work promotions..."* (Group 1).

This information regarding reputation and quality, either from institutions or from lecturers, is obtained through friends, relatives or even previous teachers:

*"Before coming to study here, we heard our friends talking about institution accuracy, as well as some high*

<sup>1</sup> Angola Capital City and also the city with the largest population and HEI

<sup>2</sup> One of the only Angolan university that was in African universities ranking.

<sup>3</sup> Mandume Ya Ndemufayo University is the only Area public university and answers for Economy Faculty, Law Faculty, Medicine Faculty, Namibe Pedagogic Higher School, Namibe Polytechnic Higher School and Huila Polytechnic Higher Institute.

*school teachers who had studied in that institution. Consequently, the desire to face that challenge emerged* (Group 12).

Most respondents focused on professional and intellectual development need, especially in a job search.

*"...when we apply for a job, especially in civil service, more credibility is given to students that came from public HEI"* (Group 8).

Another aspect to consider is the fact that some are only studying in order to avoid stagnation, or to achieve higher education to help their parents in the future.

*"Actually, choosing HEI is not always of free will. Most times is to ensure the future, to have a job, even one we do not appreciate but that ensure us a stable financial situation. And also, to have higher level and so we can help our parents after graduating..."*

### Sample characterization

Regarding the surveys, a total of 400 were distributed, of which only 281 were in conditions of being analyzed. The remaining 119 questionnaires were poorly filled (many erasures, others with blank questions), the reason why they were discarded. Of the 281 validated surveys, most is of male gender, and most respondents are between 21 and 30 years old. Therefore, this can be the explanation for the fact that most are not workers. Most are displaced from their usual residence during class time, being that, those who live in relatives' house constitute the majority, and most study in public HEI

According to the obtained answers, it was verified that the most important variable for choosing an HEI is the "intellectual and personal development with a 6.28 rate. The less important variables are "friends' recommendation" and "classrooms size" (Table 2).

### Indexes' determination

The exploratory factor analysis was applied to allow the group, variables that are correlated, allowing the construction of measurement scales, that is, indexes. Thus, the following result was obtained:

The KMO test, demonstrated a very good adequacy from the factorial analysis, which was confirmed by Bartlett's sphericity test, since the  $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ , indicating that the variables are significantly co-related. In other words, the

variable can be grouped into dimensions too easy on the weekly analysis and results interpretation (Table 3).

### Study characteristics

The study characteristics or attributes are connected to issues such as courses quality and HEI programs, teaching quality, library resources quality, and performed scientific activities, among others. The study attributes were measured through eleven indicators that present a good consistence level (Cronbach alpha value higher than at least 0.5, according to Maroco and Garcia-Marques (2006).

The study characteristic index was built through indicators arithmetic average and presents the following results:

The index average (4.73) is higher than the scale center (which is between 3 and 4), showing a higher level of importance given the variables. In which case, there were no verified statistically significant differences.

### HEI attributes and human resources friendliness

HEI attributes and human resources friendliness are related with issues connected to the HEI physical structure and quality and attention from human resources to students, that is, the way they are treated by staff. It was measured through seven indicators and presents a good consistence level.

Index was built through indicators arithmetic average and presents the following results:

The index average (3.5) is equal to the center of the scale, indicating a slight level of importance based on the variables. Private HEI students<sup>4</sup> are the ones who value the most issues connected to HEI attributes and Human resources friendliness; therefore, the differences are statistically significant. Other variables do not present differences as statistically significant (Table 4).

### External influences

External influence is connected with the influence the student receives from friends, relatives, teachers, among others, in order to select an HEI (Proboyo and Soedarsono, 2015). This index was measured through three indicators and presents a reasonable internal

<sup>4</sup> Student's t test was used ( $t = -2.255$ ;  $p\text{-value} < 0,05$ )

**Table 2.** Influence Variables in HEI selection rate and rank.

Variable	Average	SD	Rank
For personal and intellectual development	6.28	1,271	1
To develop professional skills	6.26	1,268	2
Invest in their capacity to improve life situation	6.20	1,292	3
Opportunity to thrive in professional career	6.17	1,460	4
Desire to find a good job (with a good income)	6.02	1,794	5
Programs and courses quality	5.51	1,836	6
Teaching quality (used education method)	5.47	1,940	7
Lecturer quality level	5.40	2,056	8
HEI reputation (HEI image)	5.22	2,271	9
Library and IT resources	4.84	2,229	10
Courses variety	4.81	2,245	11
HEI reputation (board, members and lecturers)	4.79	2,242	12
Study cost (fees and support material)	4.70	2,606	13
Parents financial situation	4.50	2,590	14
High interaction between teachers and students	4.22	2,563	15
Classrooms conditions	4.16	2,501	16
To socialize with other students	4.15	2,466	17
Administrative staff attendance quality	4.09	2,527	18
Students attendance friendliness	4.06	2,529	19
HEI research ranking	4.01	2,468	20
HEI obtained information (marketing)	3.93	2,287	21
Scientific activities made during the year	3.90	2,496	22
Location (near home and/or city center)	3.85	2,712	23
Non-curricular activities (lectures)	3.81	2,423	24
Family opinion	3.70	2,623	25
Communication quality in first contact with HEI staff	3.45	2,464	26
Moving out from parents' house	2.73	2,812	27
Subject approval ease	2.53	2,597	28
Classrooms size	2.33	2,561	29
Friends recommendation	2.31	2,276	30

consistence level.

“External influence” index was built through indicators arithmetic average and presents the following results:

The index average (3.5) is equal to the center of the scale, indicating a slight level of importance based on the variables. Working students<sup>5</sup> are the ones most influenced by friends and relatives when choosing an HEI, being, therefore, the differences statistically significant. Regarding other variables, there was no verified statistically significant difference.

<sup>5</sup> It was used test *t student* ( $t=2,453$ ; valor- $p<0,05$ )

### Location and cost

Location and cost are connected to the fact that HEI is or not near the student's residence or the city center, and the study costs, transport and didactic material. It was measured through two indicators that present an acceptable internal consistence level.

“Location and cost” index were built through indicators arithmetic average and presents the following results: The index average (4.27) is higher than the scale center, showing a higher level of importance given the variables. Older students<sup>6</sup> are the ones more worried with the HEI

<sup>6</sup> It was used test *ANOVA-One way* ( $z=3.128$ ; valor- $p<0.05$ )

**Table 3.** Factor's determination.

Factor	Variable	Factorial weight	Eigenvalue	Explained variance (%)
Factor 1 (Study characteristics)	Courses and programs quality	0.515	9,298	31
	Courses variety	0.453		
	HEI reputation (HEI image)	0.555		
	High interaction level between teachers and students	0.641		
	HEI research ranking	0.533		
	Lecturer qualification level	0.731		
	Teaching quality (used education method)	0.783		
	Library and IT resources (quality and quantity)	0.71		
	Non-curricular activities (lectures)	0.501		
	HEI reputation (board, members and lectures)	0.623		
	Scientific activities made during the year	0.545		
Factor 2 (Future perspectives)	Opportunity to prosper in professional career	0.559	2,717	9.1
	To develop professional skills	0.765		
	Intellectual and personal development	0.808		
	Desire to find a good job (with a good income)	0.537		
	Investing in his own capacities to improve life situation	0.608		
Factor 3 (HEI attributes and HR friendliness)	Classroom size	0.684	2,643	8.8
	Information (marketing) obtained about HEI	0.652		
	Communication quality in first contact with HEI staff	0.627		
	Classrooms conditions	0.553		
	Friendliness in student's attendance	0.604		
	Subject approval ease	0.754		
	Administrative staff attendance quality	0.535		
Factor 4 (External influences)	Family opinion	0.599	1,433	4.8
	Family recommendations	0.699		
	Parents financial condition	0.512		
Factor 5 (Location and study cost)	Location (close to home and city)	0.63	1,342	4.5
	Study cost (fee and support material)	0.75		
Factor 6 (Individual interests)	Moving out of parents' home	0.714	1,124	3.7
	Socialize with other students	0.708		
Total explained variance				61.9

location and formation costs, being the difference statistically significant.

Regarding other variables there were no verified statistically significant differences.

#### **Future perspectives**

This index is connected with the perspective of improving life situation and also professional career opportunities. It

**Table 4.** KMO test and Bartlett sphericity test.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sample measurement adequacy.		0.887
Bartlett sphericity test	Approx. Chi-square	3213.401
	df	435
	p-value	0.000

was measured through five indicators and presents an acceptable internal consistence level.

Index was built through indicators arithmetic average and presents the following results:

The index average (6.19) is superior than the center of scale, indicating that the students consider those variables as of extreme importance, since the average is close to the maximum value (7). Students that are out of their usual residence<sup>7</sup> during class time, are the ones more worried about the future; thus the differences are statistically significant. Regarding other variables, there were no verified statistically significant differences.

### Individual interests

Individual interests are connected with the more personal issues that lead students to select an HEI, such as moving out of home and socializing with other students. Individual interest was measured through two indicators that present an acceptable internal consistence level.

Index was built through indicators arithmetic average and presents the following results:

The index average (3.44) is less than the center of scale, showing that students show less importance to these variables. Students between 31 and 40 years old<sup>8</sup> that are out of their usual residence<sup>9</sup> and the ones living in a rented house<sup>10</sup> give more relevance to their own individual interests, being the differences statistically significant (APVI).

When consistence level is very low, it means that there were few questions to express what really was intended, which implies the need to add more indicators is relevant to the test (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011). For example, location and cost study index are composed of two indicators (location, being in the city center and near

home, d costs regarding fees, support material cost, among others), could be subdivided in more questions.

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

These analyses have verified that intellectual and personal development desire, acquisition of professional skills, as well as the opportunity to prosper in a professional level and finding a good job, are the most pointed variables when searching for an HEI. Although some point "friend's recommendation" as a factor that propels them to choose an HEI, it is seen as the least important. Men are the ones who value most questions connected to professional, intellectual and personal skills development.

Students between 31 and 40 years old, as well as those who leave their usual residence during class time, are more concerned about moving out of their parents' house and socializing with other students, which is understandable. Older students (41 to 50 years), are more concerned with location (being near home and city center) and study cost (fees and support materials). On the other hand, working student is the one who considers HEI information, and HEI image, as most important in comparison with non-working student.

According to Sousa and Baptista (2011), the used sampling method is not population representative, but it could be successful in capturing general ideas and to identify critical aspects. For example, most students search public HEI with no fees charge, regardless of the course: the idea is having higher education in an institution with a positive influence when in search for a job. HEI may use these information's to trace strategies in order to provide more course variety and improve their facilities, lecturers and administrative staff, as well as teaching quality generally. Furthermore, they are responsible for preparing professionals that will fill up different areas, that is why it is considered a critical field of the service sector (Ali et al., 2019). Sojkin et al. (2012) point university *ranking* as one of the most important variables in HEI selection.

Of the 12 groups, only one focused on *ranking* issue.

<sup>7</sup> It was used test *t student* (t=2.035; valor-p<0.05)

<sup>8</sup> It was used test *ANOVA One-way* (z=3.161; valor-p<0.05)

<sup>9</sup> It was used test *t de student* (t=2.818; valor-p<0.05)

<sup>10</sup> It was used test *ANOVA One-way* (z=3.082; valor-p<0.05)

Most take no account on the number of published articles as essential to the HEI selection, although it is important. This could lead to the conclusion that scientific nature activities are not that relevant when choosing an HEI, at least in that region. Maybe that is the result of an economic and social situation, in which, best positions (with good income) were achieved by, on one hand, people with HE degrees, regardless of their formation; and the other hand, by people that would weigh the application responsibly.

In consideration of the changes occurring in the country, it is visible that students want competent HEI with good teaching quality in the country. With this, institutions should invest more in internal research to harvest from their students information that would allow them improve the entire education system. On the other hand, consistence level of some indexes are low, which means that issues regarding those indexes were not enough to express what was intended, therefore the survey must be reviewed in order to add items that will turn the consistence level acceptable.

## CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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**APPENDIX**

**Table 1.** Questionnaire variable.

S/N	Variable	Nothing important 0	1	2	3	4	5	6	Very important 7
1	Leaving parents' home	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	To socialize with other students	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	To develop professional skills	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	For intellectual and personal development	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	O family opinion	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	Recommendations from friends	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	Financial status of parents	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	Opportunity to prosper in your professional career	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	The desire to find a good job (with a good salary)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	Investing in your abilities to improve your life situation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11	The (marketing) information obtained about IES	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	Room size	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
13	The quality of communication in the first contact with IES staff	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
14	The quality of courses and programs	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
15	The variety of courses offered	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	IES reputation (IES image)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
17	Classroom conditions	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
18	High level of interaction between teachers and students	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
19	IES research ranking	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
20	The level of qualification of teachers	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
21	Teaching quality (teaching method used)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
22	Library and IT resources (quality and quantity)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
23	Non-curricular activities (lectures)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
24	Friendliness in student service	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
25	Location (close to case and city center)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
26	IES reputation (management, members and teachers)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
27	Number of scientific activities carried out per year	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
28	Ease of class approval	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
29	Quality of care of administrative staff	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
30	Study cost (tuition fees and poles)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

**Board 1.** Social characterization.

Characteristic	N	%
Sex	Female	35.6
	Male	64.4
	Total	100
Age (years)	Less than 20	26.7
	From 21 to 30	68.3
	From 31 to 40	4.3



**Board 1. Contd**

	From 41 to 50	2	0.7
	Total	281	100
Working-student	Yes	87	31
	No	194	69
	Total	281	100
Displaced from usual residence	Yes	182	64.8
	No	99	35.2
	Total	281	100
If so, where lives?	Relatives	88	31.3
	Rented house	81	28.8
	Other	13	4.6
	Total	182	64.8
HEI type	Public	212	75.4
	Private	69	24.6
	Total	281	100

**Board 2.** Consistence level index – study characteristic.

Indicator	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	SD	Alpha Cronbach
Courses and programs quality	281	0	7	5.51	1.84	0.887
Teaching quality (used education method)	281	0	7	5.47	1.94	
Lecturer qualification level	281	0	7	5.40	2.06	
HEI reputation (HEI image)	281	0	7	5.22	2.27	
Library and IT resources (Quality and quantity)	281	0	7	4.84	2.22	
Courses variety	281	0	7	4.81	2.25	
HEI reputation (board, members and lecturers)	281	0	7	4.79	2.24	
High interaction level between teachers and students	281	0	7	4.22	2.56	
HEI research ranking	281	0	7	4.01	2.47	
Scientific activities made during the year	281	0	7	3.90	2.50	
Non-curricular activities (lectures)	281	0	7	3.81	2.42	
Study characteristics index	281	0.5	7.0	4.73	1.55	

**Board 3.** Indicators average index – study characteristic.

Characteristic	Average	
Sex	Female	4.80
	Male	4.69
	Total	4.73

**Board 3. Contd.**

Age (years)	Less than 20	4.67
	From 21 to 30	4.75
	From 31 to 40	4.53
	From 41 to 50	6.18
	Total	4.73
Working student	Yes	4.89
	No	4.65
	Total	4.73
Displaced from usual residence	Yes	4.62
	No	4.92
	Total	4.73
If so, where lives?	Relatives	4.89
	Rented house	4.36
	Other	4.62
	Total	4.73
HEI type	Public	4.66
	Private	4.94
	Total	4.73

Scale: minimum = 0; maximum = 7.

**Board 4. Consistence level index HEI attributes and staff empathy.**

Indicator	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	SD	Cronbach's Alpha
Classrooms conditions	281	0	7	4.16	2.50	0.826
Administrative staff attendance quality	281	0	7	4.09	2.53	
Friendliness in student's attendance	281	0	7	4.06	2.53	
Information (marketing) obtained about HEI	281	0	7	3.93	2.29	
Subject approval ease	281	0	7	2.53	2.60	
Classroom size	281	0	7	2.33	2.56	
Communication quality in first contact with HEI staff	281	0	7	2.33	2.46	
HEI attributes index and HR friendliness	281	0.0	7.0	3.51	1.75	

**Board 5. Indicators level index - HEI attributes and staff empathy.**

Characteristic	Average	
Sex	Female	3.67
	Male	3.41
	Total	3.51

**Board 5. Contd**

Age (years)	Less than 20	3.38
	From 21 to 30	3.54
	From 31 to 40	3.71
	From 41 to 50	4.07
	Total	3.51
Working student	Yes	3.70
	No	3.42
	Total	3.51
Displaced from usual residence	Yes	3.45
	No	3.61
	Total	3.51
If so, where lives?	Relatives	3.66
	Rented house	3.20
	Other	3.67
	Total	3.51
HEI type	Public	3.37
	Private	3.92
	Total	3.51

Scale: minimum = 0; maximum = 7.

**Board 6. Consistence level – external influence index.**

Indicator	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	SD	Cronbach's Alpha
Parents financial condition	281	0	7	4.50	2.60	0.675
Family opinion	281	0	7	3.70	2.62	
Family recommendations	281	0	7	2.31	2.28	
External influences Index	281	0.0	7.0	3.51	1.95	

**Board 7. Indicators average index – external influence.**

Indicator	Average	
Sex	Female	3.44
	Male	3.54
	Total	3.51
Age (in years)	Less than 20	3.24
	From 21 to 30	3.54
	From 31 to 40	4.67
	From 41 to 50	3.33

**Board 7. Contd**

	Total	3.51
Working student	Yes	3.93
	No	3.32
	Total	3.51
Displaced from usual residence	Yes	3.59
	No	3.34
	Total	3.51
If so, where lives?	Relatives	3.60
	Rented house	3.63
	Other	3.62
	Total	3.51
HEI type	Public	3.48
	Private	3.57
	Total	3.51

Scale: minimum = 0; maximum = 7.

**Board 8. Consistence level index location and study cost.**

Indicator	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	SD	Cronbach's Alpha
Study cost (fee and support material)	281	0	7	4.70	2.61	0.502
Location (close to home and city center)	281	0	7	3.85	2.71	
Location and cost index	281	0.0	7.0	4.27	2.17	

**Board 9. Indicators average index location and study cost.**

Indicator	Average	
Sex	Female	4.58
	Male	4.11
	Total	4.27
Age (in years)	Less than 20	3.64
	From 21 to 30	4.50
	From 31 to 40	4.38
	From 41 to 50	5.50
	Total	4.27
Working student	Yes	4.62
	No	4.12

**Board 9. Contd**

	Total	4.27
Displaced from usual residence	Yes	4.20
	No	4.41
	Total	4.27
If so, where lives?	Relatives	4.56
	Rented house	3.78
	Other	4.46
	Total	4.27
HEI type	Public	4.28
	Private	4.27
	Total	4.27

Scale: minimum = 0; maximum = 7.

**Board 10. Consistence level index future perspectives.**

Indicator	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	SD	Cronbach's Alpha
Intellectual and personal development	281	0	7	6.28	1.27	0.502
To develop professional skills	281	1	7	6.26	1.27	
Investing in his own capacities to improve life situation	281	0	7	6.20	1.29	
Opportunity to prosper in professional career	281	0	7	6.17	1.46	
Desire to find a good job (with a good income)	281	0	7	6.02	1.79	
Future perspectives index	281	3.0	7.0	6.19	0.82	

**Board 11. Indicators average index future perspectives.**

Indicator	Average	
Sex	Female	6.16
	Male	6.20
	Total	6.19
Age (years)	Less than 20	6.21
	From 21 to 30	6.20
	From 31 to 40	6.00
	From 41 to 50	5.80
	Total	6.19
Working student	Yes	6.17
	No	6.20
	Total	6.19

**Board 11. Contd**

Working student	Yes	6.17
	No	6.20
	Total	6.19
Displaced from usual residence	Yes	6.26
	No	6.05
	Total	6.19
If so. where lives?	Relatives	6.29
	Rented house	6.24
	Other	6.19
	Total	6.19
HEI type	Public	6.18
	Private	6.22
	Total	6.19

Scale: minimum = 0; maximum = 7.

**Board 12. Consistence level index individual interests.**

Indicator	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	SD	Cronbach's Alpha
Socialize with other students	281	0	7	4.15	2.45	0.503
Moving out of parents' home	281	0	7	2.73	2.81	
Individual interests Index	281	0.0	7.0	3.44	2.16	

**Board 13. Indicators average index individual interests.**

Indicator	Average	
Sex	Female	3.23
	Male	3.56
	Total	3.44
Age (years)	Less than 20	2.87
	From 21 to 30	3.59
	From 31 to 40	4.50
	From 41 to 50	4.00
	Total	3.44
Working student	Yes	3.71
	No	3.32
	Total	3.44
Displaced from usual residence	Yes	3.71

**Board 13. Contd.**

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	No	2.96
	Total	3.44
	Relatives	3.48
If so, where lives?	Rented house	4.10
	Other	2.81
	Total	3.44
	Public	3.38
HEI type	Private	3.64
	Total	3.44

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Scale: minimum = 0; maximum = 7.

*Review*

## **Equity in higher education of Nepal**

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**University education enables people to have better socio-economic return, engage in critical reflection of political affairs, social practices, and inequalities which subsequently strengthens democracy. The educational opportunities for disadvantaged people help them to break the vicious cycle of poverty, marginalization, and discrimination by enabling them to improve the social and economic status. The Government of Nepal has enacted the National Higher Education (HE) Policy, but it lags ensuring equitable opportunities for the marginalized community, particularly the Dalit community. Despite the constitutional commitment to provide equitable opportunities for educational development, Dalits who comprise above 13% population have been facing multitudes of exclusion in HE opportunities. Venanzi's social exclusion perspective has been used to analyze the underrepresentation of Dalits in HE. The ethnocentrism-historically developed ethnic perspective manifested by the National Code of Conduct of Nepal in 1854; the discursive formation-micro-stories that explained the derogatory origin of Dalits and the hegemonic discourse-subtle form of power perpetrated by non-Dalit in system implementation curtail Dalit's equitable participation in HE. Consequently, Dalits fail to move upward to the socioeconomic status which has impacted the overall development of the country. Mass advocacy and awareness campaign to deconstruct hierarchy-based caste system, data/evidence-based gender and social inclusion policy, increased participation of Dalits in decision-making positions, exploration of caste-related issues through periodic academic research and enactment of subsequent actions, inclusion of Dalit-related issues in HE curriculum, and arranging alternative education for geographically excluded Dalit community may enable Dalits to get HE.**

**Key words:** Equity, higher education, social exclusion, historicity, Dalit.

### **INTRODUCTION**

Education has always been one of the key focuses of development strategy because education is undoubtedly a key tool to achieve human prosperity and wellbeing. The Sustainable Development Goal (SDG), building on

the achievement of the Millennium Development Goal (MDG), has also integrated education among its 17 goals. The SDG in its fourth goal seeks to ensure 'inclusive and equitable quality education and promote

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lifelong learning opportunities for all' (United Nations, 2021). Equity in education means an equal opportunity for all students to achieve similar level of academic achievement, psychological development, and social wellbeing irrespective of their socio-economic background (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD], 2018) such as class, caste, gender, geography, language, religion, etc. Equity in education has multiple dimensions, as outlined earlier, related to socio-economic status. This paper particularly focuses on the analysis of caste-based system of Nepal which has a significant impact to the students from Dalit community in accessing and achieving cognitive domain in formal education and has become one of the key barriers in achieving quality and equitable education in Nepal.

The national census 2011 shows an estimated population of Dalits about 13.6%; however, Dalit organizations and researchers claim their population above 20% (International Dalit Solidarity Network, 2020). The constitution of Nepal in its Article 18-Right to equality, Article 24-Right against untouchability and discrimination, Article 31-Rights to education and Article 40-Rights of Dalit has secured equal and equitable access to opportunities offered by the state. Article 31 has ensured free and compulsory basic education, and free secondary education for every citizen. Article 40 has further mandated free higher education for Dalits with scholarship. However, there is an underrepresentation of Dalits in both school and university education. Due to the impingement caste-based hierarchy and its subsequent oppression, Dalits fail to enhance educational advancement. Hence, Dalit students have a lower enrollment rate, higher repetition rate in school education (Chalaune, 2020).

Chalaune further explains that Dalit children are higher in number among out of school children. Bhatta et al. (2008) highlight the existence of caste-based exclusionary practices at primary and secondary education. Bhatta et al. (2008) further contend that social exclusion has been reflected in children's schooling, particularly to Dalits because of engrained discriminatory beliefs based on religion, socio-cultural norms, and values. There is about 4.2% drop out from primary and secondary education and one third is from Dalit, only 4% Dalit children graduate to HE (Centre of Education and Human Resource Development (CEHRD), 2019). This has subsequently led to underrepresentation of Dalit students in higher education (HE) in Nepal.

The SDG goal 4 believes that education accelerates the socio-economic activity of human beings and contributes significantly to eradicate poverty globally which is a key challenge of the 21st century. With the onset of the twentieth century, two key premises led to increasing global attention to HE in development

approaches.

First, the high socio-economic return is not possible by the primary and secondary graduates only but needs to be substantiated by the HE graduates, and inclusive higher education is essential to ensure the participation and contribution of all, irrespective of their differences (Reinders et al., 2020).

Second, HE is a driver of "democratic socialization". The higher education system promotes just society through creating a space for critiquing social values that impede equality, personal freedom, and independency thereby contributing strengthening democracy (Post et al., 2004). Aligning with the global affection to HE and with an objective to produce creative, innovative, skilled, and competent manpower for the development of a country, Nepal also manifested attention and invested resources for HE development and promotion. To regularize, systematize, and strengthen HE, the Government of Nepal (GoN) promulgated National Higher Education Policy 2015. The government of Nepal has considered Bachelor's degree and above as higher education.

Despite an increased focus on HE in recent decades, there is a lack of concern and research on the existence of inequalities in HE in terms of access, retention, and its linkage to career outcomes (Reinders et al., 2020). Even the existing literature fails to explain why certain individuals or groups have an unequal representation in HE and how this links with the career outcome. Reinders et al. (2020) further explain only some literature outlining HE inequalities in different stages, from access to career outcome which suggest inclusive HE to focus beyond economic factor and must also include socio-cultural political human factors. The authors discuss the macro-level factors contributing to inequalities in HE that shape students' opportunities and capabilities: (1) economic and infrastructural constraints and (2) position of education in the global market. Least and middle-income countries lack resources and infrastructures that are necessary for HE, which has subsequently hampered access to HE. Likewise, as the global markets are leading HE institutions, due to their profit-prone objectives, the equitable access to and effectiveness of education is always compromised. In developing countries, financial resources, socio-cultural resources, human resources, and political resources play a role in access to HE. Likewise, in Nepal, beyond the economic factors, there are other factors, ranging from historicity to sociocultural context to structural inequality to geography, etc., contributing to existing inequalities in HE. To enable all human resources to use their full potential, HE requires to address inequalities and ease opportunities for all so that the government of Nepal promotes its position to a middle-income country by 2030 (Ministry of Education, 2016).

## PHILOSOPHICAL APPROACH

Venanzi (2004) explains that there are three key premises of construction of social exclusion-ethnocentrism, discursive formation, and hegemonic discourse. These premises contribute to construct or maintain social hierarchy based on ethnocentric disposition. Venanzi opines that ethnocentrism is an attribution of social distance, social identification, and the notion of purity based on hegemonic narratives of origin and micro-histories where certain groups of people exclude others assuming their superiority on them. Ethnocentrism is also an approach where people examine the culture of others through the perspective of their own culture and belief. The Code of Conduct 1854 (Muluki Ain 1910) which legitimated caste-based discrimination and untouchability against some caste groups (presently referred to as 'Dalit') perpetuated social categorization and social exclusion among different caste-groups. As a result of entrenched social categorization and impingement, there is caste-based discrimination in academic institutions. There are several Dalit discriminations in Indian academic higher institutions ranging from discrimination by fellow students, administrators, and teachers (Maurya, 2018).

Venanzi highlights the hegemonic discourse of privileged caste groups and explains their perpetuation of subtle power to secure their superiority and domination. As the privileged caste group has led decision-making positions, they tend to perpetuate different discrimination mechanisms to sustain their control over society. Pokharel (2019) asserts elite groups impose force and persuasion to rule minorities and marginalized communities which is a form of subtle power to sustain the hegemony of so-called high caste people. Furthermore, as explained by Mampaye (2017) about the existence of social exclusionary practices in higher education, privileged caste groups misinterpret dominant values of inclusion and mystify the concept of inclusionary practices. Moreover, the high caste people who lead the university/campus management rationalize meritocracy in students' enrollment and deconstruct an opportunity for Dalits to enjoy higher education opportunities.

## CHALLENGES OF EQUITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Besides the constitutional provision of rights to equality, non-discrimination, and equal opportunities in enhancing the potential of all citizen including educational opportunities, Dalit students have inequitable access to and completion of higher education. The data of CBS in 2001 shows that there is under-representation of Dalits in higher education with only 1.4% coverage, out of their

12.77% coverage to the total population. The Dalit community faces multiple social exclusionary practices through the way to higher education such as social discrimination and discouragement, discrimination in academic institutions, economic constraint, etc. Social exclusion is a process of denied access to people to civil, political, and social rights (Madanipour et al., 1998; Walker and Walker, 1997), and infringement of social relationships (Ghimire, 2018). Social exclusion indicates depriving people to enjoy social, political, and civil rights based on their origin-caste, gender, religion, etc. The exclusionary practices that have been substantiated by caste-based discrimination and untouchability in society and institutions due to historically and religiously ingrained caste hierarchy, the disparity in implementation of inclusive policies in organization due to owner's disinterest, provision of merit-based enrollment in higher education due to neo-liberalization and capitalism have created a barrier for Dalits to pursue higher education. Besides, the poor economic status of Dalits also posed challenges to enroll in and complete higher education. These existence of inequalities in higher education has contributed largely to 'social and economic mobility' (OECD, 2018) of Dalits. OECD (2018) outlines that the higher education significantly contributes to change social and economic status between childhood and adulthood. Higher education opportunities enable people to improve their economic status and social status through increasing possibility to engage in high profile job. Furthermore, OECD (2018) also explains that educational opportunities, particularly higher educational opportunities greatly enable students of marginalized community to increase their social and economic disposition. Subsequently, if Dalits are provided an equitable opportunity to enhance higher education, this potentially contributes to break the vicious cycle of poverty, marginalization and discrimination by increasing their social, economic and political access and representation. Therefore, equitable higher education in Dalit community stocks great importance for changing their current socio-economic status and deconstruct caste-based hierarchy which subsequently leads to create more equitable society.

## Historicity

The National Code of Conduct of Nepal 1854 legitimized the caste-based social division and provided a legal foundation of caste-based hierarchy which categorized people into four varnas and 36 castes under four categories, where the Dalit community was placed at the bottom of caste hierarchy (Sharma, 1977). The code provisioned discriminatory social rules is based on the caste-hierarchy. The code limited people's engagement

in different areas such as economic, social, cultural, economic, etc., in terms of their caste affiliation which subsequently led to creating inequality in society. The code banned Dalits to pursue formal education and bound to engage in menial works which subsequently led Dalits to suffer from vicious cycle of marginalization and disempowered. Therefore, because of the historical marginalization of Dalits in the educational and socio-economic discourse, and due to its prolonged effect, there is a minimal representation of Dalits in higher education. As Venanzi (2004) explained, there were lots of micro-histories and stories developed and institutionalized to legitimize the superiority and inferiority of different caste groups. For example, the religious scriptures outlined the derogatory origin of Dalit caste in that they originated from the legs of the god, whereas non-Dalit born from the heads and chests of the same god. This institutionalized a sense of superiority and inferiority in the society which has further developed into habitus and transformed from generation, unknowingly from parents to their children and knowingly. Therefore, the historical social bondage imposed by the legal code has caused educational marginalization of the Dalit community.

### **Socio-Cultural Context**

The financial relationships to the HE has been abundantly discussed in the literature; however, the connection between socio-cultural contexts and HE is scarcely discussed. Educated parents know the importance of HE and subsequently, create a conducive environment for getting access to HE. Educated parents tend to have a strong financial basis to enable their children to get HE. Likewise, educated parents have such a social network that is supportive of their children to know and understand the importance of pursuing HE. It is also evident that the parents with (post) secondary education experience are more likely to create a learning environment for their children to enable acquiring HE (Reinders et al., 2020). As many Dalit parents have lower or no educational attainment and no understanding of the importance of HE, they are less likely to encourage their children to attain higher education.

As a result of habitus as explained by Bourdieu, Nepalese society still instills superstitious beliefs about caste-based hierarchy. Subsequently, there is caste-based discrimination in primary and secondary schools. Furthermore, society has malpractice of criticizing and demotivating Dalits if they step ahead for an educational journey. Both the academic institutions and societies possess a hostile environment for Dalits to build educational advancement. However, there are no such state interventions to transform these barriers into

opportunities.

### **Structural inequality**

The historicity of social exclusion based on caste hierarchy perpetuated systemic inequality in Nepal. So-called high caste people secured key positions in legislative, executive, and judiciary bodies of government which enabled them to sustain social exclusion in different spheres, and education is not the exception. The people, to secure their superiority in government and society, have created a gap in the implementation of national inclusion policy, misinterpreted dominant values of inclusion, and rationalized neoliberalism such as merit-based enrollment in higher education. Subsequently, the marginalized people including Dalit faced hardship to pursue higher education in Nepal.

The Constitution of Nepal 2015, in its Article 40-Rights of Dalit, provisioned free higher education with scholarship. The National Higher Education (HE) Policy 2015 of Nepal has acknowledged the hardships of people from marginalized communities to enter into higher education and graduation (UGC, 2020). The policy, under the problem section, acknowledges that the scholarship schemes for socially and economically backward students are not adequate to increase their participation in higher education. Subsequently, some scholarship provisions for socially and economically marginalized students have been made; however, its implementation part has been contested widely. The policy has been enacted for about five years, but the required inclusion policy programs have not been formulated, neither such programs are implemented. Therefore, social exclusion contributes to the disparity in policy provision and implementation of inclusion programs in higher education. The University Grants Commission (UGC) (2020) manual has remained unvigilant about the scholarship to other Dalit castes and stated to commence such program after the formulation of program implementation guideline. Hence, despite the constitutional provision of free higher education with scholarships for Dalit students, there is an insignificant representation of them in higher education primarily due to the disparity in policy implementation.

Venanzi (2004) contends that the privileged caste group, to secure their superiority, sheer subtle power everywhere. The superior castes that are supposed as elite groups impose force and persuasion to rule minorities and backward communities (Pokharel, 2019). Likewise, the HE policy formulation and HE institutions in Nepal have dominantly been led by non-Dalit and/or elite groups which may have resulted in inadequate provision for Dalit students in higher education. Mampaye (2017) asserts that social exclusionary practices existed in

higher education because of disparity in the implementation of inclusion policy which has foreshadowed the dominant values of inclusion. The leadership and management of academic institutions and government departments led by non-Dalit pierce ambiguity in inclusion policy and merely keep such an agenda as a slogan in a fashionable way. Similarly, non-Dalit academic managers operate HE institutions for economic gain and profit and use merit-based enrollment for quality education which reinforces the social exclusion of Dalit students. In the HE policy and policy of HE institutions, the dominant values as explained by Mampaye can be seen to increase the representation of students from the marginalized community, but its implementation mechanism and structure have been kept unidentified, unrecognized, and unvalued. This is a subtle form of discrimination against citizens who belong to the Dalit community which may sheer another dimension of exclusion.

The underrepresentation of Dalits in decision-making and policy formulation processes has reinforced disparity in HE reform. Few affirmative remedies appear in development discourse to address exclusion and promote inclusion, and the same as in the education sector. The affirmative actions which are limited to redistribution of resources without intervening in structure inequalities (Bawa, 2013) reinforced the system of discrimination and inequality. Therefore, the inclusive policies which have been led by elites created a vicious cycle of exclusion of Dalit communities. Besides, the political marginalization of Dalits has lagged them to influence policy discourse which marginalized them to have a conducive environment for getting into HE and that subsequently compel them to live disempowered, poor, and marginalized.

### **Social exclusion in HE institutions**

Social exclusionary practices in the society lead Dalit to face discrimination in schools which ultimately lead to underrepresentation of Dalit in higher education. Dalit students face caste-based discrimination in classrooms by peers, teachers, and administrators which led them to drop-out of schools (Bishwakarma, 2011). Subsequently, the higher drop-out rate of Dalit students may contribute to the under-representation of Dalit students in higher education. Bhatta et al. (2008) referring to a study in India explain that discriminatory practices in primary and secondary education lead to a lower presence of marginalized social groups.

There is no study of the extent of caste-based discrimination in HE institutions in Nepal. However, there are several Dalit discriminations in Indian academic higher institutions ranging from discrimination by fellow

students, administrators, and teachers (Maurya, 2018). Maurya further elaborates that the extent of discrimination has led Dalit students to drop-out of higher education, and even to commit suicide in Indian HE institutions. As India and Nepal share a common root for caste-based hierarchy, we can argue about the existence of caste-based discrimination in HE institutions of Nepal which has posed a barrier for Dalit people to enter, sustain and complete higher education.

### **Geography**

The geographical location of people signifies the extent of their engagement in formal education (school, campus, university). The children who live far from school have lower enrollment as compared to the children who live nearby (Bishwakarma, 2011). Most Dalits live in a hilly area (Bishwakarma, 2011) with limited access to development opportunities; and subsequently have difficulty to attend formal education. Bhatta et al. (2008) explain that geographical locations contribute significantly to the representation of children in school, and hence the rural areas have a very lower gross enrollment rate in Nepal. Dalits live mostly in remote and hilly areas of Nepal (Bishwakarma, 2011) and have lower enrollment in school. Subsequently, Dalits are less likely to enter into university education. Likewise, in Nepal, all universities have been located in urban areas and hence access to higher education for the Dalit community is difficult.

The HE policy 2015 envisioned to ensure online/digital education for the students who do not have access to universities physically. However, the students having poor schooling and inadequate skills to handle digital technology significantly contribute to the quality educational outcomes (Reinders et al., 2020). In Nepal, such studies and analyses have not been made which may lead to ineffective digital and online education for students that are geographically marginalized.

### **INTERSECTIONALITY WITHIN DALITS RELATING TO HE ACCESS AND OPPORTUNITIES**

Reinders et al. (2020) contend the stronger effect of gender in marginalized and ethnic caste groups in terms of their access to higher education. This means the notion of intersectionality has a strong effect on the access to HE; the more the discrimination the more vulnerable they are to HE opportunities. Among Dalits, women, people with disabilities, economically indigent, and socio-culturally marginalized caste groups are more vulnerable in development opportunities, and so does in the education sector. The people with the aforesaid

attributes are facing an overlapping and independent system of discrimination and hence are facing multitudes of barriers to getting into higher education. For example, a Dalit girl with a disability who lives in the Kalikot district of Nepal (which is a remote district with fewer development opportunities) has merely a dream to pursue higher education in Nepal. Besides, the preference of son over daughter in the Nepalese society due to engrained belief of continuing offspring and existing high rate of economic return people tend to send sons for higher education. As the same trend, belief, and culture reflect in the Dalit community, Dalit daughters are comparatively more vulnerable to get opportunities for higher education than daughters from non-Dalit caste. Therefore, higher education in Nepal has not been able to identify, explore, and address such complex exclusionary issues that have contributed to the underrepresentation of Dalits in higher education. Unless such multidimensional issues of exclusion are identified, the country lacks to utilize the full potential of human resources which subsequently subjugates the development of the country.

## **RELEVANT POLICIES FOR EQUITABLE AND INCLUSIVE HE**

The Constitution of Nepal 2015 under Article 18-Rights to equality, has ensured equal opportunities to the services offered by the state, Article 31-Rights to education has ensured equitable educational opportunities for people with disability and economically indigent, and Article 40-Rights of Dalit has provisioned free higher education with a scholarship. The National Higher HE Policy 2015 of Nepal recognizes the multitudes of challenges that the people from the marginalized groups face accessing HE and completion (UGC, 2020). Subsequently, the policy acknowledges the inadequacy of scholarship provisions to increase access of students to HE from the marginalized communities and implies to mandate additional facilities to increase access from socially and economically indigent students. The policy in its mission, strategy, and working policy has included approaches to increase participation of students from marginalized communities; however, the objective and policy sections of the policy have remained silent in achieving the increased participation of students from the deprived communities. The HE policy is unclear about the implementation of inclusionary programs and based on the previous experiences of disparity in implementing such programs (Martin, 2015); it can be suspected about the execution of inclusionary programs provisioned in the HE policy. Likewise, the University Grants Commission (2020) in its annual report of 2018/2019 outlined that there is a lack of effective policy to increase access of

women, poor, Dalits, underprivileged groups, and areas to HE. The 15th planning of Nepal, with an objective to increase access of students from remote places and the students with a need of alternative access, has sought to expand and reinforce of open university and open and distance education system (National Planning Commission, 2019). However, the planning fails to explain the multitudes of exclusion in HE and the subsequent actions and/or programs to increase access and completion rate of students from the Dalit community. The National Education Policy 2019 has covered multiple dimensions of inclusion, empowerment, capacity development, scholarships up to secondary level education to enhance formal education and technical and vocational education opportunities for the children of the Dalit community (MOEST, 2019). The policy acknowledges the existence of caste-based discrimination including untouchability in the schools and seeks to eliminate such discrimination strengthening governance in the school system. However, the policy has remained silent in ensuring equitable access of Dalit students to HE.

The existing education policies seek to ensure equitable educational access in school-level education. The HE policy 2015 which was specifically formulated for the quality education at the HE level is centered towards regulating the HE institutions of Nepal. The literature suggests accounting political, sociocultural, and other aspects along with economic factors to assess the issues of Dalit access to higher education. However, the existing policies fall behind to include such aspects.

## **POLICY RECOMMENDATION**

The existing educational policies, particularly the HE policy requires substantive substantiation to make it more inclusive and equitable so that the full human resource potential can be utilized to lift Nepal to a middle-income country by 2030 as envisioned by the School Sector Development Plan (SSDP). As historicity, sociocultural context, structural inequality, exclusions in HE institutions, geographical marginalization, and intersectionality are key aspects hindering Dalits to enter higher education and graduation, the policy requires to acknowledge such diversities and needs to incorporate such dimensions for equal and equitable higher education for its citizen.

(1) Deconstruction of historical belief of hierarchy: To deconstruct the historical caste-based belief, the mass advocacy campaign, and empowerment at the community level may contribute significantly. Likewise, the revision and update of Hindu religious manuscripts or mythologies with the respectful origin of all may help to

eradicate the disproportional origin of different castes in the long run. For example, the MOEST/Centre of Education and Human Resource Development (CEHRD) can develop awareness raising audio and video about the caste-based ostracism, legal provision for the caste-based discrimination and broadcast from national television, radio and FM stations. The MOEST can also coordinate with the apex religious body to revise the mythological and disrespectful origin of Dalit.

(2) Gender and Social Inclusion (GESI): Development of GESI policy accounting intersectionality can increase Dalit participation in higher education. The GESI planning and programming requires to be elaborated/explained well with the substantiation of data and evidence. Their subsequent funding resources need to be identified to ensure its effective implementation. The University Grants Commission (UGC) can develop a GESI policy to increase access of Dalits in higher education. This may include allocating certain seats for the enrollment of Dalit students with adequate scholarship provisions. The GESI policy may incorporate a mandatory provision of every higher education institutions to allocate about 13% seats for Dalit students which is proportionate to Dalit population. The UGC may provide grant or assistance to those universities for implementing such practices.

(3) Structural strengthening: The representation of Dalit in decision-making position and policy formulation process may reflect the Dalit agenda in the higher education policy. Besides, if the policy draft committee consists of Dalit expert(s) it may reflect the issues of exclusion in policy document with effective solutions of inclusion. The higher education department of MOEST and/or CEHRD and/or UGC may recruit/designate Dalit for the development and execution of higher education.

(4) Research on Dalit issue: The extent of discrimination in HE institutions in Nepal is almost nil. As India has plenty of evidence of caste-based discrimination in HE institutions, it is more likely to have such issues in Nepal too. Therefore, increased research on Dalit discrimination in HE institutions may provide institutional and structural barriers to attaining equitable access to higher education which may attract subsequent remedies. The UGC and/or MOEST may organize a periodic discussion with the Policy Research Institute (PRI) and ask PRI to conduct research on caste-based discrimination in higher education. Based on research findings, the UGC can develop a policy to redress the access and graduation constraints of Dalits in higher education.

(5) Curriculum revision and update: Education as a key tool to dismantle irrational and man-made beliefs about caste-based hierarchy, the HE curriculum may include 'caste-based discrimination as a key barrier' to development and achieving prosperity and wellbeing of humanity. The MOEST in coordination with the Curriculum Development Center (CDC) may include

caste-based discrimination in the curriculum of higher education which encourages HE students to go deeper about the caste-based issues and it may become helpful in synergizing action against caste-based discrimination in academic institutions and in societies.

(6) Revitalizing open and distant education: Open and distant education system as a strategy to enable every citizen to accessing higher education, the assessment of students' ability to connect with digital and online education, and subsequent user-friendly system may increase accessibility to HE.

## CONCLUSION

Nepal, like other countries in the world, recognizes higher education as a means of producing skilled, competent, innovative, and proficient human resources for the development of the country. Higher education is also regarded as a way to increase socioeconomic mobility, decrease poverty, and mitigate sociocultural discrimination. Therefore, the Constitution of Nepal 2015, 15th planning, National Education Policy 2019, and National Higher Education Policy 2015 have sought to build on higher education and ensure quality education.

Despite the progress towards achieving quality higher education, as Venanzi (2004) explains about the construction of social exclusion, the existing educational policies have not been able to recognize multitudes of exclusion in society, academic institutions, and even in the systemic structures. The ethnic and caste-based barrier, structural complexities, geographical marginalization, exclusions in HE institutions are the key factors to subjugate the participation of Dalits in higher education.

Furthermore, the notion of intersectionality is almost vacuum in the existing policies. As these aspects are not being well reflected as it persists in policy dimension it attracts in-depth analysis of exclusion in higher education.

To ensure the use of the full potential of every citizen of the country for the developing country, the higher education policy requires ensuring equitable access to HE. For equitable access, the government of Nepal requires to adopt six core strategies: (1) deconstruction of historical notion of caste-based superiority and inferiority through mass advocacy campaigning and empowerment, (2) development of evidence-based GESI policy from the perspective of intersectionality, (3) increase the representation of marginalized people in decision-making positions, (4) research on the extent of institutional and systemic Dalit discrimination and adoption of subsequent remedies, (5) integrating Dalit issues in HE curriculum, and (6) revitalization of the open and distant education system.

## CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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*Full Length Research Paper*

# **Duties of educators and administrators in adapting immigrant students to school**

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**In this study, the roles of teachers and school administrators in the adaptation of immigrant students to the school organization were investigated. For this purpose, the opinions of teachers and school administrators were taken for the adaptation of immigrant students to the school organization. The interview form used in the research was created by the researcher with the help of field experts. Participants consist of schools with a large number of immigrant students. The data obtained using face to face interview method was analyzed by content analysis technique. The research data were themed as studies on the adaptation of immigrant students to school, the adaptation and academic problems of immigrant students at school, and the solution of the problems encountered in the adaptation of immigrant students to school. Solution suggestions were tried to be found. As a result, there are important problems in the education of immigrant students. It may be suggested to plan serious activities in order to support teachers with in-service trainings on the education of immigrant children, to monitor students' attendance at school, and to eliminate communication problems between immigrant students and other students.**

**Key words:** Quality education, immigrant students, school, right to education, educational adaption.

## **INTRODUCTION**

In the globalizing world, rapid changes are observed in the field of education as in other fields. The common market understanding that emerged as a result of this change in every field also manifests itself in the field of education. An important pillar of this education market is the movement of foreign students (Baxter and Jack, 2008). For the last two decades, universities have become both "playgrounds" and "players" of the global economic market. This transformation has made

universities a part of economic policy rather than being a part of social policy (Beane, 1999). Foreign students are also the most important figures of this market. The number of foreign students, which was approximately three million in 2006 (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2010), is estimated to reach eight million by 2025 (Beane, 1999). In 2012, 4.5 million students were found to be enrolled in higher education institutions other than their country of

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citizenship. Alongside the USA, Australia, Austria, United Kingdom, Luxembourg, Switzerland and New Zealand are seen to have the highest proportion of international students in percentage enrollment in total higher education (Castles, 2003).

This increase naturally brings along a series of problems and necessitates that students participating in the exchange program should be approached with a different perspective on the current and future problems they will experience. It is also applied to Turkey's. International students get a better education in different parts of the world and come to Turkey to gain work experience. In addition, each year the number of international students' coming to Turkey is rapidly increasing (Adkins-Coleman, 2010). This process was for those who want to attain higher education in Turkey in 1981. Foreign Students Exam (YOS) started in 1992, after which Turks and Relatives Communities Exam (TCS) continued. In this sense, Turkey launched "Great Student Project" Turkey in the framework of new policies and policies for the world of education sector. It can be considered as an important step in terms of strengthening its place (Black, 1998). Each year, foreign students use ÖSYM to choose higher education in Turkey; TCS is carried out in Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Turkmenistan, Tajikistan and Tatarstan. In addition, through the Islamic Development Bank, Turkish Religious Foundation and similar organizations, foreign national students from different countries come to Turkey (Kirođlu et al., 2010). Today, it is seen that the number of foreign students coming to the country for education from different countries has reached 60,642 (Dumlu, 2018).

In places where students go for educational purposes, besides academic pressures, they may also experience economic, health, loneliness and interpersonal conflict. For international students, these are all new challenges and highly stressful situations. Since these students are foreigner, they have problems in separating and adapting to new cultural environment; they are sometimes discriminated against; and they have problems in their academic performance, social interactions and language skills (Curran, 2003).

Foreign students in Turkey have both natural language and education issues related to socio-cultural and economic problems. Studies conducted on foreign students show that these students often experience loneliness, incompatibility, timidity, cultural shock, and psychological problems (Chrispeels and Rivero, 2000). Foreign nationals who came to Turkey to study observed that a limited number of studies have been conducted on students' language and educational problems (Kirođlu et al., 2010).

Also, it is seen that there are few studies on the socio-cultural and economic problems of students. Annaberdiyev (2006) analyzes the students'

psychological help seeking attitudes, needs and adaptations in terms of various variables. Bondy et al. (2007) examines adjustment to the social structure of incoming students in Balkan countries; examined students' adjustment problems in higher education in Turkey and the related stereotypes, on the other hand Boyacı (2009), discussed the relationship between the sources of stress of Turkish and related community students and their coping styles and mental health. Brown (2002) in his research on foreign students revealed that the students had problems related to self, family, future, health and friendship, respectively. On the other hand, Ehristensen and Stanat (2007) determined that as cultural differences increase, compliance behavior is negatively affected; and as cultural similarities increase, students' level of adoption of the culture they live in increases. While Brown and Kysilk (2002) conducted a research on the psychological well-being and life satisfaction of university students from different countries; Cernea and McDowell (2000) examined foreign undergraduate students studying in Turkey that carried out a survey of the socio-cultural and economic problems seen.

In recent years, students from different regions and countries studying in the universities in Turkey seem to be many. In making permanent friendship with the Turkic Republics, Turkish and relative communities, students from the Middle East and Eastern Europe and Russia in the field of "education" carry a special meaning.

In order to see what the basic problem of foreign students in Turkey is, a research was conducted on the basis of the perception of the problems related to language and academic competence. The results of the research mentioned above show that the socio-cultural and economic problems of foreign students. Besides, the thoughts of these students towards the country where they continue their education are undeniably important. In this sense, foreign student's study of the context of the basic issues and the perception of Turkey will provide an important contribution if considered.

The study aim to answer the following questions: what are the opinions of school administrators on researches conducted on the education of immigrant students in schools? What are the teachers' opinions on the researches on the education of immigrant students in schools? What are the views of school administrators on the problems experienced in the education of immigrant students? What are the teachers' views on the problems experienced in the education of immigrant students? What are the school administrators' suggestions for solving the problems encountered in the education of immigrant students? What are the teachers' suggestions for solving the problems encountered in the education of immigrant students? What are the activities carried out for the adaptation of immigrant students to school?

## **RIGHT TO EDUCATION AND TRAINING SYSTEMS IN TURKEY**

Education is perceived as a duty of public education in Turkey from the Ottoman period, it is based on the 1839 Tanzimat period in history. In 1869, it was stated in the Education Regulations that primary education was compulsory and free for every citizen. In 1923, after the 1924 Constitution established in the republic of Turkey, primary education was made compulsory and free for both sexes in the states. Centralism has been the most prominent feature of the Republican era education system. Adopted in 1924, the Education Union Law gathered all scientific and educational institutions under the Ministry of National Education, abolished all religious schools and put foreign schools under state control, and a school system based on a national Western European model was established. Single-party education policies (1923-1946) emphasized the development and modernization objectives, and used schools and adult education programs for political and cultural socialization. In the circular issued by the Ministry of National Education on December 19, 1923, "The loyalty of schools to the principles of the republic" was reported. Programs have been developed for schools aimed at establishing urban social and cultural lifestyle with western view. Textbooks have been prepared within this framework. It is emphasized that education is of vital importance in economically undeveloped countries where physical manpower and financial resources are limited. Individuals in various industrial and service jobs aim to be trained as professionals who can work. Turkey aims to increase agricultural and industrial products programs for people living in rural areas, to improve productivity. Traveling Village Women Courses and Village Male Art courses were initiated by the Ministry of National Education between 1938 and 1939. Education needs in various parts of Anatolia Village Institutes were established in order to support the social and economic development of 40,000 villages in Anatolia. In the newly established nation-state, education is organized, controlled and funded by the government, the Republican People's Party; there are very few private schools. This is stated in the Liberal 1961 Constitution, the right to education, individual rights and responsibilities and social and economic rights and responsibilities sections. In this constitution, the state is given the responsibility of developing the individual in material and spiritual aspects. Religious education is tied to the principle of volunteering; freedom in arts and sciences has been recognized, and it is foreseen that private educational institutions can be at all levels but is limited. At the same time, the 1961 Constitution introduced the autonomy of universities in academic and administrative contexts.

The importance given to education can be clearly seen

from the resources allocated to education from the national budget. Table 1 shows the annual share allocated to national education from the national budget, the number of students, teachers and schools at five-year intervals from 1923 to 2002.

As seen in Table 1, the share allocated to education from the annual national budget started with 3.2% in the early 1920's, increased by 16.6% until the 1960s, and declined to 7.6% in 2002. Despite the increase in the number of schools and students, a decrease in the budget means that the state will spend less on each school and each student in the coming year. When examining the resources allocated to education, what matters is the amount allocated per student. Thus, as a country with rapid population growth rate, the share of the budget allocated to education in Turkey has become an important issue. In 2002, a report on the right to education in Turkey from the United Nations Special Rapporteur Katarina has addressed the same issue in Tomasevski. Tomosevski, who agreed with the proposal of UNESCO on this issue, suggested increasing the share allocated to education from 4.2.7 to 6%. Of course, the resources allocated from the budget and the amount per student is important. However, it does not show who has the right to education and how much. This study obtained important information on who is exposed to what kind of discrimination in education (Cranston-Gingras, 2010).

## **EXERCISE AND BARRIERS OF THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION**

The education system has about 16 million students in Turkey, 60 thousand teachers and 600 thousand schools but is steadily decreasing share allocated from the budget in the face of growing needs. National Education according to Ministry statistics share per student in 2001 was 126 US Dollars. Anyway, 80% of the money that comes to education goes to the salaries of teachers and other staff. Hence, from the share allocated to education, very little money is left for works such as enhancing the school building, increasing school facilities, enriching course materials and teaching tools. Due to lack of allocated funds, school administrations have to ask students for money for heating, cleaning, renovation of the school and many other needs. This situation is pedagogically undesirable because it mostly affects students with limited financial means negatively and causes serious conflicts between schools and parents. Farrell (1992) suggests defining inequality in education in four areas: equality at entry; equality within the school; equality in completing school; equality in after-school facilities. This study will reveal inequalities in these areas; rights-based statistical data were collected

**Table 1.** An overview of education in the republic period

Consolidated years	Affordable education allocated share (%)	Number of students	Number of schools	Number of teachers
1980	11.5	7,897,309	85,116	326,675
1985	8.4	9,554,205	98,156	350,399
1990	13.21	10,803,033	65,499	396,479
1995	10.17	11,970,053	63,888	448,048
2000	7.13	12,646,693	51,010	492,081
2001	8.37	12,879,507	51,612	528,816
2002	7.6	13,686,616	52,616	557,759

UNESCO Global Education Monitoring Report.

**Table 2.** Enrollment rates by education level, 1990-1991 and 1996-1997.

School Year	Total	Female	Male
1990-91	7.08	5.53	8.57
1991-92	7.24	5.77	8.64
1992-93	7.62	6.24	8.93
1993-94	9.61	7.58	10.48
1994-95	8.61	7.35	9.82
1995-96	9.35	8.07	10.57
1996-97	9.21	8.35	10.59

UNESCO Global Education Monitoring Report.

systematically, though not available to those who work on the right to education.

National Education Statistics gave the number of students enrolled and we do not have any information about who were excluded and why. Having statistical information about educational equality shows us the quantitative dimension. The qualitative dimension includes subjects such as more complex, sometimes hidden discriminatory subjects, contents, teaching methods, teacher behavior, school culture and school climate, which are issues related to the educational process and daily life at school. These issues can be effective in determining who, what type and how much education right students are entitled to, even in the same school. As one climbs up the stage, compulsory education rate level in Turkey keeps falling and be able to keep the difference between girls and boys has also been increasing (Table 2).

The rate of holding in school is important in terms of showing who stays at school and who is eliminated. A study revealing this rate was published by Boğaziçi University Educational Sciences Department in March 2003. In this study, 1,586,004 students who started primary school in 1987-1988 were followed up by the

Statistics of the Ministry of National Education until 1998-1999, when they were expected to finish high school and enter the university.

### **Inequality and discrimination**

When the statistics presented before are examined carefully, it becomes clear to what extent gender discrimination is valid. However, inequality in education in Turkey is not limited to gender discrimination. Inequality in income distribution, social class, ethnic origin, age and disability are important factors that prevent schooling or obtaining a qualified education in Eastern and Southern Anatolia and rural areas in general. Schooling is offered more in the West.

### **Gender discrimination in education**

Inequality between men and women in education is one of the most striking negative features of the Turkish education system (Dei and Rummens 2012). While the rate of illiterate women in rural areas is 30.4%, the rate of

men is 10.1%. In urban areas, 18.7% of women are illiterate while this rate is 4.5% for men. The lower proportion of women in the education system is only one aspect of gender-based discrimination. The socialization process at school is sexist, and gender-discriminatory curricula support and reinforce already existing patriarchal gender roles and stereotypes. Many aspects of discrimination in schools in Turkey have been investigated in several studies. It is a striking example that the textbooks emphasize the discriminatory social roles assigned to women and men, such as social roles and professions with high status and income, suitable for men and domestic care work for women. It is frequently emphasized that the primary duty of women is motherhood.

### ***Neoliberal policies, privatization and income inequality***

Inequality in social class and income distribution has always been effective in determining the right to education. This is also the case for compulsory primary education. As a result of the inequality in income distribution, a dual structure has emerged in education. While private schools provide more qualified education to those who are in better financial conditions, schools where the poor majority attend have increasingly diminishing resources, deteriorating educational conditions and crowding. Faced with the reality of their class size, the quality of education provided in public schools in Turkey, economic restructuring January 24, 1980 started to decrease significantly with the structuring policies. Education service, which was accepted as the responsibility of the state until the 1980s, was put into the background after the 1980s. The grave unequal distribution of distribution and the deterioration of the already unjust balance between capital and labor in favor of capital forces have led to very important changes in the education system. This period, when neoliberal economic policies were implemented, witnessed serious regressions in terms of equal opportunities in education. Resources allocated to education from the state budget have been reduced. Expenditure per student fell to an unprecedented degree. During the same period, religious weight gradually increased in the education system. The number of imam hatip schools increased rapidly, religion classes were made compulsory in primary and secondary education, and this obligation was even stipulated by a constitutional guarantee. Public Education Centers, which were established to provide education opportunities to citizens who did not benefit from this right during the formal education phase, are frequently criticized in terms of quality and quantity (Tati, 2008).

The regular increase in the number of private schools

can be examined by considering how the socio-economic changes reflected in the spending of Turkey's education system. Many parents, whose wages have already been severely devalued as a result of neoliberal policies, have had to sacrifice more to provide quality education to their children due to the decline in the quality of public education. At this point, it should be noted that this period after September 12, 1980 coup is a period in which the culture of protest and opposition was suppressed. Civil society and political organizations advocate and protection of public education, such as the trade unions and the teacher movement, were prohibited. The brutality of the 1980 military coup banned and / or suppressed all social and political organizations and movements that would oppose brutal neoliberal policies. Privatization, which was offered as the only recipe against the economic crisis, was presented to the public as the only remedy in education. One thing is a fact that, in Turkey, the privatization of education is closely related to the decline in the quality of public education. Despite the increase in the number of students enrolled in public schools, it is a great contradiction that in parallel with this increase, teachers and other education personnel in sufficient number and quality are not assigned, and the necessary physical resources and educational tools and equipment are not provided. While extremely insufficient financial resources are allocated to the public education system from the state budget, private schools are allocated state resources in various ways. These resources are in the form of incentive loans, provision of income and corporate tax exemptions, and direct distribution of public funds to these schools. We face a bitter truth about the Right to Education in Turkey which is related to regional differences. (UNESCO, 2015).

School enrollment rates are far below the average in Turkey, especially in East and South East Anatolia. There are problems in the region for children whose mother tongue is not Turkish. There are specific problems caused by migration and poverty. For example, the three cities with the lowest scores in the 2003 University Entrance Exam are Şırnak, Bitlis and Hakkari. As a result, the realization of the right to education as a right, with a public understanding is necessary to conceptualize and implement. The transformation of this right into a form of money that is determined by the conditions imposed by neoliberal policies and by market mechanisms makes it unworthy. It makes education a privilege that can be enjoyed by social classes and strata that have the financial means to purchase it (UNESCO, 2018).

### **EDUCATION AND LANGUAGE POLICIES APPLIED TO MIGRANTS IN EUROPE**

In order to support and accelerate the integration of

students with an immigrant background into the education system, especially for students learning the school language as a second language, most European countries make specific preparations for the best management of their situation. A common practice for immigrant children learning the language used at school as a second language is to integrate students directly into the classroom with additional language support. In most of the countries of study, besides the direct class integration model, there is a second model that provides separate groups or classes for a specified period of immigrant children. In Germany and Romania, the second model is the one used throughout all periods of full-time compulsory education. Although common in primary and secondary education, direct integration with the language of instruction with additional assistance is somewhat more common in primary education. Separate class in lower secondary education in Belgium and Luxembourg model is implemented. In Ireland, where both models are used at primary education level, separate classes' model is preferred in the first level of secondary education. In Spain, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, regional or local school authorities have the right to use their autonomy to decide the best ways to meet the needs and conditions of their location. Owing to this reason, it shows their participation in regular classes where the direct integration model is common in the UK, although it is the only support model for immigrant children learning English as a second language (UNESCO, 2008).

They follow the curriculum for all students, but language support is provided individually for each immigrant student during normal school hours. For separate groups/classes model immigrant students who learn the language of instruction as a second language are grouped separately from their peers for a period of time (ranging from a few weeks to one or two school years) so that they can receive special education according to their needs for their final integration into regular classes. However, as soon as they are considered ready, they can start taking some lessons in appropriate classes (European Commission, 2012). For these two main models, European education systems divide immigrant children into three categories and offer very broad measures for these categories. For support measures undertaken, in general, it refers to lectures based on 'linguistic immersion' in which students are directly exposed to the target language during normal school hours and receive intensive instruction individually or in small groups (special language support). "Bilingual" lessons are conducted partly in the language of instruction and partly in the students' mother tongue.

Support measures aim at addressing the learning needs of immigrant students in certain areas of the curriculum in their learning situation. Under these

circumstances, the content of the main curriculum and teaching methods can be changed specifically. Curriculum support can be organized and immigrant students are sometimes not treated like other students. Classes can be reduced for a more favorable student/teacher ratio. Countries that provide language support with both models start by teaching the language of the host country. In this respect, it is emphasized that the languages spoken by the immigrant population come from countries that are not the same as one or more of the languages of instruction in the host country. This situation reveals that the definition of immigrant student in Europe is made through language. Language teaching to immigrant students in Europe is given not only in compulsory education age but also in pre-school education. Integration of children in pre-school education, relevant is an issue that authorities have recently taken into account. Some states have launched programs to introduce very young children to the language of instruction before entering compulsory education. In Germany these programs are aimed at children who were born in the country or who came to the country at a really young age. In Belgium, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Norway, practice classes (especially in terms of language) are being established to prepare such children for their transition to primary school. The Czech Republic, Finland and Sweden (in some municipalities) organize special groups for immigrant children at pre-school level to prepare children for transition to compulsory education. It is emphasized that in the United Kingdom (England and Scotland) pre-school staff should pay special attention to the needs of children whom English is taught as a second language. Students with immigrant backgrounds in Europe, it will be useful to look at the studies on schooling and especially learning the language of the host country on a country basis. (UNHCR. 2010)

### **Germany**

Germany is one of the countries that receive the highest immigration in Europe. It has been exposed to a serious immigration flow since the early 1960s. In 2012, 8% of Germany's population was made up of foreign citizens, and 20% of the total population was of immigrant background. According to micro census data, immigrant children made up 33% of the total child population in Germany in 2014. Majority of the immigrants are Turkish, Polish, Italian and Romanian. Germany has developed various strategic plans (education policy and integration policy) that include specific measures for immigrant children. These strategic plans include support for children; regardless of immigration status or duration of stay Access to school is guaranteed. Implementing the immersion model as an integration model from the very

beginning, Germany provides intensive language support in classrooms established at primary and secondary education levels, which are called "Willkommensklassen" and translated as "welcome classes" into Turkish. In the future, it follows the immigrant student in normal classes and develops new integration policies as a result of this follow-up. There is support for schools and teacher training. Financial support is provided to meet the needs of schools for additional staff and lessons. In addition, it pays attention to the professionalization of language teaching, giving importance to intercultural issues and creating and distributing pedagogical materials according to the target audience. School-based education supports usually start when a child is enrolled in school. In cases where the German language skills of immigrant children are not sufficient to continue school, state education ministries have initiated pre-school language training courses. These support courses are taken when children are five years old. Children who start the course are subjected to a verbal language test, and children who are successful in the test have to attend local kindergartens, and children who are not qualified have to attend support language courses for a year (UNESCO, 2005).

The language course is taught by a qualified teacher, on average six hours a week. 50% of immigrant children need this language support (Eurydice, National Description, 2003-04). If the number of immigrant students exceeds one fifth of the class, special classes can be opened for these students for language support according to the German school curriculum. In these special classes, students are classified by age group and all necessary resources are provided for the German language teachers of these classes. Materials prepared for teaching German as a foreign language are provided by local governments, just like other teaching materials. There are three types of private courses in schools; basic courses, advanced courses and support courses. At the end of the advanced course, children should be able to attend classes in all areas. The topics in the materials used in these lessons are linked to formal teaching materials and should benefit the student when the student moves to regular classes. Teacher training programs generally do not include an intercultural dimension, but there are exceptions; educational programs for foreign languages, geography and social sciences. In-service teacher training, in which teachers get to know students with a multicultural background, includes intercultural dimension. The "German as a foreign language" teacher qualification program places special emphasis on the intercultural dimension as the program aims to facilitate the integration of immigrant children (UNESCO, 2010).

Another remarkable study for immigrant students in Germany is the model program "Support for Children and Young People with Migration Background" (Förderung

von Kindern und Jugendlichen mit Migrationshintergrund - FörMig). The program aims to develop and implement innovative ideas for language support at all levels of education. The focal points of the program are: Language support based on individual language assessments; Continuous language support throughout the school system; Language support in the transition from school to the labor market. The program structure is designed to improve cooperation between other stakeholders such as different school levels and types, education management, parents, and local agencies (UNICEF, 2007).

### Austrian

In 2015, 17% of the Austrian population was of immigrant background. The proportion of immigrant children in the same year represents 15% of the total child population. When the second generation is included in this ratio, the rate increases to 34.5%. Austria has criticized various policies to support the education of immigrant children. There are four main areas of education policies for immigrant children in Austria; language learning, equal opportunities, teaching support and parenting participation. The legal basis for access to education services is the same for indigenous and immigrant children. However, a newly arrived immigrant child does not have sufficient knowledge of the language of instruction (German), such child requires participation in language support classes outside of the normal program. If, for any reason, an immigrant child is not ready for school at the age of six, pre-school preparation is offered in agreement with the school authority, just like local children at the same school. In this case, language support is provided in the transition phase between kindergarten and primary school, focusing on the assessment of literacy skills and second language acquisition. Language support and USB-DAZ application, located at the University of Vienna Sprachstandsdiagnostikzentrum (Center for language level determination), on behalf of BMBWF (Bundesministerium für Bildung und Frauen) (Federal ministry of education and women), has developed an application that encourages teachers to observe the language skills of children learning German as a second language and encourage teachers to professionalize their language support. This observation tool, USB-Da (Unterrichtsbegleitende Sprachstandsbeobachtung - Deutsch als Zweitsprache) (Language Level Observation Supported Education - German as a Second Language) was published in 2014. It is safe for children aged 6-12 years. Scientifically, it has a foundation and has been designed and piloted by experts.

By observing the trainings given with this application, preliminary information is collected for the next studies.

Teachers observe children's language learning processes and use teaching materials. They can regularly use USB-DaZ to adapt their methods to their language needs. The tool is for children with external and regular status at primary and lower secondary level, which is very useful in language support lessons. BIMM (Bundeszentrum Interkulturalität, Migration, Mehrsprachigkeit) established in 2013 (Federal Center for Intercultural, Immigration and Multilingualism) provides a support system for teacher training in cooperation with universities. The main situation that BMBF supervises is content-based. It plays a role in education and strategic development, as well as in monitoring the implementation of the new teacher education curriculum on immigration education, starts initiatives aimed at an intercultural opening in teacher education and helps to collect the best examples for general use. It also addresses strategic questions related to structural challenges at different levels and the dissemination of good practice for quality education.

For this purpose, BIMM brings together human resources, competencies and knowledge in a team of members from different teacher training schools from all over Austria (Financial and Fiscal Commission, 2009). In Austria (in Vienna), the program "Mom Learn German" (Mum Learns German) is designed to involve mothers and their children in language learning. Mothers take German courses in kindergarten or other schools their children attend. Although there is no data on the effect of this practice on student performance, the evaluations on the program show that the program is highly accepted by school administrators, teachers and parents. The program also has a positive impact on the school environment and school-parent communication. The program "Talk sports" aims to improve the German competence of children aged 6-10. With this program, students are given the opportunity to learn German while doing sports at holiday camps. In Austria (Upper Austria; Salzburg), the "Backpack Parents Project" aims to empower mothers as experts in their mother tongue. Parents are invited to the school to learn how their children are being educated and to get materials to educate their children in their mother tongue. Although there is no quantitative evaluation of the evaluation of the project, the content of the interviews with teachers, parents and children showed that the parents were satisfied with the project and the children felt that they learned (United Nations, 1989).

## Estonia

Although Estonia is not recognized as an immigrant country, 15% of its population is of immigrant origin. Immigrant children represent 2% of the total number of children and the majority of immigrants are from

neighboring countries such as Russia, Belarus, Ukraine, Latvia and Finland. There are several programs in Estonia designed to support the special needs of immigrant students. These are programs that provide additional support for teaching immigrant students to Estonian and following individualized curricula. For example, the Language Immersion program, which includes 6,000 students and 1,000 teachers, provides additional Estonian instruction to Russian-speaking students during pre-primary and primary education. The Center for Language Immersion, which had a special curriculum, was established in 2000 to teach Estonian to national minorities. This center implements a language immersion program in schools and kindergartens for national minorities. Since 2004, the number of immigrants coming to Estonia has been increasing and the Language Immersion Center supports the professional development of school personnel who will work with this target group. The main goal in teaching Estonian as a second language is to reach B1 and B2 levels at the end of secondary school. Estonia offers a variety of teachers' competencies in teaching Estonian as a second language.

In order for teachers to have the basic knowledge and skills required to teach in multicultural classrooms, teachers should be informed about multiculturalism in their pre-service education. The language immersion program study conducted by the University of Tartu in 2015 reveals that it is necessary to diversify the Estonian curriculum as a second language in order to meet the language needs of different target groups (including new immigrants). In this study, the Estonian Ministry of Education and Research conducts desk research, surveys and focus group discussions in order to learn the state language effectively as a second language and to understand the related problems in depth. National tests and standardized tests at the end of grades 6, 9 and 12 are available.

The purpose of this practice is to determine to what extent the competencies specified in the national curriculum have been achieved and to receive feedback about the academic success of the student (United Nations, 1948). There are recommended practices for the integration of newly arrived immigrant students into the education system. These practices are based on research data on the language immersion program and successful school practice with immigrant students newly arriving in Estonian schools. Methodological recommendations and examples of best practices are available on the website "Foundation Innove", which include a communicative language teaching approach, task-based teaching and the total physical response language teaching method. Videos of sample lessons and activities with various methods are shown. Learning materials and very specific instructions are provided in a theoretical context. For

example, it has special material available to school staff, explaining what steps to take when a student whose native language is not Estonian joins a class. The steps include what materials (books, stories) can be used in the learning process, what is generally stated so such an evaluation can be made and its effects on school life (Ware, 2002).

## France

It is estimated that the rate of immigrant population to the total population in France in 2008 was 19%. Migrant children represent about 18% of the total number of children. Despite being a unitary state, France grants a lot of autonomy to local education units (known as Rectorats) when it comes to implementing its immigrant child education policy. In France, local education units (Rectorats) have a department responsible for the access of newly arrived students to school. These sections are called CASNAV (counseling and education center for immigrant children). The aim of this section is to coordinate children's education at the local level, to carry out teacher training activities, to prepare the education curriculum, to work in coordination with different institutions, to collect data on the arrival of immigrant children. The classes in which support classes are given for immigrant children in France have existed for forty years. Since 2012, these classes have been called UPE2A (pedagogical units for non-French speaking students who have recently arrived). In these classes, immigrant children are taught French as a second language 9-12 h a week. The number of courses varies according to first language skills and school years. Uneducated children can theoretically take 15 h of lessons per week.

The immigrant education policy of France, since 2012, its teaching is based on the idea of "including"; In other words, although immigrant students enter ordinary classes with other students, they can also attend UPE2A at certain times of the day and week. These policies are enforced only when needed, not automatically in all schools. The criteria depend on the number of children who need French as a second language at each school. The higher the number of immigrant children, the greater the need to open a new UPE2A (Tati, G. 2008).

## Netherlands

Netherlands has a long history of international migration. First and second-generation immigrants make up 20% of the Dutch population, while immigrant children make up about 24% of the total child population. Immigrant groups have a wide variety, mainly European and African.

Although there is no institution that coordinates the general education policy targeting immigrant children, there is a policy called LOWAN (Ondersteuning Onderwijs Nieuwkomers) (support training for newcomers) that regulates educational support for newly arrived migrants, including refugee children. Since the early seventies, the emphasis has been on learning Dutch for immigrant children. These programs depend largely on a language deficit perspective. It consists of classes (called Schakelklas), part-time and full-time, to improve Dutch language proficiency, mostly among immigrant children (Timngum, 2001).

Aiming to reduce the achievement gaps among students, the policy currently focuses on early childhood education and care. All children from the age of four in the Netherlands attend kindergarten, and there are many programs based on kindergartens and/or centers for disadvantaged families and their children between the ages of one and a half two and four. The idea behind these programs is that it is better to take action in advance rather than tackle language failure gaps. Municipalities are responsible for these policies. An example of best practice in the Netherlands is the policy to reduce dropout.

Although this policy is not directly focused on immigrants, the earliest school leavers; the reduction of drop-out has had a significant positive effect on immigrant schooling, as the vast majority are of immigrant backgrounds. In line with the Lisbon Agenda adopted by the Council of Europe in 2000, the Dutch government implemented an ambitious but decentralized plan to reduce the number of leavers. The government invests between 330 and 110 million Euros per year. In the Netherlands, the Samenspel project aims to improve the mother tongue of both the host country and immigrant children.

The target audience of the project is children around the age of three who are isolated from social life and their mothers. Two educators, one native and one immigrant, support language learning with a fun approach. Mothers buy learning materials to practice at home. Students can choose their mother tongue as a second foreign language as part of the curriculum (OECD, 2010).

## Britain

Britain has a long history of international immigration. In 2015, the foreign population in England made up 13% of the total population, and the proportion of children born outside of England and living in England is 8%. While the education of immigrant children remains the responsibility of local governments, the central government is responsible for the implementation and evaluation of the curriculum and the establishment of guidelines. There is



a Standards and Testing Agency under the Ministry of Education in the UK. This agency's aim is to establish an effective and valid testing, evaluation and inspection system to monitor and measure students' progress to the end of the KS2 (national curriculum) in the UK. This agency is responsible for the practices that concern immigrant students in the education system in general. Standards and Testing Agency's general work is to: develop high quality national curriculum tests to meet the requirements of qualifications and examination regulations; support schools to be able to take exams and then manage these exam evaluations; manage teacher evaluation criteria and suggestions; and develop tests for the professional skills of trainee teachers. (Schnepf, 2004)

In 93% of government-run schools in the UK, student assessment system is the National Education Curriculum, which was held in 1988 and underwent a major review in 2014. This curriculum covers three core subjects (English, Mathematics, Science) and seven core subjects. This is a general system for all students that do not allow the achievements of immigrant children to be analyzed relatively. The success criteria are set through the evaluation chart and this situation is standardized at the level. These rubrics are currently available in UK local authorities (Leithwood et al., 2006). The UK focuses on placing students in age-appropriate classes as quickly as possible rather than keeping non-native English students in separate language classes. All teachers are expected to provide immigrant students in regular classrooms with opportunities to develop English as an Additional Language through special curriculum activities. In addition, EAL specialist teachers provide advice and guidance to other subject matter teachers on how to create English language learning opportunities (OECD, 2010).

## Sweden

Sweden is a country with a long history of recruiting economic migrants and refugees. In 2010, 15% of the Swedish population is of immigrant background. The immigrant origin child represents 34.3% of the total number of children and the majority of these children are second and third generation immigrants. Studies on the integration of immigrant children into the education system generally include language teaching and teacher training. The central government makes decisions about education of immigrant children. Studies for the integration of immigrant children into the Swedish school system are generally aimed at training school administrators and teachers for immigrant students, conducting individual need study on students and criticizing resources and materials in line with these

studies. In addition, emphasis is placed on different approaches to the teaching of the Swedish language and developing material for the target audience, and more time and financial resources for language teaching. Swedish education policy follows an unsystematic path and tries out new models with occasional studies and student monitoring. Newcomers (four years in Sweden or classification for shorter students) is accomplished in three steps (this is mandatory) and one of the goals is to place students in the right class.

After classification, students' language development must be traceable and monitored as part of continuing education. Some of these types of studies are: the report prepared by the National Agency in 2008 "Swedish as a second language"; in 2010, "A review report of how schools organize, apply and evaluate Swedish as a second language"; "Report on reviewing the education of newly arrived students" in 2014 (Green, 2003).

The aim of monitoring and evaluating studies is to strengthen the capacity to teach immigrant children the Swedish language and to provide a high-quality education. Legal regulations stipulate that newly arrived students must be tested for their level of knowledge within two months. Next, the head teachers place each student in a suitable classroom with a suitable teacher group. Teacher groups focus on learning Swedish; a teacher with specific skills is directed to a maximum of 10 students. The data obtained as a result of the application are collected by the schools at the request of the National Education Agency and combined by the Agency once a year. These data include the results of teachers' tests and national tests. National tests on Swedish as a second language are conducted at the third grade (9 years old), sixth grade (12 years old) and ninth grade (15 years) levels. Sweden has developed the language teaching curriculum "Swedish as a Second Language" for immigrant children and "Swedish for Immigrants" for adult immigrants. The curriculum prepared for early childhood education and care institutions emphasize that multilingual children should be supported in the development of multi-faceted languages in both Swedish and their mother tongue. Immigrant children in early childhood education and care institutions are entitled to mother tongue support. Immigrant students in compulsory education and high school education are entitled to mother tongue education as a course in the curriculum, if some conditions are met (for example, if the school can have more than 5 students who want to study in that language and teachers who will teach the course). The curriculum covers the literature, history and culture of the country of origin. Grades in these subjects are considered equivalent to those in other courses. Sweden uses the web to reduce logistics and cost-related difficulties while providing native language support; using a based curriculum developed by Modersmal

(modersmal.skolverket.se). This website hosts different native language rooms and provides tools to communicate in different languages. These rooms are available for mother tongue teachers at both early childhood education and school levels carried out by OECD (2010).

### **EDUCATION AND LANGUAGE POLICY APPLICABLE TO IMMIGRANTS IN TURKEY**

People's cultural policy contained in the state's migration towards Turkey takes effect, directly or indirectly. The main backbone of the migration movements started in the first years of the Republic and continued until the 1980s was the Turkish noble coming from the Balkans. Since the immigrants are of Turkish ancestry and culture, the arrangements for immigrants are generally made in areas such as settlement, work and health (Meyer, 2000).

No comprehensive study has been encountered in the field of education. The majority of immigrants before 1980 and especially those in the first years of the republic were given citizenship in a short time. In this way, there was no need for a legal regulation on immigration. The dissolution of the Soviets and the political and social situations in the Middle East are effective in the post-1980 migration movements. After this date, majority of immigrants are turning to Turkey or immigrated to other countries through UNHCR by themselves. A permanent immigration situation was not mentioned. This form of migration movement has not created the need for a permanent and inclusive policy. After 2011, it has been a turning point for migratory movements towards Turkey. The number of immigrants with the most serious in the history of the republic of Turkey is confronted with migration; both migration time as well as migrations from Syria to Turkey. Many legal regulations were needed with this migration movement, which is about 3.5 million and most of them are children of school age. In the first years of the migration movement, due to the view that the duration of migration would be short, the measures taken were generally implemented for health, shelter and meeting basic needs. Policies towards the education of Syrian children were initially developed on the basis of the idea that these people will return to their countries after a short time.

The courses are given with an Arabic curriculum. In this way, it was thought that they would not encounter any problems when they return to their countries. However, after 2013, the turmoil in Syria uncertainty as regards protection continued and the problem of 1 million school-age children compelled them to take comprehensive measures in the field of education the state of Turkey. In this direction, the Ministry of National Education tried to find a solution to the education problems of Syrians with

the circular published on April 26, 2013. The circular titled "Measures against Syrian Citizens Hosted outside the Camps in Turkey" is the first official document published by the Ministry of National Education (MEB, 2013a).

However, with this circular, it is seen that it is about determining and providing the environments where these students can be taught, rather than a study about the content of education. Undoubtedly, this circular is the first step in this regard. Later, on September 26, 2013, a more comprehensive program titled "Education and Training Services for Syrian Citizens under Temporary Protection in Turkey" was issued. The main issues mentioned in the circular include the employment of teachers, the curriculum, and the registration of the students and the teaching of Turkish lessons, which were not mentioned in the circular on April 26 (MEB, 2013b). With this circular, Temporary Education Centers were established, and it was decided to assign Syrian teachers and implement the Arabic curriculum, and they were given to those who wanted Turkish lessons.

When we look at applications for immigrant students in Europe and Turkey, it is seen that Turkey is inadequate in many aspects. The main reason for this situation in Turkey, health studies in particular, is related to being unprepared for international migration and migration stems from shelter and safety precautions in the forefront. In addition, the short expectations regarding the duration of the migration but the prolongation of the migration period contrary to the expectations may be effective. Syrian exodus to Turkey that began in 2011, revealed the unpreparedness of the country in the field of migrant education. These and the like in the case of migration occur again in the present and immigrant children in Turkey are in need of a permanent policy of the country (Leithwood and Riehl, 2003).

### **Legal arrangements made under the migration in Turkey**

Turkey, due to geography, strategy, cultural and political position is faced with important immigration raids in history. Increase in the country's economic power, an affinity for creating migration movements towards Turkey, found that ongoing political instability in the region is another factor that encourages migration towards Turkey. Turkey is seen as a "transit country", and in recent years, the increase in economic strength and stability has made the country a good place to immigrate to by "target countries"; thus there has been increase in immigration. With the outbreak of civil war, 252 people came to Turkey from Syria as refugees. Conflicts have increased exponentially from year to year, with increase in number of Syrians taking refuge in Turkey, and eventually began a mass migration flow. Turkey, migration from the country

to the "Open Door Policy" implemented by the Syrians entering the country has no return; incoming "Temporary Protection Status" is given. There are a total of 25 temporary accommodation centers in 10 provinces in the border regions, and as of November 2017, approximately 228,000 Syrians live in these centers. The common opinion of international organizations that come to and examine temporary accommodation centers is that the service provided in these centers is well above the world standards (Osman, 2009). Prime Ministry Disaster and Emergency Management (AFAD), coordination with other institutions for the services provided temporary accommodation centers and carries out its duty. All the needs of the Syrian refugees are under the coordination of AFAD; It is carried out by the joint efforts of the Ministry of Internal Affairs, Foreign Affairs, Health, National Education, Food, Agriculture and Livestock, Transport and Finance, the General Staff, the Presidency of Religious Affairs, the Under secretariat of Customs and the Red Crescent. Care is taken to ensure that all of the services provided in temporary accommodation centers are under the same conditions and in a similar systematic direction (Rivkin et al., 2005). These immigrants under temporary protection are given the opportunity to apply for a work permit in provinces where they are permitted to stay (TBMM, 2018). In this context, it opens up opportunities for immigrants to find a job.

Entry into the country for all to regulate the migration mobility, exit, residence visa, the 5683 Foreign and regulate processes such as a residence permit Passport Law No. 5682 Law on Residence and Travel in Turkey, is dated 1950, and is inadequate in the face of current issues and developments. Turkey, according to the International Migration Law does not accept people from outside Europe as refugees. Therefore, Syrians who took refuge in Turkey experienced a lot of confusion in determining the legal status and uncertainty about their rights and obligations. It failed to produce a solution to the uncertainty of legal regulations concerning international migration with Turkey's new regulations on behalf of the solution to this problem in accordance to Polat and Körpe (2018). This rationale was made 4/4/2013 in order to meet the needs and solve the current problems. In No. 6458, Foreigners and International Protection Act (yucca) was adopted by the National Assembly and on 04/11/2013 (28615) it was published in the Official Gazette (TBMM, 2018). This law has been the guarantee of the rights of immigrants and those seeking international protection by placing an effective asylum and migration management on a solid legal basis. In this context, the legal framework of immigrant and refugee rights has been aligned with international standards. In addition, in line with this law, the Directorate General of Migration Management aimed to be organized in 81 provinces, 148 districts and abroad. Immigration

Administration General Directorate of Turkey implemented development policies and strategies related to immigration, institutions related to these issues and organizations that provide coordination, entry into Turkey by foreigners and their stay in Turkey, outputs and deportees from Turkey in order to carry on with works and procedures related to international protection, temporary protection and protection of victims of human trafficking.

Immigrants to Turkey through illegal immigration are also immigrants. Turkey is among the countries that harbor irregular migration from Afghanistan, Iraq, Myanmar (Burma), Pakistan, Georgia, Iran, Eritrea and Somalia. Until last year, an average of 50,000 irregular migrants was caught annually, while the number of irregular migrants caught in 2015 was about 146,000 (TBMM, 2018). In this context, the Coordination Board for Combating Irregular Migration (established 2015), Turkey's Irregular Migration Strategy Paper and National Action Plan and the EU-Turkey Readmission Agreement Execution has taken decisions on the establishment of a monitoring mechanism for the National Action Plan, with an establishment of an irregular migration database, and establishment of a monitoring and evaluation mechanism. The Directorate General of Migration Management has been authorized to facilitate the adaptation of foreigners into the country in article 91 of the YUKK. In this context, the Foreign Communication Center (YİMER) was established on 20 August 2015 under the Migration Management Integration Department. It is possible to reach the center, which serves in Turkish, English, Russian and Arabic, at any time of the day. This contact center received over 250 thousand calls and in line with these calls, the lives of 2595 people whose boats were sinking were saved in cooperation with the Coast Guard Command. Owing to the educational arrangements for the education of immigrants before the Syrian civil war and migration wave, No. 2010/48, foreign students were being carried out under the circular. However, as of 2011, due to the increase in the irregular entry of Syrians into the country and gaining a new status by taking them under temporary protection, the said circular became unable to meet the needs. As a result, the Circular on Education - Training Services for Foreigners numbered 2014/21 was issued (Education and Training Services Circular for Foreigners, 2014).

### **Educational integration process of immigrant students in turkey**

It is noteworthy that many of these activities are in the fields of education, since all migration movements affect the education and education policies of the countries. According to the documents, one of the rights that should

be offered to children is the right to education. Education offers important opportunities to heal trauma caused by migration (Hanley and Ackley, 2005).

According to the researches, education problem is one of the most recurring problems among the many problems experienced by immigrant children. The knowledge and skills that immigrants acquire through formal education not only increase their economic income, but also facilitate their adaptation to the country in their newly settled country and reduce the risks they may encounter (Şimşek et al., 2020). Therefore, one of the most basic needs of a child living in a different country as a migrant is to be able to adapt to the country of origin. School is one of the places where this harmony can be achieved in a systematic, orderly, controlled and easy way. In addition to feeling socially and emotionally safe and competent, the child's self-confidence increases.

This also facilitates its adaptation processes. When it comes to integration, the school, family and child must all be ready for harmony. Family and school are also expected to be in a structure that understands the concerns of the child and can support the child by trying to find solutions to these concerns (Uğurlu, 2018) such as adaptation to school, academic compliance, including the student's academic success. This is a comprehensive concept that includes social adaptation, which includes the relationships it establishes with individuals in the school, and behaviora adaptation, which includes behaviors such as obeying the rules at school (Zorbaz and Owen, 2016).

A child's level of success, attendance and attitude in schools shows if they have problematic behaviors or not. While teachers provide environment, structure and support for their students, they should pay attention not only to their emotional well-being and to gain personal positive sensitivities, but also to be positive in social life and intellectually (Holland and Reynolds, 2003).

As mentioned before, school adaptation is mostly dependent on the relationship between the school environment and the child. A number of problems may arise due to incompatibility.

Therefore, the best way for both situations is to evaluate the relationship between the school environment and the change that occurs in the student depending on the school life. Many problematic behaviors, such as violence, bullying, sexual abuse, which are associated with school compliance, occurs when there are problems (Walker and Roberts, 2000). In summary, it can be stated that the precondition of a healthy school environment is evident in students who have adapted to the school. This has been raised as the issue of education by migrant policymakers in Turkey and steps have been taken to ensure that there is development in this area. 2015-2019 Strategic Plan published by Ekinci and Aktaş (2011) discussed education of migrants in Turkey was discussed

in the report and specified harmonization efforts will be made on the education system. It is known that the foundation of acculturation for immigrant children depends on schools and educational environments (Berry, 2015).

Schools and educational environments have an important place in terms of representing the culture that immigrant children have recently encountered. In this context, compliance with the school is a priority task and it is an important part of the cultural transformation process. As mentioned before, different institutions carry out studies on the education of immigrant children. However, it is noteworthy that there is no comprehensive, continuous, flexible and useful educational adaptation program implemented for all immigrant students in the country. However, studies conducted in Turkey, the multicultural structure in schools, reveals the need for educational programs that support and enable intercultural interaction, as well as emphasize the common positive aspects of cultures, that is, facilitate the adaptation of students to school (Özservet and Sirkeci, 2016).

## METHODOLOGY

### Study model

The data constituting the content of the study were obtained using interview technique, which is the basic data collection tool in phenomenological studies. In order to prepare the interview form, first the literature on the subject was examined and the interview form was made ready for application by taking the opinions of the expert academician in order to determine the content validity. The interview form consists of questions prepared for teachers and administrators.

### Universe and sample

Public schools in Turkey are considered as the universe group of the research. In the sample group, middle school teachers and school administrators serving the primary school in Mersin participated in the study. From these teachers, data were collected from 5 school administrators and 7 teachers by random sampling method.

### Data collection tools

The data constituting the content of the study were also obtained using the interview technique, which is the basic data collection tool in phenomenological studies (Şimşek and Yıldırım, 2001). In order to prepare the interview form, the literature on the subject was examined and the interview form was created by working with the consultant and the researcher. The interview form was prepared to be applied to teachers and school administrators separately. In order to determine the content validity of the interview form, it was made ready for application by taking the opinions of the expert academician. The questions and answers in the interview form were

presented in tabular form in the study.

### Data collection

Interview method was used for data collection. Before interviewing the administrators and teachers, the school principals where the teachers worked were interviewed and permission was obtained for the study. After the necessary permissions were obtained, the researcher went to the school the days determined by the school principal and the free course hours of the teachers were determined from the curriculum and notes were taken. Interviews were conducted with the teachers who had free lessons at the determined hours in the teachers' room. The interviews were held in a quiet environment, where the teachers felt comfortable. Administrators and teachers participating in the research were not held under any obligation. The voluntary principle was observed. During the interviews, a tape recorder was used with the permission of the teachers. Together with the voice recorder, important parts were noted during the interviews. Data collection took place in line with the planned period.

### Data analysis

The data were obtained using face to face interview method through semi-structured interview form, which were analyzed by means of content analysis technique. After listening to the audio recordings obtained from the interviews, they were transcribed and the opinions were grouped under similar topics. The opinions were coded and placed under certain categories as a result of the analysis process.

The basic process in content analysis is interpreted by gathering similar data within the framework of certain concepts and themes and arranging them in a way that the reader can understand. In addition, quotations were included in the content analysis to indicate the ideas, subjects and concepts (Şimşek and Yıldırım, 2001).

## RESULTS

Three main themes were created as a result of this study, which was conducted to examine the views of school administrators and teachers on the roles of administrators and teachers in the adaptation of immigrant students to school. The main themes were Adaptation to School theme, "Studies for the adaptation of immigrant students to school"; Academic Problems theme, "Harmony and academic problems of immigrant students at school"; and Solution Proposals theme, "Solution suggestions for the problems encountered in the adaptation of immigrant students to school". Findings of these categories are listed below.

It expresses the opinions of the teachers symbolized by 'Ö' in the table. Under the main theme of Adaptation to School, 5 sub-themes were formed: class equivalence studies, determination of educational needs, determination of readiness levels, Turkish literacy course, and orientation to social activity courses. Under the main theme of Academic Problems, 5 sub-themes were

formed: language problem, equivalence problem, school attendance problem, adjustment and grouping problems and violence problem.

Under the main theme of Suggestions for Solution, 4 sub-themes were formed: suggestions for teachers, suggestions for language problems, suggestions for adaptation problems, and suggestions for communication problems.

According to the common views of the administrators and teachers, the studies to be carried out on the adaptation of immigrant students to the school were stated as determining the needs of the students and the successful completion of the equivalence procedures. It has been determined that every immigrant student should be sent to a Turkish literacy course. According to the opinions given under the theme of academic problems, it was stated that there are many sub-reasons under the academic failure of immigrant students. Some teachers stated that the students did not understand the lessons and could not attend the lessons due to the language problem. It was determined that the solution of the problems determined in the theme of solution proposals was teacher education and information. Some educators have expressed their views on the completion of language learning in private courses before the distribution of immigrant students to schools. The common views of the administrators and teachers who participated in the interviews were stated that language problems of immigrant students increase their academic failures and communication problems. It has been stated that the communication problems of immigrant students who have difficulties in adaptation and grouping have increased.

### Studies on adaptation of immigrant students to school

When the views of school administrators are examined, in the theme of school adaptation, it is seen that the sub-themes of Class Equivalence, Education Needs, Readiness Levels, Turkish Literacy Course, and Social Activity Courses are formed.

Different opinions were expressed on the adaptation studies of immigrant students to the school. While some administrators stated that they are doing level determination studies for such students in their schools, those with different views stated that class placement procedures were carried out with the instructions from the Provincial National Education. It was stated that guiding Turkish literacy courses is one of the important studies carried out to increase the school success of immigrant students. When the opinions of teachers are examined, in the theme of adaptation to school, it is seen that the sub-themes of Class Equivalence, Education Needs,

Readiness Levels, Turkish Literacy Course, and Social Activity Courses are formed.

It was stated that immigrant students being in different classes than their peers caused communication problems in immigrant students, while it was stated that migrant students being in the same class with their peers accelerated their language learning. While analyzing the data, the findings of immigrant students' adaptation to school were divided into sub-themes. It was concluded that social activities and courses are important within the scope of adaptation to the school and the environment in which they live. It was stated that the students who got to know the region they migrated to and participated in social activities adapted faster to the new living conditions. It has been determined that immigrant students who spend their free time in areas such as sports and painting avoid harmful habits.

It has been concluded that the disagreements between students and other individuals who do not see the society they live in will be resolvable. It has been pointed out that in societies with a cosmopolitan nature, communication channels should be kept open in order to reduce conflicts between individuals. In the sub-theme of immigrant students' participation in social activity courses under the theme of adaptation to school, it was concluded that their special abilities and academic success would increase when they were placed in the courses according to their abilities and interests. It is stated that immigrant students who socialize, can recognize the environment they live in and express themselves will become beneficial individuals for the society. Ensuring the unity of immigrants with the local people in almost every field such as education, employment and social areas is also vital in terms of mutual harmony (Tati, 2008).

#### **Adaptation and academic problems of migrant students at school**

When the opinions of teachers are examined, in the theme of academic problems, language problem, school attendance problem, adaptation and grouping problems, violence problem, problems arising from educators are seen to occur.

It was stated that not being able to solve the language problem creates the problem of attending school, so there are adaptation and grouping problems. When the opinions of school administrators are examined, in the theme of academic problems, language problem, school attendance problem, adaptation and grouping problems, violence problem, problems arising from educators occur.

It has been stated that the problems caused by the educators depend on the problems of adaptation and grouping in schools. It has been stated that the problem of violence occurs when all these problems are unsolved.

## **DISCUSSION**

The following results are obtained from the data obtained based on the interviews conducted in the study in which the views of school administrators and teachers were investigated in the adaptation of immigrant students to the school organization. It was stated that the lack of legislation for immigrant students also prevents measures that can be taken against these students. Since there is no legislation for immigrant students, it is stated that students are very absent. It was stated that the failure to follow-up attendance due to lack of legislation affects the learning-teaching process and classroom climate negatively, and other students are affected by such negative examples and engage in similar behaviors. It was stated that different suggestions were made to the language problem of immigrant students. Some of these are stated as planning different activities for these students in the classroom. According to different opinions, these students were directed to language courses before starting school and enrolled in schools after completing their language education. It was stated that the teachers' expressing different views on this issue was due to their unwillingness to spare time for such students in lessons.

It was stated that the authorities should support schools in areas where schools are inadequate, and school administrations should use the existing human, financial and material resources in a functional way in order to create environments in which all children together with immigrant children can have positive educational experiences. It is stated that this purpose can be served with larger and accessible classes, more and more qualified teachers, and an effective school management (Özservet and Sirkeci, 2016).

As a result, it is stated that the impact of immigrant students on future generations is an indisputable fact when the studies conducted are examined and the work we have done is considered. It was stated that every step taken for immigrant students will be beneficial for the social order. It was stated that the schooling rates of immigrant students should increase and they should adapt to the social structure without socializing and grouping among themselves. From past to present Turkey as well as many countries in the region under the influence of the battlefield, the worldwide growing population mobility, it is stated that such countries have various problems. It was stated that economic crises, natural disasters and the resulting forced migration movement affected women, children and young people who were involved in this movement most. It has been determined that immigrants, who have left their families and lives behind them, are trying to create an environment where they can adapt and be accepted in a new social order. Immigrant students are reported to

continue their education in Turkey from where they left. When the conditions of immigrant students were examined, it was determined that there were some problems regarding education and social life.

As a result of this study conducted with the aim of examining the views of school administrators and teachers about the roles of teachers and administrators in adapting immigrant students to school; "studies on the adaptation of immigrant students to school", "the adaptation and academic problems of immigrant students at school" and "solution suggestions for the problems encountered in the adjustment of immigrant students to school" 3 main themes were created. Findings under the main theme of school adjustment are class equivalence studies, determination of educational needs, determination of readiness levels, directing Turkish literacy course and social activity courses as subthemes. Findings determined under the main theme of academic problems are language problem, equivalence problem, school attendance problem, adjustment and grouping problems and violence problem as subthemes. Under the main theme of suggestions for solutions, sub-themes of suggestions for teachers, suggestions for language problems, suggestions for adaptation problems and suggestions for communication problems were determined. The joint decision of the administrators and teachers participating in the study was stated as conducting studies to determine the class equivalence, language problems and educational needs of immigrant students in the process of adaptation to the school. With these studies, it was stated that the opportunities of educators to recognize students individually would increase and it was concluded that teachers could meet the educational needs of immigrant students. It has been determined that the class equivalence procedures are carried out by the provincial directorates of national education. It was stated that the determination of the training needs of the students depends on the degree of sensitivity of the managers to the subject. In other words, it was stated that a small number of schools were evaluated with readiness for exams and special studies were conducted on immigrant students. In this study, it was stated that the language problem negatively affected the classroom environment (Yuksel et al., 2017). It was determined that the academic achievement of immigrant students decreased due to the language problem experienced by them. It is stated that immigrant students experience negativities such as loneliness or tendency to violence due to their inability to express themselves in social environments. Regarding school attendance problem (Zhang and Basar, 2018) stated that the lack of legislation for refugee students prevents the measures that can be taken against these students. It has been determined that the problem arising from the lack of legislation is the problem of absenteeism. It has been

determined that failure to follow-up attendance due to lack of legislation negatively affects the learning-teaching process and classroom management. In his study, Kirk (2014) determined that 22% of Syrian refugees living in Jordan are not interested in school and do not attend school due to lack of legal legislation. These findings listed compliance and grouping problems, problems of violence and problems were caused by the educators (Şimşir and Dilmaç, 2018). According to the results of the research, the main language and communication encountered by foreign students problems are lack of understanding Turkish, not communicating with Turkish friends and teachers not communicating with family. The reason for Turkish students' communication problems is the inability to understand their foreign national friends and the inability to communicate with their foreign national friends. The child who loses his trust in adults, society and institutions around him may think that no one can understand him because of the suspicion and alienation of their experiences (Erden and Gürdil, 2009).

It has been stated that students who cannot speak the language of the society they live in and cannot express their needs and wishes tend to group together and experience violence. It has been stated that these students have a high tendency to group and fight in the school environment. It was stated that if the problem of violence is not resolved, there will be deterioration in the social structure. When the solution suggestions were themed, suggestions for the teacher, language problem, adaptation and communication problems were stated. There is no solution suggestion for the equivalence problem of immigrant students. It has been determined that the equivalence procedures are carried out by the studies of provincial directorates of national education. It was stated that teacher training and informing were the leading solutions to the problems identified. It was stated that teachers should be supported with various trainings in order to increase the sensitivity of teachers and increase their awareness of the subject. Minister of National Education (Selçuk and Yılmaz, 2018) drew attention to the following points in his letter to teachers. In today's world, the value attributed to people is directly proportional to the respect for people, the value and respect given to the institution they work for. When we look at the results of the study investigating the roles of administrators and teachers in the adaptation of immigrant students to school, similar results were obtained with other studies on this subject. According to PISA data, immigrant children who have recently migrated to European countries experience difficulties in education due to reasons such as learning a new language, adapting to the social and cultural structure of the host country and not being able to recognize the school system (Ereş, 2015). Sezgin and Yolcu (2016) stated that social, cultural and sports activities to be

carried out with immigrant students will be beneficial for the integration of the cultures of both countries and for the solution of problems. In this study, it was stated that social activities and classroom activities aimed to strengthen the harmony of immigrants and other students with each other.

Migration and education are reported to be interdependent phenomena with sub-dimensions. It has been stated that the skills to be given to the individual through education play an important role in the life of the individual in his new country. It has been stated that the education will enable the immigrant to adapt to the country of residence in a shorter time. In this context, education politicians and planners should focus on migrant children's access to education, participation in education and learning outcomes within the scope of diversity management (Ereş, 2015). In this study, the disorders that immigrant children who have not received education will create in the social structure in the future are stated. It has been stated that individuals who have not received sufficient education and are not settled in a certain job can be restless and aggressive in society. In addition, in both studies, the result of the dissemination of in-service training to increase teachers' sensitivity to the subject was stated. It was stated that increasing the quality of in-service training will increase teachers' willingness to participate in such training (Black, 1998). As a result, it is stated that the impact of immigrant students on future generations is an indisputable fact when the studies conducted are examined and the work done is considered. It was stated that as the participation rate of students in this situation increases, the positive change in the structure of the society will be one of the positive changes observed in the school climate. It was concluded that in order for the studies to be sustainable, the school attendance problems of immigrant students should be resolved first. In the second stage, it was stated that teachers should organize their learning environments by taking into account the characteristics of immigrant students. It was stated that the activities organized should be planned at a level that will improve the social academic success of the students together with the immigrant students. During these exhausting studies, it was determined that teachers should be strengthened professionally and personally with in-service work. It was stated that in-service work should be done by planned, serious, regular and expert trainers (Ware, 2002).

## Conclusion

The education rights of students who for whatever reason has to change their city and country, must be protected. It was stated that immigrant students should achieve academic success and impose themselves in the society.

The profession group that has the biggest role in studies in this field is teachers. When adequate support is provided to teachers, immigrant students' adaptation to school and the future will be achieved successfully, and permanent solutions are brought to the language problem of immigrant students and the problem of school attendance.

## CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author has not declared any conflict of interest.

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*Full Length Research Paper*

# **Graduates' Employability: Has the Expansion of the University Sector in Uganda improved Employment Prospects for Graduates? 'Employers' and Lecturers' Perspective'**

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Given the increasing private and public cost of university education, households and nations are getting more interested in that type of education which has high potential for employment. This study explores how the expansion of the university sector in Uganda is related to graduates' employability. The study was guided by three objectives, namely: To find out whether expansion of the university sector in Uganda is related to available options of employment for graduates; To establish whether the expansion of the university sector in Uganda is related to adequacy of skills which graduates need in the world of work; To examine whether the expansion of the university sector in Uganda is related to the duration which graduates take before getting employed after graduation. Mainly relying on the constructivist research paradigm, the study used a cross sectional and correlational research design. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were used in data collection and data analysis. Using a questionnaire and interviews, data were collected from 244 university lecturers, 9 Deans of Faculty, 18 Heads of Department, and 9 Human Resource Managers who represented employers. The study found out that expansion of the university sector in Uganda has a relationship with options for employment of graduates in the world of work. The expansion of the university sector in Uganda is associated with adequacy of skills for employment which are acquired by university graduates. These findings also show that expansion of the university sector in Uganda is related to the duration which graduates take to get employment after graduation.

**Key words:** Expansion, university sector, graduates' employability, labour markets.

## **INTRODUCTION**

A university is a place where teaching and learning take place, theories are developed, debates are carried out and new knowledge is generated (Altbach and Levy, 2005; Duderstadt, 2009). Universities generate knowledge

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through research; they serve as conduits for the transfer, adaptation and dissemination of knowledge generated elsewhere in the world and they support government programmes. University education is viewed as having the potential to contribute to economic and social development as well as poverty eradication in the developing countries (World Bank, 2015; Bräutigam and Xiaoyang, 2014). The link between extra qualification and development is guided by the human capital theory advanced by Schultz (1972) and further developed by scholars such as Becker (1993), Nafukho et al. (2004) and Tan (2014). The human capital theory suggests that education leads to the acquisition of productive skills, knowledge and other attributes which are of economic value not only to individuals who get high life time earnings, but also to nations which benefit in terms of growth in Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Therefore, university education should equip graduates with productive skills which should increase graduates' prospects for employment and earning and they should be able to make a measurable economic contribution to national wealth.

Expansion of the University Sector in Uganda is characterized by the increase in the demand and supply of university education. This increase in the demand and supply of university education is indicated by the rise in the number of students looking for university places. For instance, statistics from the Ministry of Education and Sports in Uganda indicate that total enrolment in Universities increased from 57,114 in 2002 to 345,000 in 2016 (MoES, 2018). On the other hand there is an increase in the number of public universities from 3 in 2002 to 9 in 2019 and private universities are currently 43 (NCHE, 2018). However, there is concern that growth in university provision in Uganda has not been efficient at producing graduates who are relevant to the Ugandan labour market. This has contributed to the relatively high levels of unemployment currently at 9.2% with females being the most unemployed at 14% while males are at 6% (UBOS, 2020). This means that as the university sector in Uganda expands, all stakeholders need to consider those university inputs such as facilities, teaching and non-teaching human resources as well as academic programs which increase employment prospects of graduates.

## LITERATURE ON GRADUATES' EMPLOYABILITY

Employability is defined as the ability to find, keep and progress in graduate employment and this ability is determined by individual factors, environmental factors and labour market considerations (Behle, 2020). On the other hand, Knight and Yorke (2003) define employability

as a set of achievements, skills, understanding and professional attributes which make graduates more likely to gain employment and be successful in their chosen occupations. The link between university education and graduate employability in Uganda dates back to the founding of Makerere University in 1922 (Hayward, 2006). Makerere University was established as a technical college to serve students from the British East African territories of Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania (Cloete et al., 2011; NCHE, 2016; Kasozi, 2016). At the initial stage of university education in Uganda, the concern was to train graduates in practical skills of carpentry, building and mechanics and when the university expanded, other courses in medical care, agriculture, veterinary sciences, and teacher training were introduced (Ssekamwa, 1997; Kasozi, 2016; Muwagga, 2011). Graduates who went through this training had higher prospects for employment because they had acquired practical skills which were related to the immediate work environment.

With the growing demand for university education in Uganda, in the 2<sup>nd</sup> half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, more students have enrolled in Ugandan universities, and more public and private universities have been established. Besides the public universities, currently there are 39 private universities offering both undergraduate and graduate programmes (NCHE, 2010; MoES, 2018). With this expansion in the university education sector, studies on the quality of university education in Uganda have mainly been done by the NCHE which was established in 2001. These studies have all aimed at creating quality assurance models for universities so that all public and private universities in Uganda provide relevant education which meets the labour market demands of the nation by ensuring graduate employability and productivity (NCHE, 2010).

Available literature suggests that issues of graduates' employability and graduates' earnings are taking a central stage in university education. This is because the private and social costs of university education are rising faster than the available private and public resources (Johnstone, 2008; Psacharopoulos and Patrinos, 2018). This suggests that households and government should make choice of those types and levels of education which have high economic value. Studies have suggested that many Ugandan graduates lack *employable skills* such as communication skills, problem solving, creativity, honesty and integrity, being punctual, taking responsibility, team working, being self-motivated and having a good attitude to work which make most of them failed job interviews or lost their jobs in the first few months of employment (IUCEA, 2014). Therefore, universities need to focus on those factors which enhance employability of the graduates in the labour

market; earnings attracted by the graduates of the different qualifications; and productivity of the graduates at the work place (Gibbs, 2010; Elinor and Mariana, 2010).

In this study, graduate employability was indicated by the availability of options for graduates' employment, adequacy of skills which graduates take to the world of work, and the duration which it takes graduates to get employed after graduation. The study was guided by the following objectives:

1. To find out whether expansion of the university sector in Uganda is related to available options of employment for graduates.
2. To establish whether the expansion of the university sector in Uganda is related to adequacy of skills which graduates need in the world of work?
3. To examine whether the expansion of the university sector in Uganda is related to the duration it takes graduates to be employed after graduation.

## METHODOLOGY

### Research design

Relying on both the positivist and post-positivist research paradigms, the mixed methods approach was used to collect data for the study. A cross-sectional and correlational survey design was followed to collect data using a self-administered questionnaire distributed to university lecturers. Interviews and focus group discussions were also done with university Deans of Faculty, Heads of Department and Human Resources Managers from selected employers. The cross-sectional and correlational survey design was preferred for this study because it is an appropriate measure for relationships between the variables of investigation (Warner, 2013; Krysk and Finn 2007). Besides allowing for measuring of relationships, the cross-sectional and correlational designs also allowed addition of alternative sources of data from Deans of Faculty, Heads of Department and Human Resource Manager from employer companies.

### Population and sampling

The target population for this study included 723 University Lecturers, 20 Deans of Faculty, 100 heads of department. This population was from 3 selected public universities in Uganda. The study also relied on a population of 25 companies which constitute the most common employment destinations in Uganda (UBOS, 2015).

The sample of 280 respondents was selected and considered appropriate for this study because following the Yamane's (1967) formula of sample size determination suggested by (Israel, 2009) thus:

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

Where  $n$  is the sample size,  $N$  is the population size and  $e$  is the margin of error for this study; 0.005 was used. Therefore, from the population size of 826 computations following the formula gives the sample size of 296, and thus the size of 280 respondents is justifiable when one factor in the margin of error is +/- 0.05.

From Table 1, following Yamane's formula of sample size determination, this study relied on a sample of 280 respondents out of 723 university lecturers. For the Deans, Heads of Departments and Employers, convenience sampling was used because information required from them was meant to corroborate and triangulate information from the lecturers.

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A five – level likert scale survey was used to collect data from 244 university lecturers on their evaluation of the relationship between expansion of the university sector and graduates' employability in the Ugandan Labour Market. It was measured by three indicators, namely; available options for graduates' employment; adequacy of skills for graduates' employment; and duration graduates take to get employment.

Data collected from lecturers were coded in SPSS and analyzed. The Spearman Correlation ( $r_s$ ) was used to establish the direction and magnitude of the relationship between expansion of the university sector and graduates' productivity in the Ugandan Labour Market. This method was preferred because data collected were on an ordinal scale fulfilling the assumptions of the Spearman Correlation analysis (Rashidghalam and Heshmati, 2019; Kossowski and Hauke, 2011). The findings of the study are presented and analyzed according to three research hypotheses drawn from the three objectives of the study in Table 2.

**Hypothesis One (H01):** There is no association between expansion of the university sector and available options for graduates' employment in the Ugandan Labour Market.

Findings in Table 2 indicate that expansion of the university sector in Uganda is significantly associated with available options for employment with  $r_s = 0.996$  with a p-value of 0.001. This means that from the lecturers' point of view expansion of the university sector in the country should happen with increased options for employment. Therefore, from the findings there is evidence to reject the null hypothesis (H0) that there is no association between expansion of the university sector and options for graduates' employment in the country. These findings are also confirmed by an interview with one Human Resource Manager who had the following to say:

**Table 1.** Population size and sample size.

Target category	Population size	Sample size	Sampling method
University Lecturers	723	244	Simple Random Sampling
Deans of Faculty	20	9	Purposive Sampling
Heads of Department	100	18	Purposive Sampling
Employment Destinations	25	9	Purposive Sampling

**Table 2.** Correlations between expansion of the university sector and graduates employability in Uganda.

IV: Expansion of the university sector	$r_s$	p-value
DV1: Available options for employment	0.996	0.001
DV2: Adequacy of skills for employment	0.868	0.000
DV3: Duration graduates take to get employment	0.604	0.001

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*'The major functions of a university are teaching, research, and community engagement. Universities in Uganda need to provide a conducive environment with good facilities in order to enable lecturers achieve those functions and provide university education which is necessary for socio-economic development. However, issues of congested lecture rooms, lack of up to date text books, and lack of equipment in the science laboratories are a hindering factor for students to learn and acquire those skills required by employers. Well trained and appropriately skilled graduates should have wider options for employment'* (HRD, 12<sup>th</sup> June 2019).

The statement by the Human Resource Manager is supported by one Dean of Faculty who said that:

*'Budget constraints and deficiencies in universities greatly affect timely delivery of study programmes as it limits resources such as human resources, laboratories and libraries. However, efforts are being made to bridge the gap by bringing together interested parties who help to bridge staffing level gaps by recruiting lecturers on part time basis. Programmes are well prepared with the aim of equipping learners with the expected skills needed in the world of work. However, the absorption of graduates mainly focuses on production rather than manufacture. No machines and equipment are made locally most are generally imported. There is no research industry which would help graduates to improve on the acquired skills and enable improve their skills while on the job. It was also noted that rapid transformation of the HE sector brought in many programmes and many students yet the*

*staffing levels have not improved which limits attention to students and professional support. This in the long run limits the knowledge and skills which graduates take to the world of work* (Dean of Faculty, 28<sup>th</sup> June 2019).

From the above findings it is evident that the expansion of the university sector has a relationship with options for employment in the world of work. Universities should prepare academic programs and equip graduates with skills which open them up for employment prospects.

**Hypothesis Two (H02):** There is no relationship between the expansion of the university sector in Uganda and adequacy of skills for employment acquired by the University graduates.

The findings in Table 2 show that according to the university lecturers opinion, expansion of the university sector in Uganda is significantly related to adequacy of skills required for employment with  $r_s = 0.868$  and with a p-value of 0.000. These findings mean that expansion in the university sector should provide for increased skills for employment by university graduates. There is therefore evidence to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis that expansion of the university sector in Uganda is associated with adequacy of skills for employment which are acquired by university graduates.

The above findings are also supported by information got from one of the interviewed Head of Academic Department who noted that:

*'The way lecturers approach students should emphasize*

*ethical and moral values required in the world of work. Universities have been transformed due to liberalization of the higher education sector. This has affected the ways that lecturers use to approach students. There is limited emphasis on the moral values and ethical issues that graduates need to take to the places of employment. There is great need to consider how organizational structures such as regulations, policies, norms, cultures and structural routines have been established to guide the conduct of both students and lecturers in the universities to equip graduates with those values desired in the world of work' (HOD, June 2019).*

On the other hand, another interview with a Human Resource Manager shows that:

*Universities need to create a conducive learning environment with sufficient facilities which will enable learners to acquire practical skills which are needed by employers. Learners should be helped to develop the capability to compete and win on the labour market, perform well on the job and work in various locations. They should be helped to know that the world of work is highly competitive and students look at higher education as preparation to obtain a better position in the highly competitive labour market. Therefore, universities should endeavor to provide facilities which match the status of employing companies if students are to be confident and impress when they are in employment (HRD, November 16<sup>th</sup>, 2019).*

The above findings also indicate that as the university sector expands, it should put into consideration the fact that there is need to improve teaching and acquisition of skills needed from graduates by employers. Universities need to continuously interact with the employers in order to know what kind of skills which needed in the world of work.

**Hypothesis Three (H03):** There is no relationship between expansion of the university sector in Uganda and the duration which graduates take to get employed after they graduate.

The findings in Table 2 show that there is a significant relationship between expansion of the university sector in Uganda and the duration which graduates take to get employment with  $r_s = 0.604$  and with a p-value of 0.001. These findings indicate that expansion of the university sector in Uganda affects the duration which graduates take to get employment. There is therefore evidence to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis that expansion of the university sector affects the duration which graduates take to get employed.

Concerning the reasons why many graduates take long to get employment after graduation, one of the interviewed Human Resource Managers suggested that:

*Recent graduates expect quick and easy pay, they expect to work only in executive offices, they do not expect to do any hard work, they are not innovative and they always wait for the supervisor to tell them what to do. This is the reason most of them stay long before they get employment; in some cases when they get chance they don't stay long in the company. In this company we need multi-tasked individual who can adjust to any calls and are willing to learn. Probably their study environments emphasized specialization which is not achievable today where companies have limited resources yet they must achieve results if they have to survive in the competitive industry (HRD, November 19<sup>th</sup>, 2019).*

However, one of the Deans of Faculty who was interviewed gave a ray of hope on graduate employment that:

*I think government in this country has realized that university education should benefit parents, students and the country. This is why university administrators are on intense pressure from NCHE and from Government to restructure their programmes and weed out those courses that do not have direct career paths. I think you have seen that newly created universities are under instruction to specialize in specific fields such as agriculture, vocational, business and science and technology and some courses which used to be stand alone are proposed to be course units to be taught to all students. This will help recent graduates to get employment because they will have skills which are immediately required in the world of work (Dean of Faculty, November 16<sup>th</sup>, 2019).*

These findings also show that expansion of the university sector in Uganda is related to the duration which graduates take to get employment after graduation. From the employers' perspective graduates personal attributes contribute to how easily they can get employment. On the other hand, from the perspective of university administrators, reviewing of academic programmes in universities is meant to ensure that what happens in the university relates to the world of work and increases employment options for graduates.

## Conclusion

1. The expansion of the university sector in Uganda has a

relationship with options for employment of graduates in the world of work. Universities should prepare academic programs and equip graduates with skills which open them up for many employment prospects.

2. The expansion of the university sector in Uganda is related with adequacy of skills for employment which are acquired by university graduates.

3. These findings also show that expansion of the university sector in Uganda is related to the duration which graduates take to get employment after graduation.

## Recommendations

1. In order to benefit from the growth of the university sector, universities need to prepare academic programmes which equip graduates with skills and competencies which open them up for different employment options.

2. In order for employers to benefit from the expansion of the university sector, universities need to continuously interact with employers in order to know what kind of skills are needed in the world of work. Universities will then emphasize those skills in order to enable their graduates be competitive in the world of work.

3. As the university sector grows in Uganda, lecturers need to emphasize to graduates the need to work on their personal attributes such as confidence, communication and social skills which are highly needed in the world of work.

## CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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