Ruaha Catholic University Journal of Education and Development (RUCUJED)

Faculty of Education

Editorial Note

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Editor-in-Chief

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Education Stakeholders' Perceptions on the Status of External School Quality Assurance in Enhancing Teaching and Learning in Kaskazini Region, Zanzibar

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Abstract

This study investigated the education stakeholders' perceptions of the status of external school quality assurance in enhancing teaching and learning in the Kaskazini Region, Zanzibar. A qualitative study with a case study design was used. The study data was collected through in-depth interviews and documentary reviews. The findings indicate that the External School Quality Assurers were negatively affected by many difficulties, such as the incompetence of External School Quality Assurers caused by a lack of in-service training programs to update External School Quality Assurers' skills. Similarly, there was insufficient allocation of budget to carry out External School Quality Assurance practices effectively. The same challenges jeopardize External School Quality assurers' status and make them less effective in enhancing teaching and learning processes. Hence, the government should upgrade the status of External School Quality assurers and the quality of teaching and learning in secondary schools by strengthening the External School Quality assurers in terms of resources, profession and authority.

Keywords: External School Quality Assurance, External school Quality Assurers, School Quality Assurance, Teaching and Learning

1.0 Introduction

Globally, the school quality assurance (SQA) unit has been thought to be a forward step to ensure the improvement of quality education in schools (Adewale, 2014). Thus, it has been advocated that quality assurance (QA) can play an important role in the education system (Hossain, 2017). SQA, out of the school system, is supervised by the external school quality assurers (ESQA) from the External School Quality Assurance (ESQA) Department. ESQA is the process undertaken by ESQ assurers to help schools gauge the quality of education for school development, including teaching and learning (MoEST, 2017).

ESQ assurers are expected to enhance education effectiveness and efficiency by working in collaboration with teachers and schools (Kashyap, 2022). In the case of Zanzibar, the quest for having quality education has always been the dream and can be traced back to soon after independence. After the Revolution in 1964, among the laws and Acts that were passed by the government, the most important one was the Education Act No. 6 of 1982 (MoEVT, 2018a), which led to the establishment of SQA by the name of School Inspectorate.

The new Education Act No. 10 of 2018 on SQA directed the establishment of the Government Agency known as the Office of the Chief Inspectorate of Education [OCIE] (MoEVT, 2018). The declaration of the OCIE in Zanzibar requires that ESQ assurers visit and observe all schools that they comply with the Ministry of Education's guidelines so that the education standards and quality are met (OCIE, 2018). To play their role effectively, the ESQ assurers need special requirements and skills specific to their job (Etindi, 200). However, the works of literature discovered that there is no SQA training that has been given before their appointment and no

specialized qualification is required (Kiruma, 2013; Mwinyipembe & Orodho 2014). Also, there is no special course of SQA provided in the colleges of education in Zanzibar. It should be noted that the position of ESQ assurers is currently not an official post.

Rather, ESQ assurers are appointed without any special criteria and standard of recruitment (Ololube & Mojor, 2013). Instead, the enrolment chosen among classroom teachers, HoSs and Teacher Advisory Centre (TAC) tutors (Mmbando & Hongoke, 2010). This is usually based on length of service but no application or interview procedure. There is no sufficient allocation budget to carry out ESQA practices effectively (Matete, 2009). Thus, based on this scenario, it was important to investigate the education stakeholders' perceptions of ESQA's status in enhancing teaching and learning in Zanzibar. The continued lack of empirical evidence on the ESQA status on improving instruction may jeopardize the students' learning in terms of their academic achievement. The key question in this study was: what is education stakeholders' perception of ESQA status in enhancing teaching and learning in Zanzibar?

2.0   Literature Review

ESQA has been playing a great role in the enhancement of teaching and learning and thus contributes very much to improving teaching and learning and eventually upgrading students' academic performance (Lupimo, 2104). It assists in the improvements of the quality of teaching and learning by monitoring the instructional processes in schools and guiding teachers to achieve higher standards of teaching (Kambuga & Dadi, 2015; OCIE, 2018). However, for the ESQ assurers to play their role effectively, they require special skills specific to their job (Etindi, 2000). It should be born in mind that it might be difficult to carry out SQA

practices and make supervision of instruction if a person is not competent in the SQA field (Kirume, 2013).

In that regard, therefore, ESQ assurers should be competent and knowledgeable in at least two or more subjects' areas (Matete, 2009). In that context, the recruitment of ESQ assurers should be done by the specific set of criteria (Mwinyipembe & Orodho 2014). Ololube and Major (2014) revealed that in Nigeria, there was no clear policy for identifying suitable candidates to be recruited as ESQ assurers and so many unsuitable personnel did find their way into the ESQA thereby rendering the integrity of the entire system questionable. To make them function effectively, ESQ assurers should be given the required in-services training to empower them to reach the appropriate level of conducting supervision and to meet the challenges of supervising instructional practice in the school context (Kiruma, 2013).

MoVTZ (2011) stated that there are written procedures regarding the ESQA roles and responsibilities, but clear lines of authority are lacking. It has been reported that ESQ assurers are often unable to make decisions on matters on SQA without consulting authorities, who may have little or no knowledge of the situation or school (Eya & Chukwu, 2012). Olalube and Major (2014) discovered that the ESQA in Nigeria lacked the autonomy to execute its services and, as a result, it was unable to implement recommendations based on ESQA processes. Also, they did not seem to be fulfilled with their work conditions. Mmbando and Hongoke (2010) and Lupimo (2014) found out that there was a lack of human and financial resources and, a transport problem. Again, a very insignificant budget was seen as the main hindrance to regular school QA visits. On top of that, as it was noted, the lack of authority of the ESQ

assurers to penalize schools was playing a notable role in irregular school visits. These challenges have been noted to affect the regular and efficient SQA in different parts of the country.

3.0 Materials and Methods

A qualitative approach and a case study design were used to get in-depth data on the education stakeholders' perception of ESQA status as a tool to enhance teaching and learning in secondary schools. An interpretivist philosophical paradigm was used to understand education stakeholders' perceptions regarding their understanding of ESQA status in enhancing teaching and learning. The study was conducted at Kaskazini Region in Unguja, Zanzibar. The region was chosen because in four years consecutively teaching and learning had not yet improved even though it applied ESQA (Ali, 2015, 2019, 2021). It was also reported that classroom supervision and observations were being inappropriately carried out by both ESQ assurers and HoSs in this region (Office of the Chief Inspectorate of Zanzibar, 2019).

The study used a purposive sampling technique to select participants, out of whom, 11 were EQAs, 12 were the HoSs, 1 REO and 2 DEOs. An in-depth interview was used to learn the participants' perspectives, experiences, and the world they live in (Abawi, 2014). The major advantage of using this method is that there is greater flexibility as the opportunity to restructure questions is always there (Kothari, 2004). The weaknesses of this method include its tendency to consume time (Abawi, 2014) and the bias of the interviewer in interpreting questions (Cohen & Morrison, 2007). The interviews were conducted through negotiation based on each respondent's convenient time. In the documentary review, the researcher reviewed documents related to the themes of the study such

as the number of Quality Assurers and their qualifications, the number of the ESQ Assurers' office, ESQA resources, ESQA forms, Office of the Chief Inspector under the Education Act No. 10 of 2018 of the SQA. In addition to that, different journal articles and academic reports were read to gain a deeper understanding of the SQA.

According to Shoba (2009), the analysis of documents provides valuable information that fills the gaps that might have been left by other data collection instruments, such as interview guides. However, it may also be biased and time-consuming (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2018). Thematic analysis procedures were adopted to analyze the qualitative data from the interview as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006). The data were analysed thematically along the study's objective and presented in narrative forms. All research ethics were observed including obtaining the research clearance. Informed consent was observed by making sure that honest and detailed explanations of the purpose of the study were adhered to and that plagiarism was avoided by paraphrasing or giving quotations and acknowledging the sources of the information used.

4.0   Results

Participants were asked about their perceptions of ESQ Assurer's status in enhancing teaching and learning in Zanzibar. The question was: what are the education stakeholders' perceptions of ESQ Assurers' status in enhancing teaching and learning in secondary schools? The following are the categories and themes which education stakeholders perceive to be ESQ Assurers' status.

4.1 Perception of Professional Skills

This study sought to know whether the ESQ Assurers were competent enough in their supervision approach and if they were well-qualified and knowledgeable in helping teachers to develop teaching materials, knowledge of guidance and counselling and knowledge of the subject content and teaching methods. Regarding this, the participants gave the following comments. Specifically, one school head had this to say:

> *Without training, ESQ Assurers will not match with the changes taking place in the education system. If they will not be aware of the educational changes, it is obvious that they will not be competent in their responsibilities at SQA. I suggest that the Ministry of Education provide relevant in-service training for quality assurers to keep them up to date* (Interview with the HoS, School A, 5th June, 2021).

This observation was also made by the DEOs, who claimed that many ESQ Assurers and the HoSs lacked the knowledge and skill involved in instructional supervision because they were not professionally competent. This is because the criteria for selecting ESQ Assurers and HoSs were not pursued by the authority. It was noted that most of them were not knowledgeable of administrative responsibilities and even instructional leadership in particular. On this particular aspect, during the interview session, one of the DEOs complained that:

> *The accountability of ESQ Assurers and HoSs is below the standards. Their administrative ability is not good since they are not provided with leadership training. The standards used for recruiting the HoSs and the ESQ Assurers are not appropriate. The majority of HoSs and ESQ Assurers and even some of us lack this quality of being efficiently competent. There are no fixed criteria for appointing the HoSs and ESQ*

> *Assurers. This is why the quality of education in Zanzibar has been declining from day-to-day* (Interview with DEO₃, 5th June, 2021).

It was further learnt that ESQA training was lacking since many ESQ Assurers were incompetent in their job. This situation was found to hinder the instructional supervision process as well as teaching and learning. On this, one school head gave the following explanations:

> *ESQ Assurers have difficulties in being conversant with contemporary issues in teaching. They also lack adequate knowledge of subject content and methods they supervise. This can be explained by the fact that their pre-service training did not cover supervision knowledge and skills. These officers are not confident to supervise teachers who are academically higher than them* (Interview with HoS, School J, 4th July, 2021).

In the same line of argument, the other school head argued that:

> *There is also a sense among some teachers and HoSs that status is affected because some ESQ Assurers lack academic qualifications. ESQ assurers must be more highly qualified than teachers, to give them respect and status* (Interview with the HoS, School C, 4th July, 2021).

Based on the above quotations, the implication is that some of the ESQ assurers have unsatisfactory knowledge and skills in the instructional supervision. They supervise only as a part of their responsibilities. This leads to failure in helping HoSs and teachers. It was noted that ESQ Assurers had inadequate technical competency and knowledge of instructional supervision. In addition, it was discovered that the

recruitment of the ESQ Assurers was below standard, because there were no predetermined criteria or qualities used in selecting ESQ Assurers as professional quality assurers. This may consequently hinder the quality of the teaching and learning process.

4.2   Perceptions of Authority

This study sought to know whether the ESQ assurers had the full authority to make decisions for teachers and schools or to dominate all the equipment, trip training and school visits. On this, the participants had the following comments. To begin with, the ESQ Assurer$_2$ had these to say:

> *We have no legal authority over teachers. Sometimes, teachers go straight to the Ministry of Education and complain and decisions are made to omit the ESQ Assurers. These demoralize us. For an ESQ Assurer to be effective, we need the authority to exercise what we feel is good for the school* (Interview with the ESQ Assurer$_2$, 5th July, 2021).

In the same line of argument, another ESQ Assurer said:

> *When we present our reports to the authorities concerned, we expect that they should take immediate action. For example, the educational officers such as REO and DEOs and the general secretary from the MoEVT are supposed to take action because we [ESQ Assurers have no authority to punish anybody* (Interview with the ESQ Assurer$_1$, 5th July 2021).

On the other hand, the study findings depicted that some of the ESQ Assurers had low salaries and this was affecting their status as there was a shortage of human resources. On this issue, one ESQ Assurer had these to comments:

> *Since salaries in Zanzibar are determined by academic qualifications, there are frequent cases where the ESQ assurers earn less than some of the HoSs and teachers. Lack of academic qualifications, thus severely undermines status, and consequently authority in the ESQA department* (Interview with the ESQ Assurer4, 5th July 2021).

Based on the previous quotation, indicates that the opinion of ESQ Assurers and many other education stakeholders was that for ESQ Assurers to become successful agents of change in schools, their authority must be unquestioned, upheld and supported throughout the education system but within the legal framework to avoid absolute freedom.

4.3   Perception of ESQ Assurers' Working Conditions

The research further portrayed that the ESQ Assurers were faced with a great deal of limitations, which were constraining their support towards accomplishing the issue of quality instructional practices. It was realized that the ESQ Assurers' Department experiences very deprived working conditions; this is one of the problems which inhibit the ESQ Assurers' efforts. For example, the ESQ Assurers at Kaskazini Region always depended upon commuter buses when they needed to reach their offices. The worst thing is that many of them have offices, located in town areas, while they were living in rural areas. This was a serious problem for them since they had no enough money for that. One ESQ Assurer justified this fact as follows:

> *The ESQ Assurers have no any kind of motivation. We are considered as teachers. There is neither transport allowance nor commission given. We work unwillingly and thus the efficacy is not achieved. The type of transport we use to go to*

> *our offices is a bit hard. We pay the bus fare using our salaries*
> (Interview with the EQ Assurer$_2$, 5th July, 2021).

Likewise, the ESQ Assurers justified that they used to visit schools without being given allowances. This shows that there was a poor allocation of resources particularly in tax collection. In addition, motivation or recognition was not considered important. This condition led to a lot of inconveniences for them. Thus, this evidence reveals why the ESQ Assurers were persistently receiving much blame from teachers and other education stakeholders for their habit of focusing more on administrative issues and teachers' working tools and neglecting to carry out classroom observation. In that case, they used to assess the school's performance by the few aspects of their interest only. The other ESQ Assurer said the following to verify this issue:

> *We [ESQ Assurers] earn very little salary. We overwork, but we don't get any allowance. We are not offered even a bottle of water. Our tool makes our hosts inhospitable, and therefore we work all day long while starving. The training offered for both HoSs and ESQ Assurers is insufficient. Most of the HoSs are not accountable enough for their responsibilities. Besides, they have low skills in issues related to administration* (Interview with the ESQ Assurer$_5$, 5th July, 2021).

On the contrary, the study results showed that human resources were scarce. Clarifying this issue, the ESQ Assurers highlighted that the number of schools did not collocate with the number of the ESQ Assurers. It was found that the small number of ESQ Assurers affected negatively the usual school visits. About this issue, one ESQ Assurer had the following to explain:

> *The basic inspection is conducted by three ESQ Assurers but they are not enough, and when we offer our suggestions, no one is listening to us. The entire school visit is done in three days, but they are not enough. It is a big load for us. Two days are meant for inspection and on the third day, we call a meeting with the administrative committee to discuss and draw a conclusion, and the DEOs are supposed to attend such a meeting but they normally do not attend* (Interview with the EQ Assurer4, 5th July, 2021).

In line with the above comment, the district education officer's point of view also confirms that school inspectors were very few to have an impact on instructional issues. One of the two DEOs commented:

> *We [DEOs] have ten ESQ Assurers in the Kaskazini Region. Three of them went for further studies. No one may expect ten ESQ Assurers to be precise and efficient when doing ESQA practices in both secondary and primary schools. It is unknown whether these ESQ Assurers make classroom observations or not, since in an actual sense, it is very hard for them to walk around all the classrooms and discuss with every single teacher* (Interview with the DEO2, 28th June, 2021).

The above quotations portray clearly how ESQ Assurers were discouraged by the poor working conditions. It is not expected for someone with financial problems and full of despair, and who has no optimism about the future of their own family, to fulfil their responsibilities to a required standard or to work efficiently. It was also discovered that deprived working conditions faced by the ESQ Assurers hindered the SQA practices in schools. Their working condition was extremely bad to the extent that they failed to perform their key duties in

monitoring and enhancing the quality and desirable standards of instructional practices in schools. According to these circumstances, the rank of ESQ Assurers was hardly recognized by the educational stakeholders. These issues were hindering improvement in instructional practices.

5.0   Discussion of the Findings

The findings indicated that ESQ Assurance status was still questionable since the study discovered that ESQ Assurers had inadequate technical competency and knowledge of instructional supervision. These findings are similar to those of Ololube and Major (2014) in Nigeria who found that there was no comprehensible guiding principle for selecting appropriate applicants to be recruited as ESQ Assurers and so many inappropriate personnel would determine their way into the SQA thereby rendering the honesty of the whole system questionable. Ololube (2013) similarly found that in Kenya most of the ESQ Assurers were not professionally qualified. They were carrying out their responsibilities in an unprofessional technique that had serious implications for instructional processes.

These findings also concur with those of Kiruma (2013) in Uganda who clarified that ESQ assurers might be unable to offer constructive recommendations to some aspects of the SQA process due to the shortage of knowledge, experience and skills. These findings entail that there is the necessity to recruit ESQ Assurers as per a set of standards. ESQ Assurers should be given the required in-services training that authorizes them to reach the suitable level of conducting the SQA process and to meet the challenges of supervising instructional practice in a school context. It may

be complicated to conduct SQA practices and carry out supervision of instruction if a person is incompetent in the field of SQA.

Regarding the ESQ Assurers' authority to make decisions about teaching and learning and teachers' performance, the study indicated that ESQ Assurers did not have the authority to be efficient. These findings are supported by what has been stated by Eya and Chukwu (2012), who found that ESQ assurers were often unable to make decisions on matters about SQA without consulting authorities who might have little or no knowledge of the situation or school. These findings are also in line with what was found by Ololube and Major (2014) in Nigeria that the ESQA lacked autonomy to execute its services and as a result it was unable to implement recommendations based on ESQA processes and it did not fulfil its work conditions. To establish this authority, there is a need to have a clear outline of what exactly ESQ Assurers are responsible for and what actions they are empowered to take to deal with issues. Ideally, this will involve consultation with a group of experienced educational stakeholders, particularly policy-makers, to establish what appropriate areas of authority should be included.

The study further found that most of the ESQ Assurers were not satisfied with their work conditions. First, they did not have good means of transport. They were also facing problems with a lack of field allowances, low salaries, and no incentives as well. The above findings attest to the suggestions given in the study done by De Grauwe (2001), who found that the four African countries including Botswana, Namibia, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe were facing many challenges mostly based on the lack of resources, especially the means of transportation and funds for running SQA activities.

These findings concur with the study conducted by Matete (2009) in Tanzania and Ololube and Major (2014) in Kenya who discovered that school inspectors were suffering from poverty since there was a shortage of funds, especially for transport and subsistence allowances. This was making the ESQ Assurers unsuccessful in meeting the expenses related to transport and accommodation. It was found that the scarcity of funds had resulted in a deprived provision of accommodation and survival to the external quality assurers, something which led to the delaying of the achievement of the quality assurance programme.

6.0 Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on the major findings, it was noted that the autonomy and authority of ESQ Assurers was still challenging for them to improve teaching and learning. It was also found that there was insufficient allocation of budget to carry out ESQA practices effectively. Hence, it is concluded that these situations jeopardize ESQ Assurers' status as they become less effective in enhancing teaching and learning processes. It is also recommended that the government upgrade the ESQ Assurers and the quality of teaching and learning in secondary schools by strengthening the ESQA by considering the provision of appropriate and continuous training programmes. In line with this, MoEVTZ should create fixed standards or a criterion for appointing ESQ Assurers. Moreover, it should clarify areas of ESQ Assurers' authority and responsibility, and ensure these are supported by processes at all levels of the education system. Further, it should increase the budget for the successful implementation of SQA practices based on their human resources, materials resources and financial capabilities.

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The Effects of Parental Violence on their Children's Withdrawal Behaviours towards School Peers and Teachers in Schools

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Abstract
This study explored the effects of parental violence on children's withdrawal behaviour in the school environment in Dodoma, Tanzania. The study used a quantitative approach and a cross-sectional survey design to get 312 out of 652 children from five primary schools that filled in the questionnaires. The study used a chi-square test to determine the association between intimate partner abuse and withdrawal behaviour of pupils at the 0.05 level of significance. The findings showed a significant association between children from parental violence involved in withdrawal behaviour and children from non-marital violence. A test for association in significance further showed no significant relationship among boys and girls regarding withdrawal behaviour implying that both genders were affected. It is recommended that more endeavour should be done by diverse stakeholders to alleviate or reduce domestic violence in general.

Keywords: Parental Violence, Gender-based Violence, Emotional Violence, Physical Violence, Withdrawal Behaviour

1.0 Introduction
The stereotypical view of children witnessing parental violence, in terms of both physical and verbal abuse and fights between a mother and father, results in a child being traumatized (Holden, 2003; Richards, 2011). The research literature has demonstrated that when a child witnesses parental violence, can involve a much broader range of incidents, including the child intervening verbally or physically by asking parents to stop or

defending one of the parents; from being victimized verbally or physically when a child is accidentally hit by a thrown object or intentionally hit or blamed; to be coerced to participate by being used as a spy; to observe bruises or injuries, damaged property, intense emotions, or hear directly verbal or physical violence; to overhear through yelling, threats or breaking objects (Edleson, 1999; Guzman, 2009; Holden, 2003; Humphreys, 2008). In recent years, a range of terms have been added including 'being exposed', 'living with violence' and 'being affected by violence' have emerged to describe the experiences of children from violent homes (Holden, 2003; Powell & Murray, 2008; Richards, 2012).

Low self-esteem and feelings of withdrawal are common emotions experienced by children exposed to parent's violence (Clements, Oxtoby & Ogle, 2008; Richards, 2011). Children exposed to family violence feel that they are unable to stop it as they are torn between a desire to help the victim and the need to keep a family secret. Girls in particular are given the impression that females are supposed to keep quiet, to be weak and subservient, while males are supposed to be domineering (Edleson, 1999). Liberman (2000) suggested that social learning that is based on model learning can be applied by observing an actual activity and seeing what it achieves, which is referred to as associative learning. The author gave an example that children and young people who internalize their behaviours may do so because they have learnt from their parents' relationship that when the mother is quiet and withdrawn violence is less likely to occur.

It is apparent from the literature cited in this study that children experience feelings of loneliness, hopelessness, despair and anxiety owing to family violence, specifically violence between parents. Such a situation is likely to make children feel distracted and affect their socialization with their peers and thus experience isolation from them. Magwa (2013) reveals that

children who are exposed to parental violence have also conflicting feelings of anxiety, distrust and affection as they find it difficult to understand why two people do not love each other anymore. This suggests that violence between parents and children increases worry about their security and their parents' endless conflicts. Children's insecurity can go beyond the family boundary and affect their socialization with other people outside.

In Tanzania, one-third of women aged 15-49 are estimated to have experienced physical violence from their husbands or partners. A considerable proportion of Tanzanian men (38%) and women (54%) find wife beating is justifiable (Jacobsen, 2014). Violent treatment against women in general is also supported by Betron (2008) and Vyas (2012), who reported that both men and women acknowledge women being beaten by men when they are not ready for sexual intercourse with their husbands or partners.

1.2   Literature Review

Researchers have observed the relations between children's exposure to violence, problems in the way children think about social relationships, and children's social adjustment in the school peer group. Children exposed to parental violence are less interpersonally sensitive and unable to identify other's emotional expressions (Medina, Margolin & Goedis, 2013). Children's physical and verbal aggressiveness, and anger resulting from parent's violence contribute to poor interaction with school peers as observed by Carlson (2000), who indicated that children from violent homes commonly exhibit anger, aggressiveness, and thus, difficulty in interacting with peers. James (1994) suggested that negative peer interaction is influenced by a child's aggressive behaviour.

Violence against women is a global problem that cuts across cultural, geographical, religious, social and economic boundaries (Jansen, 2011; Montoya & Lise, 2013; WHO, 2013, 2006; Yusuf, Arulogum, Oladapo & Olowookere, 2011). Women experience psychological, physical, economical and sexual violence in their marital or intimate relationships (WHO, 2013; Yusuf *et al.,* 2011). Physical assault is one of the abuses found in domestic violence. Domestic violence is a pattern of coercive behaviour such as emotional, physical, psychological or sexual committed by a current or former intimate partner intended to gain or sustain control in a relationship (Swanston, Bowyer & Vetere, 2014). Domestic violence is any behaviour within an intimate relationship that causes psychological, physical or sexual pain to those in a relationship (Betron, 2008). Physical violence involves slapping, beating, burning, choking, pushing, pulling, biting, kicking or grabbing by the hair. It also includes physical neglect through denial of food or treatment (Jansen, 2011).

Studies continue to indicate that children exposed to family violence are at risk of experiencing depression (McIntosh, 2003; Milner, 2010; Osofsky, 2009; The Australian Domestic and Family Violence, 2011). Depression stems from children's insignificance, silence, feelings of powerlessness, and feelings of guilt for not protecting their mother. Children feel more depressed particularly when internal or external support is not available (McGee, 2000; Milner, 2010). However, the children's internalized depressive behaviours can be explained by social learning theory. The theory is based on the principle that behaviours observed by a young person will become learned and modelled as if the observed behaviour is a norm. For example, if the normal social behaviour of an abused mother in the home involves depression, anxiety or quietness, such behaviours are likely to be copied by the children

because of their attachment to significant adults (Siegal & Welsh, 2009). It implies that children exposed to parental violence are at risk of developing emotional problems such as quietness, anxiety and withdrawal behaviour throughout their life.

Medina et al. (2013) further observed that children who have been traumatized and suffered from internalized behaviours owing to exposure to parental violence are more likely to be withdrawn from their class because their state of mind becomes disconnected. Osofsky, Wewers, Hann and Fick (1993) posited that children who have difficulty with attention due to family conflicts may not be sensitive to important social instruction and expectations; thus, they find themselves struggling with school rules and peer relationships. Pynoos, Ritzmann, Steinberg, Goenjian and Pricecaru (1996) add that 'social ostracism' is further increased when children wish to move to another school to be away from their violent home. This disconnection from social life at school lead children who have been traumatized by their parent's violence to become reluctant to socialize with other children.

One-third of Tanzanian women aged 15-49 are estimated to have experienced physical violence from their husbands or partners. A considerable proportion of Tanzanian men (38%) and women (54%) find wife beating is justifiable (Jacobsen, 2014). Violent treatment against women in general is also supported by Betron (2008) and Vyas (2012), who reported that both men and women acknowledge women being beaten by men when they are not ready for sexual intercourse with their husbands or partners. Williams, Larsen, and McCloskey (2004) research on violence against women in the Kilimanjaro region in Tanzania found that nearly one in three women had been physically assaulted by her husband or partner. The research indicated that physical violence and

partner abuse sometimes resulted in severe psychological and physical injuries to women. The National Bureau of Statistics (2011) conducted the first survey in the history of the Demographic and Health Survey in Tanzania mainland. The study survey indicated that among the types of physical violence experienced by women, slapping (36%) was the most commonly reported act followed by being punched (18%), pushed, shaken or having something thrown at them (16%).

The observation from the reviewed literature in this study has shown that only findings from abroad have indicated the effects of marital violence specifically violence against women on children's diverse school behaviours including interaction with other people (Medina et al, 2013; Richards, 2011; Carlson, 2000; Osofsky et al, 1993). The findings available in Tanzania have mostly concentrated on women's psychological, physical or social effects concerning domestic violence (Jacobsen, 2014; Vyas (2012; Betron, 2008). Therefore, the question is to what extent intimate partner violence affects children's well-being such as school behaviours in Tanzania? This shows that little is known about the adverse effects of parental violence on children's withdrawal behaviours towards school peers and teachers in school settings. Specifically, the study answered two questions:

a) To what extent does marital violence specifically physical assaults against wives by husbands lead to children's withdrawal behaviour from school peers and teachers?

b) To what extent does physical abuse against mothers result in children's withdrawal behaviour in the school context by gender?

2.0   Materials and Methods

A cross-sectional survey design was employed in this study. The design enabled the researcher to associate the children's withdrawal behaviour (as the dependent variable) with exposed and non-exposed mothers to physical abuse (as the independent variable). The cross-sectional survey design further enabled the researcher to get information on respondents from a population within a short period (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). That is, children's withdrawal behavioural information was obtained within a short period. Furthermore, Cohen et al. (2011) comment that the cross-sectional survey provides generalizability within a given population and consolidates a degree of confidence which has an assurance in findings.

This study employed a quantitative approach to explore the extent to which physical abuse of mothers by husbands related to children's withdrawal behaviour in the school context. Therefore, the researcher used numerals to arrive at the responses from the respondents. Also, a sample of 312 children from five primary schools with a population of 652 children from classes four, five and six were selected through simple random sampling. The questionnaires were given to the selected 312 primary school pupils. The sample size was obtained by using a table that determines the sample size for random samples as suggested by Cohen et al. (2011), and an online sample size calculator (Survey Research System, 2012). Concerning the table by Cohen et al. (2011, p. 147), the population of 652 with a confidence level of 95% has the following confidence intervals (degree of accuracy) with probability of sample size, 5% (241), 4% (312), and 3% (404). In this case, the degree of accuracy of 4% is similar to a sample size of 312.

Analysis indicated a total of 110 children were from mothers exposed to physical maltreatment from husbands. While 202 showed their mothers did not experience physical abuse from their husbands. Therefore, children's withdrawal behaviour from mothers exposed to physical abuse was related to children whose mothers were not exposed to physical violence (Edleson, Katy & Narae, 2007; Finkelhor, Hamby, Omrod & Turner, 2005). The CEDV scale was adapted and modified to fit the context of Tanzania. Both close-ended and open-ended questionnaires were filled in by school pupils. The validity of the data was achieved by preparing appropriate and adequate questionnaire items for data collection. The reliability of the items used in the questionnaire was assessed by determining Cronbach's Alpha coefficients. The overall Cronbach's Alpha was 0.95, which enabled the researcher to use a questionnaire in the field of study under investigation.

The study used a chi-square test to examine the association between physical violence against mothers and children's withdrawal behaviour at a 0.05 level of significance. The researcher used a statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 20.0. to get descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages. The internal consistency among the items was assessed by determining Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of 0.7. The strength of the relationship between the variables was measured by Phi and Cramer's V coefficient. About strength for association between the variables, the small, medium and large limits were used. Thus, r= .10 to .29 or r= -.10 to -.29 (small strength), r=.30 to .49 or r=-.30 to -.49 (medium), r=.50 to 1.0 or r=-.50 to -.1.0 (large).

3.0   Results and Discussion

Pupils' withdrawal behaviours from peers and teachers in the school setting were examined in relation to their exposed and non-exposed mothers to violence. Table 1 shows that only one item, that is, *"I stay away from my fellow pupils who tease or make fun of me"* out of six items indicated no significant relationship between children from physically and non-physically abused mothers regarding withdrawal behaviours from peers (X^2=8.396, p=.078). This implies that in this particular item, all school children from physically and non-physically abused mothers withdrew from peers who teased or made fun of them. Table 1 indicates the relationship between children's withdrawal behaviours from school peers and physical violence against mothers.

Table 1: Children's Withdrawal Behaviours from School Peers

Items	Likert scales	Children from mothers exposed to physical violence (N=110)		Children from mothers not exposed to physical violence (N=202)		Chi-square	Sig. (2tailed)	Phi & Cramer's V
		N	%	N	%			
I stay away from my fellow pupils who tease or make fun of me	Very often	26	23.6	31	15.3			
	Often	20	18.2	41	20.3			
	Rare	26	23.6	32	15.8			
	Very rare	14	12.7	38	18.8			

Statement		Count	%	Count	%	Chi-square	p	
I stay away from my fellow pupils because they seem to hate me	Never	24	21.8	60	29.7	8.396	.078	.164
	Very often	24	21.8	32	15.8			
	Often	18	16.4	49	24.3			
	Rare	21	19.1	34	16.8			
	Very rare	22	20	20	9.9			
I stay away from my fellow pupils since I feel as if they don't listen to me when I talk	Never	25	22.7	67	33.2	11.719	.020	.194
	Very often	25	22.7	15	7.4			
	Often	15	13.6	35	17.3			
	Rare	24	21.7	37	18.3			
	Very rare	22	20	36	17.8			
I stay away from my fellow pupils since they seem to ignore me	Never	24	21.8	78	38.6	20.930	.001	.259
	Very often	23	20.9	10	5			
	Often	19	17.3	31	15.3			
	Rare	18	16.4	36	17.8			
	Very rare	23	20.9	48	23.8			
I stay away from my fellow pupils since I feel as if they don't like to cooperate with me	Never	27	24.5	77	38.1	21.592	.000	.262
	Very often	26	23.6	15	7.4			
	Often	13	11.8	44	21.8			
	Rare	14	12.7	30	14.9			

	Very rare	20	18.2	37	18.3			
	Never	37	33.6	76	37.6	18.653	.001	.245
I stay away from my fellow pupils since I feel as if they don't value me	Very often	19	17.3	33	16.3			
	Often	13	11.8	29	14.4			
	Rare	17	15.5	10	5			
	Very rare	18	16.4	30	14.9			
	Never	43	39.1	100	49.5	11.249	.024	.190

Regarding Table 1, a chi-square test revealed a statistically significant association in the other items. The indication is that more children from physically abused mothers were involved in withdrawal behaviours than children from non-physically abused mothers. For instance, the item *"I stay away from my fellow pupils because they seem to hate me"* ($X^2=11.719$, p=.020) with a small strength of the relationship (Phi & Crammer's V = .194). Moreover, it shows that a test for the strength of association for both items was small. For example, the items *"I stay away from my fellow pupils because they seem to hate me"* (Phi & Crammer's V = .194) and *"I stay away from my fellow pupils because I feel as if they don't listen to me when I talk"* (Phi & Crammer's V = .262). This means that despite the strength for association being small, there was a relationship between children from mothers exposed to physical violence on withdrawal behaviours from school peers compared to children from mothers not exposed to physical violence.

When data were analysed, it was revealed that the results varied in terms of the item that measured children's withdrawal behaviours from school

peers by gender. All in all, there was no statistically significant relationship between male and female children for the item *"I stay away from my fellow pupils who tease or make fun of me"* (X^2=9.055, p=.060). This indicates that both male and female children were staying away from peers who teased or made fun of them. The strength of relationship was small (Phi & Crammer's V = .287). While there was a statistically significant relationship for the item, *"I stay away from my fellow pupils because they seem to hate me"* (X^2=14.301, p=.006), it shows that female children were staying away from peers who teased and made fun of them than male children. The strength of relationship was medium (Phi & Crammer's V = .361). Also, there was no statistically significant relationship for the items *"I stay away from my fellow pupils because I feel as if they don't listen to me when I talk"* (X^2=7.966, p=.093) with a small strength of relationship (Phi & Crammer's V = .269) and *"I stay away from my fellow pupils because I feel as if they don't value me"* (X^2=7.383, p=.117) with small strength of relationship (Phi & Crammer's V = .259).

Moreover, there was a statistically significant relationship for the other two items. The item *"I stay away from my fellow pupils because they seem to ignore me"* (X^2=11.270, p=.024). It implies that female children were staying away from peers when they suspected that they were ignored by their fellow pupils than male children. The strength of relationship was medium (Phi & Crammer's V = .320). Another item was *"I stay away from my fellow pupils because I feel as if they don't like to cooperate with me"* (X^2=16.288, p=.003). The strength of relationship was medium (Phi & Crammer's V = .385).

Analysis was further done for physical violence on mothers and children's withdrawal behaviours from school teachers as reported in Table 3.2. A test for relationship in significant by employing a chi-square test revealed that there was no relationship between the variables regarding the item *"I avoid my teachers because they seem to hate me"* (X^2=6.153, p=.188) with a small strength of association (Phi & Crammer's V = .140). It can be interpreted that both school children from mothers exposed and non-exposed to physical violence were equally avoiding teachers who seemed to hate them. The strength of association was small.

Table 2: Children's Withdrawal Behaviours from School Teachers

Items	Likert scales	Children's Situation						
		Children from mothers exposed to physical violence (N=110)		Children from mothers not exposed to physical violence (N=202)				
		N	%	N	%	Chi-square	Sig. (2tailed)	Phi & Cramer's V
I avoid my teachers because they seem to hate me	Very often	15	13.6	15	7.4			
	Often	19	17.3	34	16.8			
	Rare	13	11.8	15	7.3			
	Very rare	12	10.9	32	15.8			

	Never	51	46.4	106	52.5	6.153	.188	.140
I avoid my teachers because they seem to ignore me	Very often	11	10	3	1.5			
	Often	13	11.8	19	9.4			
	Rare	15	13.6	17	8.4			
	Very rare	11	10	23	11.4			
	Never	60	54.5	140	69.3	16.35	0.003	.229
I avoid my teachers because I feel as if they don't value me	Very often	18	16.4	9	4.5			
	Often	9	8.2	42	20.8			
	Rare	19	17.3	23	11.4			
	Very rare	14	12.7	21	10.4			
	Never	50	45.5	107	53	21.576	.000	.263
I avoid my teachers because I feel as if they want to punish me	Very often	26	23.6	31	15.3			
	Often	8	7.3	52	25.7			
	Rare	16	14.5	28	13.9			
	Very rare	11	10	12	5.9			
	Never	49	44.5	79	39.1	17.441	.002	.236

Table 2 shows a statistically significant association in the other three items *"I avoid my teachers because they seem to ignore me"* (X^2=16.350, p=.003), *"I avoid my teachers because I feel as if they don't value me"*

(X^2=21.576, p=.000), and *"I avoid my teachers because I feel as if they want to punish me"* (X^2=17.441, p=.002).

Children's Withdrawal Behaviours by Gender

The study also sought to analyse the data on children's withdrawal behaviours from school teachers by gender. It was found that there was a statistically significant relationship for all four items that measured the children's withdrawal behaviours from school teachers about their mothers being exposed to physical violence. It implies that female children showed more withdrawal behaviours from teachers than male children. For example, the items *"I avoid my teachers because they seem to hate me"* and *"I avoid my teachers because they seem to ignore me"* with (X^2=15.738, p=.003) and (X^2=22.532, p=.000) respectively. It indicates that female children avoided teachers who seemed to hate and ignore them more than male children. The strength of relationship between the variables was medium (Phi & Crammer's V = .378) and (Phi & Crammer's V = .453) respectively. Also, there was a statistically significant relationship for the items *"I avoid my teachers because I feel as if they don't value me"* and *"I avoid my teachers because I feel as if they want to punish me"* (X^2=17.039, p=.002) and (X^2=26.076, p=.000) respectively. The strength of relationship was medium (Phi & Crammer's V = .394) and (Phi & Crammer's V = .487) respectively.

In this study, it was revealed that the association between the children's withdrawal behaviour from their fellow school peers and teachers in the school setting and parental violence specifically physical assault against their mothers at home. The results further bring light to the phenomenon of children's school problems such as withdrawal behaviours from school peers and teachers on inter-parental conflicts. The findings are also in line

with Richards (2011) and Clements et al. (2008), who posited that low self-esteem and feelings of withdrawal are common emotions experienced by children exposed to parent violence. Carlson (2000) also observed that physical, and verbal aggressiveness and anger resulting from parents' violence contribute to children's poor interaction with school peers. The author further added that children from violent homes commonly exhibit anger, aggressiveness, and thus, difficulty in interacting with peers.

Children from violent homes specifically violence between parents sometimes resort to isolating themselves from peers or teachers thinking that this is the only means of avoiding violence as they witness their mothers keeping quite or running to another room to avoid maltreatment. This observation concurs with social learning theorists like Bandura (1977), who stressed that children's acquisition of many complex social behaviours is due to their exposure to competent models that display appropriate behaviour in solving problems and coping with their world. Bandura emphasized that individuals learn how to behave by observing and re-enacting the behaviour of role models such as parents and from social situations.

These results are further supported by Medina et al. (2013), who observed that children who have been traumatized and suffered from internalized behaviours are more likely to be withdrawn from their class because their state of mind becomes disconnected from the classroom environment. The findings are also supported by Liberman (2000), who suggested that social learning that is based on model learning can be applied by observing an actual activity and seeing what it achieves which is referred to as associative learning.

4.0   Conclusion and Recommendations

The study results have shown that there is an association between parental violence and pupils' withdrawal behaviours from school peers and teachers. The findings have shown that both female and male children experience withdrawal behaviour from school peers and teachers about marital violence practised at home. Violence between parents makes children including school-going children experience low self-esteem, worry and fear.

It is recommended that training through psycho-education within families, communities, governmental, and non-governmental institutions should be done to intervene or prevent domestic violence including violence against women in general. The Ministry of Education and Vocational Training should also establish effective guidance and counselling services in primary schools with trained counsellors to support pupils with various problems such as those related to marital violence at home. It is also imperative to investigate and examine the factors that precipitate violence among spouses.

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The Manner Beginning Teachers are Mentored to Enhance Pedagogical Skills in Government Secondary Schools in Rukwa Region, Tanzania

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Abstract

This study explored the manner in which the beginning teachers were mentored to enhance pedagogical skills in government secondary schools in Sumbawanga Municipality and Nkasi District Council, Rukwa Region. Under the qualitative research approach used, the study employed an exploratory single case study design. Data were collected through open-ended questionnaires from experienced teachers and semi-structured interviews with beginning teachers, Heads of Secondary Schools, Heads of Departments, and District Secondary Education Officers, and data were thematically analysed. The findings of the study show that mentoring practices were done through one-to-one mentoring, peer mentoring, and team mentoring where beginning teachers were attached directly to experienced teachers, and get support from experienced teachers across the departments and within themselves inside and outside schools. Furthermore, the pedagogical skills gained due to mentorship include the subject matter masteries, teaching and learning materials' preparations, teaching and learning methods' application, and students' assessment and feedback given. The study recommends that the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology should institutionalise mentoring in schools and provide circulars and guidelines to enforce its implementation in schools effectively.

Keywords: Beginning Teachers, Mentoring, Pedagogical Skills

1.0   Introduction

Mentoring service to beginning teachers is globally affirmed to be one of the cost-effective and sustainable professional support services, which is usually provided within the working environment, to keep new teachers updated with the ever-changing teaching and learning needs and make them competent and effective practitioners (Chikoyo et al., 2019; Floody, 2021; Wasonga et al., 2015). It is upon this significance that education systems worldwide consider mentoring as a relevant instrument in enhancing beginning teachers' pedagogical skills and hence increase their teaching performance and students' learning outcomes (Alam, 2018; Dachi, 2018; Faruki, Haque & Islam, 2019; Wasonga et al., 2015).

1.1   Development of Beginning Teachers' Mentoring in Schools

The development of mentoring in schools draws back from the *Odyssey of Homer* story in Greece when mentoring was understood from the apprenticeship system perspective whereby the apprentices learnt skills from the master (Comer et al., 2017). The meaning of mentoring has ever since evolved in many forms and practices, and it is now perceived as a process of facilitating career development in possessing relevant knowledge and skills for carrying out professional activities based on set standards (Agunloye, 2013; Clark & Byrnes, 2012; Darling-Hammond, 2013). Additionally, mentoring in the education sector largely is performed to support newly employed teachers to learn teaching responsibilities and hence grow personally and professionally (Smith & Finch, 2010; Wallace Foundation, 2007).

Since the 1980s**,** many developed and developing countries globally have paid interest in mentoring newly appointed teachers following the benefits obtained out of mentoring practices. Such benefits include employee

retention which reduces teacher attrition, and increase confidence and motivation among the teachers due to professional support provided by experienced teachers (Hamad, 2015; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Wasonga et al., 2015). For this case, mentoring for beginning teachers has been a driving force towards achieving educational goals, which have a positive impact towards students' academic performance in respective countries.

1.2   Mentoring Beginning Teachers in Developed Countries

The introduction of mentoring practices in the education system began in the United States of America (USA), specifically in New York and California in the second half of the 20th century (1980s) and later spread to other developed countries, such as Norway, Denmark, Sweden, and the United Kingdom (Dziczkowski, 2013; Mullen, 2012; Wallace Foundation, 2007). Canada and the USA began to spend money on the recruitment of other beginning teachers and worked out how to retain them. They largely adopted induction and mentoring strategies to support beginning teachers in performing better in their teaching careers (National Teacher Centre, 2011).

Research works have revealed that teachers who had not participated in mentoring or induction programmes were nearly twice as likely to leave the profession after their first three years of teaching following a lack of professional support from experienced teachers (Education Week, 2000). Mentoring for beginning teachers now is important as it helps them fill in the gap between theory and practice by acquiring professional competences that could enhance job performance and social adjustability in the new working environment (Hudson, 2012).

In England, mentoring was introduced and practised as a central feature of early university-school partnership programmes, such as the Oxford University Internship Scheme, which reported a record in enhancing beginning teachers' pedagogical skills (Rogers et al., 2019). In addition, educational policy-makers in the United States of America have encouraged and, in some cases, required the introduction of mentoring arrangements, for a variety of reasons one being the desire to increase the pedagogical skills performance among the new teachers (Mullen, 2012).

The second related reason, according to Malisa (2015) and Potemski and Matlach (2014), was to encourage the retention of newly and recently qualified teachers in the profession through workplace adaptation and encouragement as explained earlier. Since then, policymakers and educational leaders have pinned high hopes on mentoring practices being an instrument for reforming teaching and teacher education as it helps novices learn new pedagogies and socialise them to new professional norms and practices (Shabani, 2016).

The research by Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) provides evidence that induction programmes such as teacher mentoring are mandatory in many developed countries, such as Australia, France, Greece, Israel, Italy, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, and Switzerland. Mentoring programmes in high-achieving nations are conducted by allocating ample time for beginning teachers and experienced teachers to participate in mentoring and other induction activities. It is further revealed that in countries such as Denmark, Finland, Hungary, Italy, Norway, Switzerland, and Flemish Belgium, schools provide substantial time for regular collaboration among teachers on issues of instruction. Teachers in Finnish schools, for example, meet one afternoon each week to jointly plan and develop a

curriculum, and schools in the same municipality are encouraged to work together to share materials. Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) further reveal that in Scandinavian countries, such as Finland, Sweden, Norway, and Netherlands, teachers meet at the district centre for reflective practice groups twice a month with an experienced teacher who facilitates their discussions of common problems for beginning teachers. The research confirms that beginning teachers finally become aware of the professional demands, and become competent and confident in teaching their students in and outside the classrooms.

1.3 Mentoring Beginning Teachers in Developing Countries and Sub-Saharan Africa

Beginning teacher mentoring is now widely practised globally as it started in the USA and later spread to European countries and finally to developing countries located in Asia, Latin America and Africa including Tanzania (Bhalalusesa et al., 2011). Scholars such as Kunje (2002), Komba and Nkumbi (2008) and Hamad (2015) provide evidence on the teacher mentoring experiences in Malawi and Mozambique whereby heads of schools and other senior and experienced teachers visit classrooms where beginning teachers teach, where after classroom sessions feedback is provided for beginning teachers on the areas that need to be enhanced.

Additionally, Eshun and Ashun (2013a) report on the teacher preparation programme in Ghana namely, "In-In-Out Programme of Colleges of Education". The government of Ghana reduced the number of years in training student-teachers from three to two years. Student-teachers spent two years in teacher colleges/universities and the third year was spent in schools where they were mentored by experienced teachers to acquire

teaching skills. Eshun and Ashun (2013b) assert that most of the beginning teachers enjoyed the support of their mentors in preparation of their lesson notes, teaching and learning materials, during and after teaching.

In Zimbabwe, Margaret (2016) exposes that the teacher education system adopted school-based mentoring in training both primary and secondary school teachers to replace the long-established Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC) and conventional four-year programme that stipulated that student-teachers are allocated a class under their sole responsibility with the head or deputy head playing a mentoring role. During the teaching practice phase, the school-based mentors are accountable for the student-teachers learning. Mentors are expected to practically and professionally develop student-teachers in collaboration with both the training college and the University of Zimbabwe, particularly the Department of Teacher Education (DTE) which is responsible for teacher training (Ngara & Ngwarai, 2012). In addition to Zimbabwe mentoring practices, a study conducted by Mukeredzi et al. (2016) reports that unlike beginning teachers in urban areas who had access to mentoring services, the majority of beginning teachers in rural secondary schools were neither inducted into the profession nor mentored but were left alone to explore and discover the new environment and its operations.

The study by Godda (2018) reports the experiences of school-based mentoring done to part-time Post Graduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) students from KwaZulu Natal University who attend Teaching Practice (TP) in community schools during their second year of PGCE. The TP was conducted over six weeks, within which university tutors

visited students to support and assess them in their teaching of those subject specializations for which they were registered at the university. The PGCE students were also expected to be mentored by experienced teachers in the school with the appropriate specialization. Mentoring was done first by giving the opportunity for PGCE students to observe lessons taught by experienced teachers and later on comes the time for mentors to observe lessons taught by PGCE students. Thereafter, post-conferences were held to discuss the successes and failures so that they could make improvements in future lessons. School heads were responsible for the mentors' selection.

Heeralal (2014) conducted a study at a South African University involving student teachers who were asked to identify the mentoring needs of pre-service teachers so that mentors could assist student teachers in meeting their needs and overcoming some of the challenges that they may face in entering the teaching profession. The study found that the greatest mentoring needs of pre-service teachers lie in the areas of assessment (87.2%), lesson preparation (84.6%), administrative matters (82.0%), classroom management (79.5%), lesson presentation (79.5%), and discipline (76.9%). The other areas include professional development (64.1%), time management (56.4%) and extra and co-curricular activities (48.5%) also need attention. Dealing with diversity (41.0%), dealing with change (38.5%), relationships (38.5%) and adapting to a school environment, cannot be ignored as areas of need amongst pre-service teachers.

DeRosa (2005) further reports that school-mentoring practices for newly qualified teachers in Zambian secondary schools are still at the infant stage, still unorganized and mentors are not professionally trained to carry out mentoring services in secondary schools so that teachers can

confidently teach stay and enjoy teaching. Furthermore, Mtitu (2014) claims that in Zambia, there is ample evidence that most teachers have not received mentorship because mentorship programmes for newly qualified teachers were virtually non-existent in Zambian schools. Equally, Mulkeen and Chen (2008) reported that the practice of teacher mentoring in Uganda was done through local coordinating centres, which acted as in-service training centres. Teacher mentors provide mentoring services to untrained teachers so that they acquire pedagogical skills, which enable them to teach effectively in classrooms. The programme has positive effects on both experienced teachers and beginning teachers by cultivating mutual relationships, shared spirit, collective responsibilities and common understanding in the teaching process.

Koda (2006) also exposed the in-service school-based training programmes in Kenya which were offered through mentoring, coaching, classroom observations, collaborative planning and team teaching which has shown the greatest impact on classroom practices and students' academic performance. Indoshi (2003) using a qualitative method of study of new graduate school teachers in Kisumu District in Nyanza Province of Kenya during their first 2 years in teaching (probation period) discovered that beginning teachers wished to learn school organization, curriculum, teaching methods, student discipline management, interpersonal relationships, school rules and regulations, and school vision and mission.

1.4 Empirical Studies on Mentoring Beginning Teachers in Tanzania

According to the United Republic of Tanzania (2018), from the early 1960s, the government, and local private agencies conducted in-service training, mentoring being one of the learning activities in the programme for their teachers. In the 1970s and 1980s, the Government implemented

a countrywide Continuous Professional Development (CPD) initiative for teachers called Tanzania UNICEF and UNESCO Primary Education Reform which was also known in Kiswahili as "Mpango wa Tanzania UNICEF na UNESCO" - MTUU. In this initiative, teachers in the community schools were mentored by tutors in the nearby teacher colleges. The initiative also focused on strengthening school and community partnerships for socialization purposes.

Alongside MTUU, there was the Universal Primary Education (UPE) initiative in 1977 that recruited paraprofessional teachers who received tailor-made training done in the ward centres where they were mentored by experienced teachers to get teaching skills while working. Another CPD initiative was implemented under District-based Support for Primary Education (DBSPE) in the 1990s, which supported whole school development planning through a network of Teachers' Resource Centres around the country. Through the DBSPE programme, teachers were coached and mentored on conducting school mapping or school situational analysis and were guided to prepare Whole School Development Plans for their schools.

In 1998, the then Ministry of Education and Culture in collaboration with Stockholm Institute of Education of Sweden instituted a Teacher Educators Programme (TEP) for teacher educators' professional development in Tanzania. The programme was introduced to coach and mentor Teacher College tutors to the major educational paradigm shift, which demanded teachers change teaching strategies, from a teacher-centred approach to a learner-centred approach, which was the learning-by-doing approach. Through this approach, students were encouraged to participate actively during the teaching and learning processes and the

role of the teacher changed from being a master of everything during the teaching and learning process to a facilitator. Therefore, the TEP programme was designed to empower Teacher College tutors to use participatory techniques and cooperative learning methods as described earlier.

Active learning became the phrase of the time, and TEP had to take the lead in these transformations. URT (2018) adds that the initial design of TEP was a three-month residential/college-based course. However it was later redesigned into a semi-distance learning course conducted in zonal settings that were able to accommodate more college tutors and larger populations. Teachers' College tutors graduating from these zones conducted TEP courses and were later the mentors and coaches of both primary and secondary school teachers based in their zonal localities. This TEP design was deemed a success in supporting primary and secondary school teachers, particularly in inculcating skills in the effective use of cooperative teaching and learning methods.

Between the years 2002 and 2016, the Tanzania Government embarked on huge education reforms at both primary and secondary education levels through major sector development plans: Primary Education Development Program (PEDP 2002-2011) and Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP 2004-2016). Through PEDP and SEDP programmes, the Government managed to establish new schools (primary and secondary) up to ward levels, which both demanded new teachers to teach in those newly opened schools following to increase in students' enrollment.

At this departure, the Government came up with a two-tier system for diploma teachers. Mentoring practices were designed to support diploma student-teachers who were posted to teach in secondary schools. In the first part of the course, student-teachers spent one year in the colleges, mostly learning the theoretical part of the course. The second part, which demanded mentoring from senior teachers, was when student-teachers were posted to secondary schools to put theory into practice. The programme achieved less because there was neither training conducted for experienced teachers to become mentors nor a mentor's guide distributed to help them practice mentoring (Bhalalusesa et al., 2011).

1.5   Study Purpose and Specific Objectives

The purpose of the study was to explore how beginning teachers were mentored in government secondary schools to enhance pedagogical skills. Specifically, the study addressed: i) the manner through which mentoring was organised in government secondary schools, ii) the identification and prioritisation of key areas for mentorship in schools, and iii) the professional support services offered to beginning teachers in schools.

2.0   Materials and Methods

Theoretically, the study adopted a socio-cultural theory, which describes school-based mentoring as a demanding social interaction in communities of learning to enhance pedagogical skills (Ayot & Patel, 1992). Whilst, the application of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) theory as described by Bhowmik, Banerjee and Banerjee (2013), and Kamarudin et al. (2020) suited this study because it showed the role of experienced teachers (more knowledgeable ones) in mentoring beginning teachers to enhance pedagogical skills. This study was a qualitative inquiry, which presumed the participants' personal constructs and interpretation of the

phenomena under investigation (Creswell, 2007; Yin, 2011); hence, the exploration of the participants' experiences, perspectives and views in their natural contexts (Silverman, 2013).

The study was conducted in Rukwa Region in Sumbawanga Municipality and Nkasi District Council. The study covered seven government secondary schools: where schools 1, 2, 3, and 4 were found in Sumbawanga Municipality and schools 5, 6, and 7 were found in Nkasi District Council. A total of 63 equivalents to 96.9% out of 65 planned respondents participated, the participation based on categories of experienced teachers (28 participants), beginning teachers (15 participants), Heads of Departments (11 participants), Heads of Schools (7 participants) and District Secondary Education Officers (DSEOs, 2 participants).

The study administered open-ended questionnaires to experienced teachers, who responded to obtain the perspectives and acceptance in the manners of mentoring beginning teachers in schools; this is because experienced teachers were best positioned to provide situations and experiences in guiding the interviews with the rest of the respondents who took interviews. Nevertheless, during the interviews with the beginning teachers, Heads of Departments, Heads of Schools and DSEOs directed the interviews to what they found important and expressed the meaning they attached to concepts (Taylor et al., 2016). The information collected through semi-structured interviews was recorded with a digital recorder and manually through note-taking. All the interviews and discussions were conducted by mixing English and Kiswahili languages, and direct quotations were translated into English by the researcher. The average time for individual interviews took between 40 and 50 minutes

respectively. All participants who participated in the study gave informed consent and agreed to be interviewed.

More importantly, the criteria for examining the rigour of the study have traditionally been internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity (Creswell, 2007; Golafshani, 2003). Gall et al. (2007) point out that the term trustworthiness is appropriate for judging the quality of study in qualitative paradigms. The elements of the criteria for trustworthiness include credibility, dependability (consistency), transferability (applicability), and conformability (neutrality). These elements were employed alongside other strategies to ensure the quality of this particular study. Credibility is parallel to internal validity (Cohen et al., 2000; Creswell, 2007). This was achieved, first, by the use of two methods (interviews and questionnaires) to collect data. Second, peer reviews were used to ensure credibility, where fellow researchers were given the tentative data and findings for their reviews and comments.

Dependability corresponds to the reliability of the findings in quantitative studies (Cohen et al., 2000; Creswell, 2007). The dependability of the conclusions was guaranteed by asking clear questions, triangulating the data, reducing biases and subjectivity during the data collection, peer reviews, and audit trail, and reporting the study process and the findings transparently. In conformability, parallel to objectivity criteria in the quantitative approach (Cohen et al., 2000), the researcher confirmed the study's findings and grounded them in raw data evidence. The integrity of raw data was maintained by using participants' words, including quotes, liberally.

Further, the transferability of the findings was equivalent to the generalization of the findings in the quantitative study (Cohen et al., 2000; Creswell, 2007). Although the location of the study might be similar to other places in Tanzania, the researcher's aim was not to generalize the findings of the study; instead, it was to explore how beginning teachers were mentored in schools to enhance pedagogical skills. However, if readers find sufficient similarities between their contexts and the context of the study, then it would be reasonable for them to transfer the findings to their contexts. Finally, the data collected were analysed using the principles of thematic analysis.

The approach involves six steps: familiarisation with the data, generation of tentative codes, elucidation of themes, review of themes, delineation of themes and production of the written report as presented by (Bricki & Green, 2007). From questionnaires and interviews, three themes were deductively developed as per study objectives. Before each interview and to each questionnaire respondent, the researcher described the purpose and benefits of the study and steps to be taken to maintain confidentiality and anonymity. In addition, the researcher assured the participants that the information collected were for research purpose only, and in addition, the names of the participants and school names were not mentioned in the report of the study.

3.0 Findings
3.1 The Manner through which Mentoring was Organised in Schools

In the manner through which mentoring was organised in schools, findings show that all the 15 beginning teachers had attachments to

experienced teachers once they reported in schools. Such that one respondent stated:

> *We were attached to the experienced teachers who have been our focal persons for mentoring services in school* (Interview with the Beginning Teacher1, School1, 2020).

This suggests a one-to-one mentoring approach which was reported the most practiced in schools and preceded other approaches in the practice. One beginning teacher stated:

> *When I reported to my working station, I was attached to the experience Teacher, in which mentorship was planned in the one-to-one meetings; we shared teaching and learning resources directly in person and this is mostly practised in this school* (Interview with the Beginning Teacher5, School2, 2020).

This implies that the one-to-one mentoring approach had support in making the good working relationships evidenced in the fields. As opposed to its strength, one-to-one mentor and mentee teachers were reluctant to produce sufficient program records, only a few produced the templates of the lesson plans, schemes of work both from 2017 to 2019 and some mentoring records to show evidence of mentorship. One head of school reported:

> *You know mentoring in schools is informal, and is not guided by any by-laws underpinning, thus, it has been very hard to make track records of the mentorship activities* (Interview with the Head of School4, 2020).

The lack of sufficient programme records implies that one-to-one mentoring was privately arranged and there was limited enforcement of mentoring laws and by-laws in schools. Another mentoring approach found in practice among schools under the study was peer mentoring. The findings show that beginning teachers and experienced teachers from different departments had peer working cultures within and across the departments. One beginning teacher was noted saying, *"We have a culture of consultations with peer teachers within and across the departments"* (Interview with the Beginning Teacher₄, School₂, 2020).

This finding implies that teachers had freedom of interaction as colleagues as evidenced in the fields. Through peer mentoring schools cooperated with peer schools in education weeks. One head of the school stated:

> *I always stand steady on peer networking with neighbouring schools, through ward education week, and district education week we work as peers and teachers get to network with peer teachers, where they support one another in challenges in academic issues* (Interview with the Head of School₇, 2020).

This finding implies that through interactions peer teachers mentored each other in private and or in schools' arrangements to enhance skills in the implementation of the schools' syllabus. On the contrary, peer mentoring is challenged with limited accessibility among peers due to the workload and area locations of the peers. In addition, team mentoring was also found in practice in schools under the study. One beginning teacher commented:

> *Team mentoring was arranged to allow observations in classrooms to understand what other teachers did in*

classrooms, discuss and sort out challenges about pedagogical skills together, plan together and formulate teaching strategies together (Interview with the Beginning Teacher[8], 2020).

This approach involved demonstrations and observations of the teaching methods' applications. Being the least in practice among other approaches; this approach was characterized by limited democracy in its implementation because it only compromised on the work ahead to be fulfilled.

3.2 Identification and Prioritisation of Key Areas for Mentorship in Schools

In the identification and prioritisation of key areas for mentorship in schools, the study found out that beginning teachers were mentored in areas relating to the implementation of the subject matter masteries. There were major areas raised for mentorship in the mastery of the subject contents, geared towards ensuring that beginning teachers were setting the teaching and learning competencies based on the new curriculum requirement. The head of the school stated:

> *The logbook was filled generically; he did not make it clear how he made progress in the classroom activities. You know approving the teaching practices requires the teacher to be specific in the determination of the classroom activities undertaken that specify the competencies gained during the teaching process, the follow-up process was necessary to ensure that beginning teachers fill in the logbooks accordingly, by identifying the classroom activities and hence the teaching and learning competencies* (Interview with the Head of School[1], 2020).

This statement signifies that beginning teachers initially were presenting the generic contents of the teaching and learning practices; they were not able to set the flow of classroom activities and fill in the logbooks with the specific teaching and learning competencies. Further findings show that beginning teachers were mentored in manners of teaching and learning materials preparation skills. One head of department from the school stated that:

> *At the department level, we urge experienced teachers to mentor beginning teachers on the proper preparation and preservation of specimens to ensure high-quality specimens which can bring the expected results in the laboratories* (Interview with the Head of Department$_6$, School$_6$, 2020).

The statement provided implies that under the arrangement of the department offices, beginning teachers were mentored on how to properly prepare and preserve specimens to increase the quality of information the specimens contained. In addition, findings show that beginning teachers were mentored in the teaching and learning methods application skills. Evidence regarding this inference included a typical statement provided by one beginning teacher as follows:

> *Following the large number (over 120 students) I had in the classroom, coupled with a huge workload (4 to 8 periods per day), I could not properly engage every student's attentiveness in the learning process, in many occasions I applied the lecture teaching method, but it turned outdated when students were getting much more jaded with the teaching progress and I had to change the teaching style to classroom discussions and presentations. Again, this probed problems in the implementation due to students*

> *overcrowding in the classroom and limited time which was assigned for a given subject period. I had to seek support from experienced Teachers* (Interview with the Beginning Teacher[14], 2020).

The quotation above signifies that there were several reasons why beginning teachers failed to actively apply participatory teaching methods. Finally beginning teachers were mentored in the students' assessment and feedback given in schools. The respondent stated that:

> *The beginning teacher was less competent in designing learning activities as inputs for assessment, marking and awarding scores, hence for effective students' assessment, marking and awarding scores mentoring was the better option as a remedy for enhancing pedagogical skills and general teacher professional development* (Interview with the Head of Department[8], School[8], 2020).

The statement provided implies that experienced teachers incorporated beginning teachers in the marking panels and collaboratively engaged them on how to provide feedback to students.

3.3 The Professional Support Services Offered to Beginning Teachers in Schools

The findings show that beginning teachers were offered some materials and non-materials as professional support services in schools during the mentorship practices. The professional support included the provision of textbooks, reference books, lesson notes and online links to empower beginning teachers to enhance their pedagogical skills. In textbook support, one participant reported that:

> *The school had no physics textbooks in the library. I talked to a friend whom I knew earlier before my placement at this school. She supported me with the textbook and I produced a photocopy. The book was important to me as it provided me with organized units of work in the form of topics and competencies to be achieved* (Beginning Teacher7, 2020).

The statement shows that there were limited textbooks in the school libraries. The findings show that beginning teachers had to make some personal initiatives to source the materials since the textbooks helped interact with subject topics and designing the lesson notes. Further, the findings show that beginning teachers similarly sourced textbooks from peers on their initiatives.

In the case of reference books, the findings show that experienced teachers provided beginning teachers with experience and knowledge on how to get the reference books. Having learned that tip, the beginning teachers exposed to have sourced reference books from fellow teachers from within and the nearby schools. One beginning teacher reported:

> *I used personal efforts to get friends in town who had some reference books so that I produce photocopies to keep for my reference in lesson notes making* (Interview with the Beginning Teacher11, 2020).

The statement provided indicates that due to the remoteness of some schools, beginning teachers had to make some personal initiatives to source reference books; hence, the findings show that reference books in the respective schools were limited in supply, and therefore, beginning teachers had to work out on their initiatives to get the reference books to produce the quality lesson notes. Findings on lesson notes show that

experienced teachers provided beginning teachers with readymade lesson notes, which acted as helping tools so that beginning teachers could go through and see how best lesson notes could be modified and prepared for classrooms. One head of school stated that:

> *The good thing with the beginning teacher was that we were teaching the same subject (Mathematics). I could not be such mean to him knowing he was a newcomer. I supported him with everything including my personal lesson notes, so that he could catch up so fast with the pace I set in Mathematics teaching* (Interview with the Head of School$_6$, 2020).

The foregoing excerpt implies that the beginning teachers were provided with readymade lesson notes to support them with the exposure to the structures and details of the notes and to easily cope with the teaching prerequisite to a competent curriculum.

Based on the online links, the findings show that experienced teachers supported beginning teachers with the website-based education links, which contained useful information concerning subject contents, videos, animations and so many illustrations depending on what the beginning teacher needed. Thus, the experienced teachers coached, demonstrated and mentored beginning teachers on how to search for relevant information regarding the topics stipulated in the syllabus. One DSEO cemented that:

> *At Ward Education Week, I always coached beginning teachers on how to identify and use official sites containing the genuine contents of the curriculum* (Interview with DSEO$_1$, 2020).

The statement given indicates that the DSEOs used online services in mentoring the beginning teachers; hence, the findings show that the DSEOs coached teachers on the use of ICT and integrating ICT in the teaching and learning processes.

4.0   Conclusion and Recommendations

Based on findings in the first specific objective, the study makes the following conclusion; first, the beginning teachers had attachments to experienced teachers for mentorship, it was voluntary and was conducted in an informal arrangement between the experienced and the beginning teachers; second, mentorship in schools involved peer networking and consultation with peers, where beginning and experienced teachers interacted from within and across the departments, in private and or in schools' arrangements to enhance pedagogical skills; third, beginning and experienced teachers mentored one another through team teachings, in which they conducted classroom observations, demonstrations, enquiries and discussions in teaching pedagogy.

Fourth, key areas identified and prioritized for mentoring in schools involved subject matter mastery, teaching and learning materials preparation, teaching and learning methods application and students' assessment and feedback-giving skills implementation in schools; and fifth, beginning teachers were supported with professional documents by the experienced teachers including templates of schemes of work, lesson plans, lesson notes and some reliable academic online links, which were supportive in replication and production of standardized teaching and learning documents. Hence, the manner in the beginning teachers were mentored involved organising mentoring arrangements, identifying key

areas for mentorships and provision of school-based readymade professional documents.

In consideration of the importance of school-based mentorships, DSEOs, Heads of Schools, Heads of Departments and experienced teachers worked collaboratively with the beginning teachers, in a high trust, self-commitment, and non-institutionalised formats characterized by voluntary actions. From this basis, the study recommends that it is vital for the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology to institutionalise school-based mentorships by releasing policies, enacting laws, and producing and supplying circulars and guidelines to enforce schools implement mentoring in specific and systematic procedures, which could stand as best practices in the education system, instead of depending on personal desires and commitment.

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Decentralisation and Delivery of Secondary School Education: Influence of Institutional Arrangements in Mtwara Region, Tanzania

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Abstract

This paper examined the influence of institutional arrangements on the delivery of secondary school education in the Tandahimba and Mtwara districts in Tanzania. The study was grounded in Theory of Change and Principal-Agency Theory. Cross-sectional explanatory research employed a semi-structured questionnaire to collect quantitative data from 229 secondary school teachers and District Secondary Education Officers. Also, an interview guide was used to collect qualitative data from District Executive Directors (DEDs), and District Secondary Education Officers (DSEOs) as key informants, whereas a focus group discussion was used to collect data from teachers and parents. The quantitative data were analysed by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0, whilst the qualitative data was analysed by using content analysis. The findings revealed that recruitment and curriculum development are not sufficiently decentralised to enable effective delivery of education. As a result, the schools do not have enough decision-making space. The study concludes that institutional arrangement influences the delivery of education and hence students' academic performance. The paper recommends that the central government ensure complete and accurate decentralisation of power to lower levels of the government. Local government authorities should provide schools with sufficient decision-making space in the implementation of their educational plans.

Keywords: Decentralisation, Decision-making Space, Institutional arrangements

1.0   Introduction

Decentralisation has been accepted as a management approach to improve public service delivery (Aycrigg, 2013; Sow & Razafimahefa, 2015). It is part of vigorous initiatives or reforms to support Local Government Authorities (LGAs) to improve social services delivery such as education (Aycrigg, 2013). The global interest in education decentralisation comes from the recognition that minimal centralised decisions would make educational institutions more effective and LGAs more capable in the delivery of education (Binswanger, 2011).

Empirically, the successful implementation of decentralisation is attributed to the level of bureaucracy and complexity of government structures as reflected by their institution arrangements (Komba, 2017; King, 2018; Lavonen, 2017; Mushemeza, 2019; Winkler & Gershberg, 2003). The current study is grounded in principal-agency theory, which explains the concepts of institutional arrangement as important dimensions of decentralisation which need to be emphasized to improve education delivery and hence student academic performance in secondary schools.

Frank and Martinez-Vazquez (2014) highlighted that decision-making steps need to be coordinated across levels of government to ensure efficiency. Decentralisation of education to local government plays a vital role in shaping the interplay relationship between various responsible government units in the provision of education. In turn, it influences the behaviour of actors in playing their roles as principals and agents in secondary school education delivery (Weiss, 1995; Rogers, 2014). Essentially, the institutional arrangement is the major condition of decentralisation that is supposed to increase the involvement and

participation of different actors in the delivery of secondary school education. Institutional arrangements play an essential function in determining individuals' behaviour and actions and their interactional effect, which instils changes in institutional processes and practices (Sow & Razafimahefa, 2015). However, clear obligations for each institution should be defined by the appropriate legislative and executive powers. Without genuine recognition and backing of their legal status, institutions cannot function properly.

Literature suggests that there is a scarcity of research showing the contribution of institutional arrangements on either the success or failure of decentralisation in the delivery of education in most developing countries, including Tanzania. Various scholars have investigated the influence of decentralisation policy on the delivery of education but did not focus on institutional arrangements; instead, their centre of attention was on decentralisation as a policy (Kigume & Maluka, 2018; Kisumbe et al., 2014; Lameck, 2017; Mollel & Tollenaar, 2013).

Other scholars have focused on the effects of community participation as a factor of decentralisation (Kigume & Maluka, 2018; Kisumbe et al., 2014; Lameck, 2017; Marijani, 2016) on the delivery of social services including secondary school education. Due to the dearth of literature regarding the influence of institutional arrangements in the delivery of secondary school education and its resultant academic performance, this study was conceived. The study examined schools and LGA's decision-making space regarding academic matters, mobilisation and use of resources, recruitment, curriculum development and implementation for improved education delivery.

In Tanzania, before the decentralisation, all decision-making powers were concentrated in the central government (Max, 1991). The Tanzania Local Government Reforms (LGRP), which began in 1998 aimed at transferring resources and decision-making power from central to local government to make the LGAs more autonomous (Kigume & Maluka, 2018). In the delivery of secondary education, the decentralisation focused on the total transfer of the decision-making power from the then Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) to the LGAs and to schools through school boards (Masue 2014; URT 2006). The decentralisation reforms in secondary education were guided by the Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP) under phase one (SEDP I) as well as the phase two (SEDP II); along with the Education and Training Policy (ETP) of 1995; and implemented under the general framework of the Local Government Reform Programme (LGRP) (URT, 2009, 2010). The Secondary Education Development Programme II (SEDP II) is a continuation of SEDP I, which was implemented between 2004 and 2009.

Despite those efforts, Tandahimba and Mtwara districts in Tanzania have been ranking among the lowest in the national examinations results of form two and four for the last five years. In form four national examinations of 2016, Tandahimba District Council (TDC) ranked 163rd among 178 districts. In 2017 and 2018, the district ranked 160th among 178 districts and 185th among 185 districts respectively. Also, in 2019 the district still occupied the lowest position of 169th among 195 districts in the country. Similarly, Mtwara District Council (MDC) in form four examinations of 2016, 2017 and 2018 ranked 146th, 116th and 161st respectively.

In 2019, the district occupied 154th position. Though there were some improvements from 2016 to 2017 and 2018 to 2019, but still the results

were not inspiring. Also, in form two national exams TDC and MDC ranked among the lowest by occupying 166th and 165th positions respectively in 2017. In 2018 and 2019, their positions were still very low as TDC ranked 182nd and 169th and MDC ranked 145th and 148th respectively. Besides, the nine schools located in Mtwara Region, which had low performance in the national form two results of 2016, five schools were from TDC and two schools were from MDC (NECTA, 2016b).

Banking on the above situation, several questions remain unanswered as to why the performance of secondary schools students in the selected districts is of that status despite the implementation of decentralisation. Therefore, institutional framework structure is vital in examining how these interactions between the actors such as principals and agents are conducted. In this study, LGA's autonomous power provided by decentralisation on decision-making to plan and execute their activities and budget was examined. The aim was to understand local government policies and laws, systems, structures and practices that govern education delivery in Tanzania. The study thought it was important to find out whether the schools and district councils were free to make and implement their decisions at the local level without interference from politicians, the regional office and central government because the interferences affect policy's effect on access, equity, availability, quantity, quality, and the general delivery of education.

2.0   Theory of Change

The theory of change emerged in the 1990s, and it was first used by the famous methodologist Caros Weiss in evaluating community programmes. According to Weiss (1995), the Theory of Change uncovers the assumptions we make about what is possible in reaching a long-term

goal. Based on scholars' views, Ito (2018) argued that human challenges are multifaceted; therefore, it is tremendously imperative that there are need for theoretical shifts and societal actions to transform traditional institutions. As a result, decentralisation is currently adopted by many countries as an approach to empower individual schools to adapt to changes and enhance quality education delivery toward improved academic performance.

The Theory of Change in this study was used to understand how decentralisation is expected to lead to a specific development change that is delivery of high-quality education, evidenced by the way government reforms have transformed institutional framework arrangements for improved education services delivery in TDC and MDC, Tanzania. It is expected that if the desired aspirations of decentralisation implementers or actors are articulated and communicated to the lower level of the community then all education actors such as school board, school management, parents, students, and LGAs would play their roles effectively to achieve the long-term goals of high performance in schools.

Theory of Change, hence, helps to explain how activities such as upgrading the physical infrastructure at schools, giving of monetary and other non-pecuniary resources, supervision of the staff and the national curriculum are effectively implemented to produce a series of results that contribute to achieving the improved education service delivery. Therefore, it is considered important to employ the Theory of Change to better understand the possible changes that have happened in education services delivery with a particular focus on student's academic performance in the study area. However, the theory does not explain how decentralisation evolves through the relinquishing of some powers from

the central government to LGAs. It does not explicate the implementation and influence of decentralisation to the community, especially in SE delivery. Thus, a need for the principal-agency theory arises.

2.1   Power in Implementation of Academic Plans

Moreover, Sow and Razafimahefa (2015) argued that the decentralisation process requires the adequate political and institutional environment to improve public service delivery. Such conditions include effective autonomy of LGAs, strong accountability at various levels of institutions, good governance and strong capacity at the local level to implement their development and social services provision plans. Governance arrangements are the major tools for improving quality in all aspects of education service delivery, and they make institutions become more effective (Hénard & Mitterle, 2010). The central government, LGAs, school boards, parents, teachers and students are key elements and tools for monitoring the quality of education service delivery. Therefore, it is argued that an institutional framework is the most useful tool to enable schools to produce their annual academic and development plans and involve teachers and students in implementing their plans (European Commission, 2018). However, Oduro et al. (2008) found that school management does not have much power to make strategic academic decisions for school achievement.

2.2   Resource Mobilisation and Budgeting

In his study about decentralised education in SSA countries, Naidoo (2002) established that authority is mostly held at the centre. Naidoo's study found that some countries tried to delegate the resource generation responsibilities to the local units to trim down the government budget burden while maintaining the power to decide how the resources are to be

used. As a result, the use of their own (local units of government) resources was controlled by several laws and procedures from the central government. Similar results were observed in Nepal where the central government had decided to involve the local community in the administration of public schools for the sake of reducing its resource constraints (Carney et al., 2007). Kessy and Mushi (2018) found that in Tanzania implementation of decentralisation is constrained by two major factors, namely: poor government commitment and failure to provide enough resources control to LGAs to execute the roles and functions stipulated in the guidelines. Anosisye (2017) explored the perception of councillors on their exercise of fiscal decision-making authority in local government authorities in Tanzania. The findings show that the council exercises reasonable authority over revenue mobilisation, the setting of the local tax rates and full expenditure authority over the locally generated revenue and the discretionary grants.

2.3 Recruitment and Curriculum Development and Implementation

Lameck (2017) noted that in Tanzania LGRP I, in 1999, granted full authority to the local government over its local staff. However, this authority was step-by-step curtailed by the Public Service Act of 2004 and a series of Public Service Regulations (Tidemand & Msami, 2010). A 2007 revision of the Public Service Act established a centralized recruitment system operated by the Public Service Recruitment Secretariat. The centralised system of recruitment and management of the local staff has two consequences. The first is that, it limits the control of the local council over the local administration. It cannot simply fire local administrators, who underperform nor can it organize the local administration. The second consequence of the centralized system of

human resources management is that the career of senior officials entirely depends on how they perform from the perspective of central government and on good relations with central government officials, and/or national politicians (Lameck, 2017). This might have been a reason why politically biased decisions have been implemented more quickly than professional-based decisions.

Lavonen (2017) describes that under education decentralisation, the preparation of local curriculum in Finland involves LGAs and teachers as important stakeholders. LGAs and schools localise the national aims and content and describe how education should be organised. In the UK, Bush (2016) reported that the implementation of the national curriculum is monitored through an inspection process overseen by the statutory Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted). Schools have to follow Ofsted expectations closely. This means that the schools' visions have to conform to centralised expectations. A distinction can be made between what schools should do, which is prescribed, and how they choose to do it, which is discretionary. While the English system has several self-managing features in curriculum development and implementation, the core activities are centrally prescribed. In Tanzania, institutional arrangements in curriculum development are rather restricted as power remains at the centre Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST). The Tanzanian educational system uses one national curriculum in both public and private schools (Sumra & Katabaro, 2014). Mulwa, Kimiti, Kituka and Muema (2011) reported that after decentralisation in 2005, decision-making on issues relating to quality assurance and standards and curriculum design falls under the then Ministry of Education.

2.4   Conceptual Framework

In a conceptual framework, it is depicted that delegation of academic-related decision-making power, financial resources mobilisation and budgeting recruitment and curriculum development and implementation play an indispensable role in determining how best a school would deliver better education, which in the end, bring about changes in school and students' performance.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework for Institutional Arrangement and Delivery of Education

Institutional arrangement   **Delivery of education**

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┌──────────────────────────────────┐
│ Academic related decision-making │
│ power                            │
└──────────────────────────────────┘                    ┌────────────────────────────────┐
                                                         │ • Students' academic performance │
┌──────────────────────────────────┐                    │   (Pass rates)                   │
│ Financial resources mobilisation and │                └────────────────────────────────┘
│ budgeting                        │
└──────────────────────────────────┘

┌──────────────────────────────────┐
│ Recruitment and curriculum       │
│ development and implementation   │
└──────────────────────────────────┘
```
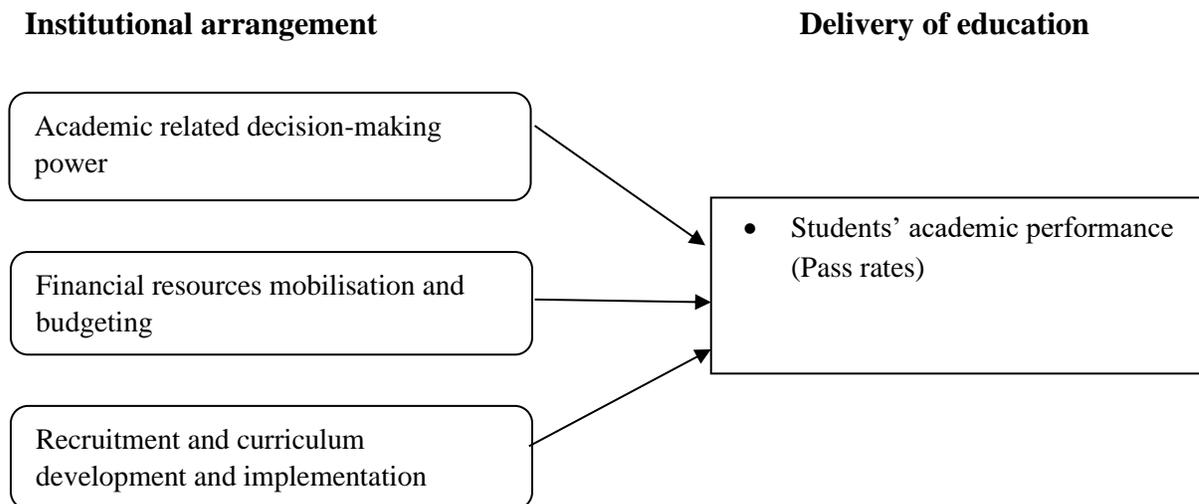
Source: Reviewed Literature, 2020

3.0   Materials and Methods

Based on the realm of the objectives of this study, pragmatism philosophy was used as it is based on a mixed-methods approach (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Pham, 2018). The design of this study was a cross-sectional explanatory design, because data were captured at one point in time due to time and resource constraints (Kothari, 2009). Moreover, the explanatory design was chosen to explain the influence of decentralisation

on the delivery of education (Denscombe, 2010). Thus, decentralisation as a social phenomenon was assessed under the pragmatism philosophy by applying scientific principles of quantitative and qualitative research.

The study was conducted in TDC and MDC both located in Mtwara Region, the Southern Part of the United Republic of Tanzania. The population for this study included all secondary schools teachers, parents, secondary school students, District Executive Directors (DEDs), Regional Education Officers (REO), District Secondary Education Officers (DSEOs), Ward Education Officers (WEOs), District Education Inspectors (DEI) and Councillors in MDC and TDC respectively. The reason for choosing these education actors is the fact that they are well-informed and possess good knowledge about the implementation of decentralisation policy in LGAs and secondary schools' education in particular.

In getting the key informants of the study, the researcher applied both probability and non-probability sampling techniques. Purposive sampling technique, as a non-probability sampling method, was applied to choose the studied areas (TDC and MDC) and the key informants (2 DEDs, 2 DSEOs, 2 DEIs, and REO) due to the declining academic performance of secondary school students (NECTA, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019 & 2020). Moreover, Councillors, WEOs, and 50 parents (25 in MDC and 25 in TDC) were purposively selected because they are crucial actors in the management of education. Likewise, the study conveniently selected 16 parents (8 in TDC and 8 in MDC) and 10 teachers (5 in TDC and 5 in MDC) who willingly participated due to several reasons including better precision of collected data, cost and time-saving. However, heads of schools, academic teachers and other teachers were selected by using a

systematic random sampling technique, which is the type of probability sampling technique that ensures the selection of an unbiased sample from a pool of the targeted population.

According to Denscombe (2010) and Kothari (2009), the determination of the sample size for quantitative or qualitative data depends on the size of the population and the accuracy of the estimates to be studied. To ensure that the sample size was appropriate to represent the opinions of the target population, the sample size was 256 mining SMEs. The returned questionnaires were 229. The number of unusable questionnaires was equivalent to 10.55%, which is less than 15% and hence ignorable (Hair et al., 2006).

Quantitative data were collected by using a questionnaire method. The researcher ensured content validity in the questionnaire through pre-testing and conducting a pilot study. Moreover, internal consistency was tested using Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the reliability of data collected using a prepared questionnaire. As a rule of thumb, the values above 0.7 represent an acceptable level of internal reliability (Cohen et al., 2007). The Cronbach's alpha for a variable institutional arrangement with 8 items was found to be '0.637' below the required standard value of 0.7. Then two items were deleted to accommodate the level of Cronbach's alpha to meet the requirement value. Thus, items 'to recruit teachers' and 'to formulate subjects' curriculum' were deleted and the Cronbach's alpha rose to 0.729 (Table 1).

Table 1: Cronbach's Alphas Values and Number of Items for each Construct

Indicators/items	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
Institutional arrangement	.729	8

Source: Field Data, 2020

Questionnaires which were distributed to study respondents were administered by the researcher and a research assistant. They were also analysed by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 21.0, which is a user-friendly in analysing and presenting statistical data (Landau & Everitt, 2004).

Moreover, the qualitative data were gathered through in-depth interviews and FGD and analysed by thematic analysis to discover patterns of frequent themes and sub-themes. The aim was to be able to entirely understand the process of decentralisation and its impact on the delivery of education so as to put forward proposals for change in the management of the education system, which will lead to a better society (Hammersley, 2013). The reliability of qualitative data was taken into consideration. The essence of reliability for qualitative research lies in consistency (Grossoehme, 2014; Miller, 1986). In this study, the researcher ensured the reliability of qualitative through constant comparison to verify the accuracy of data to validate the different sources where data came from (George & Apler, 2004; Patton, 1999). However, data comparison was initiated during the data analysis phase through the interpretation and reporting of the results. Furthermore, comprehensive references to qualitative aspects were made throughout the research as suggested by Patton (1999).

4.0   Results and Discussions

4.1   Academic-Related Decision-making Power and Process

This section examines whether schools and LGAs were free to plan and execute their academic improvement strategies without interference from other institutions dealing with education management. Table 2 summarises the measures of central tendency, mean and standard deviation of all items of institution arrangement, while Table 3 presents frequency and percentages.

Table 2: Mean and Standard Deviation of Schools' Academic Authority (N=229)

S/N	Indicator/parameter	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)
1	The school is free to plan and execute its academic improvement strategies	4	1	5	4.2096	.88342
2	School has the power to make their own strategic decisions	4	1	5	3.9782	1.05733
3	Without interference schools identify and implement projects such as infrastructure development/income-generating activity	4	1	5	3.9607	.96574

Source: Field Data 2020

The results in Table 1 indicate that the item, which says *"The school is free to plan and execute its academic improvement strategies"* scored the highest average of 4.21 (SD=.8834; range 1-5). This item has little dispersion and variability around the mean of the data set, on average. So, the values in the statistical data set are close to the mean of a sample population. The mean score value suggests that secondary schools'

management is free to plan and execute its academic improvement strategies. Furthermore, the item that asks *"Without interference, schools identify and implement projects such as infrastructure development/income generating activity"* averaged 3.96 (SD=0.9657, range 1-5) signifying that the item possesses consistent data. This means scores fall under the scale category of 'agree'. Thus, the implication is that the surveyed secondary school teachers and DSEOs agreed that schools have the power to identify and implement their projects. Though the item *"School has the power to make their strategic decisions"* had shown high variability, it averaged 3.98 (SD=1.0573, range 1-5), which proposes that teachers and education officers in TDC and MDC agreed that school has the power to make their strategic decisions.

Table 3: Frequency Distribution of Schools' Academic Authority (N=229)

	Indicator/parameter	SD N(%)	D N(%)	NT N(%)	A N(%)	SA N(%)
1	The school is free to plan and execute its academic improvement strategies	4(1.7)	9(3.9)	19(8.3)	100(43.7)	97(42.4)
2	School has the power to make their own strategic decisions	5(2.2)	24(10.5)	28(12.2)	86(37.6)	86(37.6)
3	Without interference schools identify and implement projects such as infrastructure development/income-generating activity	5(2.2)	17(7.4)	30(13.1)	107(46.7)	70(30.6)

Key: A=Agree, D=Disagree, NT=Neutral, SA=Strongly Agree, and SD=Strongly Disagree.

Source: Field Data 2020

The results in Table 3 indicate that 75.2% of surveyed teachers were happy that schools possess some autonomy in strategic decision-making, while about 12.2% were dissatisfied because their decision-making power

was limited. Moreover, the findings showed that 86.1% of the respondents were satisfied with the power schools' have to plan and execute their academic improvement strategies in the respective LGAs. Those who agreed were 43.70% and 42.40% strongly agreed that schools had much freedom to plan and execute their strategies to improve academic performance hence no interference from other institutions such as district councils, school boards, community, political leaders, ward/village development committee and even parents. However, 5.6% of the participants were not pleased with the schools' freedom to plan and execute their strategies aimed at improving the school's and students' academic performance in Mtwara Region. In the case of identifying and implementing projects such as infrastructure development and income-generating activities, 77.3% were pleased to report that schools were identified and implemented projects without interference.

Institutional arrangement in decentralisation aimed to improve the coordination of education delivery to ensure better access, quality and delivery of secondary education by expanding the administration capacity of LGAs through resource management, construction of infrastructures and provision of equipment to schools. This arrangement includes linkage between and among organisations at the local, state/provincial, and national levels. They also include the involvement of non-governmental education stakeholders and the local community.

The findings entail that that schools had much freedom to plan and execute their strategies to improve academic performance hence no interference from other institutions such as district councils, school boards, community, political leaders and even parents. The decentralisation policy intended to ensure that every institution plays its

role in making sure that quality education is delivered to improve the academic performance of students, which was in a fragile state in the two selected LGAs and Mtwara Region in general.

The finding was also corroborated and validated by DSEOs of the two selected LGAs during semi-structured interviews. They reported that the LGAs had the power to implement their strategies to ensure quality education is delivered to secondary school students to improve their academic performance. So, in a similar capacity, they can also give directives to lower levels and provide advice to higher levels regarding the best ways to manage education. However, the information which was provided during the focus group discussion with teachers at Nanguruwe in MDC was quite the opposite as teachers claimed to not have power to make strategic decisions in improving the academic status of their schools.

These findings corroborated with John's study (2015), which reported that school autonomous decisions concerning education development strategies such as learning programmes like remedial classes for the classes, which have National Examinations, are limited. Proponents of school autonomy advocate that greater freedom and autonomy for school is the route to genuine and lasting achievement in education (Carlitz, 2016). However, regardless of the importunate and growing importance of school autonomy in Tanzania, most secondary schools teachers consider themselves significantly constrained by the LGAs and government's requirements. This 'constrained autonomy' does not feature well the institution's arrangement, since the central has more power than the local. Therefore, it is a study's take that institutional arrangement in Tanzania has, to some extent, helped the implementation of

decentralisation policy in education by providing schools with some decision-making power on some matters, thus, improving delivery of secondary school education in the selected LGAs.

4.2   Resource Mobilisation and Budgeting

In this sub-section, the results of the parameters, which are geared to execute the school budget, procure services such as contractors, procure equipment and resource mobilisation and identification and implementation of income-generating projects are interpreted and discussed. Under the said parameters, the study undertook to examine whether schools and LGAs possess the power to mobilise and use financial resources at their discretion. The results in Table 4 shows that the item "School procure equipment without interference" averaged 3.68 (SD=.9682, range 1-5). The data shows less variability, and so the data are close to the mean of the population. Thus, the proposition is that teachers and education officers in TDC and MDC agree that schools procure equipment without interference.

Table 4: Mean and Standard Deviation of Resource Mobilisation and Budgeting (N=229)

S/N	Indicator/parameter	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)
1	The school has autonomous power in planning and implementing its budget	3	2	5	3.6114	1.15168
2	Schools exercise freedom in purchasing services such as building contractors	4	1	5	3.6376	1.19376

| 3 | School procures equipment without interference | 4 | 1 | 5 | 3.6812 | .9682 |
| 4 | The school has the power to mobilise their resources the way it sees fit | 4 | 1 | 5 | 3.7162 | 1.08932 |

Source: Field Data 2020

However, three items showed high variability, which includes *"School has the power to mobilise its resources the way it sees fit"* averaged 3.72 (SD=1.0893, range 1-5), *"School exercise freedom in purchasing services such as building contractors"* which averaged 3.64 (SD1.1938, range 1-5) and *"School has autonomous power in planning and implementing its budget"* which averaged 3.61 (SD=1.1517; range 2-5). Still, the three parameters' averages imply that, teachers and education officers agreed that schools have the power to mobilise their resources the way they sees fit, schools exercise freedom in purchasing services such as building contractors, and schools have autonomous power in planning and implementing their budgets.

Table 5: Frequency Distribution of Resource Mobilisation and Budgeting (N=229)

S/N	Indicator/parameter	SD N(%)	D N(%)	NT N(%)	A N(%)	SA N(%)
1	The school has autonomous power in planning and implementing its budget	-	65(28.4)	18(07.9)	87(38)	59(25.8)
2	Schools exercise freedom in purchasing services such as building contractors	9(3.9)	41(17.9)	42(18.3)	69(30.1)	68(29.7)
3	School procures equipment without interference	7(3.1)	23(10)	44(19.2)	117(51.7)	38(16.6)
4	The school has the power to mobilise their resources the way it sees fit	8(3.5)	32(14)	33(14.4)	100(43.7)	56(24.5)

Key: A=Agree, D=Disagree, NT=Neutral, SA=Strongly Agree, and SD=Strongly Disagree.

Source: Field Data 2020

In determining the extent of resource mobilisation and budgeting decentralisation, the results in Table 5 pointed out that 63.8% of surveyed teachers were satisfied that decentralisation provided schools with the power to execute the school budgets without being interfered with by other institutions. Those who agreed were 38% and 25.8% strongly agreed that schools had much freedom to execute their budget. Those who were dissatisfied were 28.4% because schools' power to execute their budget was limited. Regarding the item which says *"Schools exercise freedom in purchasing services such as building contractors"*, the results in Table 4 showed that 59.8% of the respondents were happy with schools' power or autonomy to procure services, while 21.8% were unhappy.

In the case of parameter, to procure equipment, 68.3% of the participants were pleased that the schools have the power to procure equipment. Furthermore, the results for the parameter 'resource mobilisation' showed that 68.2% of respondents agreed that schools have autonomous power to mobilise resources on their own as contributions from community members, parents and other well-wishers. Similarly, 68.2% of respondents were satisfied that schools had the power to identify and implement income-generating projects. This implies that although the schools have the power to sdecide their income and expenditure, the authority was less inspiring.

These findings were confirmed and validated by MDC-DEOs during in-depth interviews. The DSEOs presented two major points of view as to why they more often than not did think they had no considerable

budgeting powers; they pointed to the fact that the budget must be inspected and agreed upon by the central government which provides over 90% of most LGAs in Tanzania and the second is the requirement of the LGAs to put up with the budgeting procedures provided by PO-RALG annually. So, the view of this study is that the LGAs have some substantial but not impressive power over their budget. Under decentralisation, the objective of delegating power to schools and LGAs to mobilise and use financial resources (fiscal decentralisation) was to reduce wastage of funds to ensure funds were put into proper use.

Fiscal decentralisation is the set of rules that defines roles and responsibilities among different levels of government for fiscal functions including planning and budget preparation, budget execution, revenue generation and intergovernmental allocation of budgetary resources (Frank & Martinez-Vazquez, 2011). Fiscal decentralisation is the blood veins at the heart of any decentralized local government system as the policy defines the creation and allocation of financial resources between and within different government levels, which are utilised to respond to citizens' demands.

Decentralisation policy in education aimed at giving schools and LGAs power over their financial resources to increase effectiveness and efficiency in the delivery of education. By the subsidiarity principle, the financing of public sector functions should be performed by the lowest level of government that can do so efficiently. Thus, fiscal decentralisation in education is intended to make sure that schools and LGAs mobilise and spend their financial resources efficiently by transferring financial decision-making power to schools and LGAs. As a result, the central government is currently disbursing funds directly to

schools' accounts to make sure they are obtained in full and promptly (Day & Sammons, 2014). According to Carlitz (2016), formerly the funds were channelled through district councils to schools. In this way, a lot of funds were misused and schools ended up getting less than the targeted amount distributed by the central government (Twaweza, 2012).

Unlike Boex and Yilmaz (2010) and Anosisye (2017) who found that LGAs or schools had less authority to procure than budgetary power, the findings of the current study indicated that schools have more expenditure power than budgetary power. This could be because the fund from the central government is nowadays disbursed directly to schools' bank accounts. The findings from FGDs with teachers at Nanguruwe divulged that the schools are free to buy the equipment they need as long as they get approved by DSEO and buy from authorised dealers. Correspondingly, in interviews with DSEOs and DEDs of MDC and TDC, they corroborated the findings about schools' and LGAs' procurement power.

The general view of the study based on the descriptive findings depicted that schools and LGAs have some decision-making power regarding to mobilisation and budgeting of their resources. As per government regulations, the expenditure process must follow the articulated procedures on how to use public funds. The lower levels must secure approval from the presiding office. For example, schools had to secure approval from DSEO, which also is under REO. The schools involve the parents and general community via the school board in the decision-making process regarding resource mobilisation and budgeting. Thus, it is a study's take that the institution's arrangement was not constraining the decision-making process in the case of resource mobilisation and

expenditure. Therefore, every institution has to play its role in making sure that quality education is delivered to improve the academic performance of students in MDC and TDC.

4.3 Recruitment, Curriculum Development and Implementation

In this sub-section, the results of the items; to recruit teachers, formulate a subject curriculum, and implement a curriculum are interpreted and discussed. Under these parameters, the study undertook to examine whether schools and LGAs possess the power to recruit teachers and formulate curricula at their discretion. In Table 4.5, the results of the parameter that asks if *"School is involved in curriculum implementations"* recorded a high average of 4.08 (SD=.9087, range 1-5) signifying that data variability around the mean is very small, and that surveyed secondary school teachers and DSEOs strongly agreed that secondary school management was involved in the implementation of the curriculum. Thus, curriculum implementation is among the variables of successful decentralisation.

On the contrary, the item *"School has the power to recruit teaching staff/teachers"* scored 1.73 (SD=.8421, range 1-4) and *"School is involved in curriculum formulation and development"* scored 1.76 (SD=.8929, range 1-4) exhibit moderate variability around the population mean. The mean values imply that schools do not have the power to recruit teaching staff or teachers, and also the schools are not involved in curriculum formulation and development. Regarding these parameters surveyed teachers of secondary schools and DSEOs, disagreed the schools had the power to recruit teachers, and that the schools were involved in curriculum formulation and development. So, recruitment and curriculum

formulation and development were found to restrict the impact of decentralisation on education delivery.

Table 5: Mean and Standard Deviation of Recruitment and Curriculum (N=229)

S/N	Indicator/parameter	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean (M)	Standard deviation (SD)
1	The school has the power to recruit teaching staff/teachers	3	1	4	1.7249	.84206
2	School is involved in curriculum formulation and development	3	1	4	1.7598	.89293
3	School is involved in curriculum implementations	4	1	5	4.0873	.90867

Source: Field Data 2020

Decentralised recruitment enables LGAs to get the right employees who possess the needed skills, education qualifications and experience. Decentralised recruitment and selection has widely been regarded as a substitute way of increasing effectiveness, efficacy and equality in the employment of LGA's human resources. In the case of curriculum development, the goal of decentralisation is to formulate a curriculum that reflects the cultural settings of the learners as well as national and international objectives. As a result, in many countries in the present day, curricula are undergoing modifications in favour of local, national and global objectives aimed at improving the academic performance of students. Secondary school curriculum in Tanzania, for instance, has been modified six times between 1961 and 2020 as the country passes through social, economic, cultural, and political changes. Let us start by discussing decentralised recruitment and then we will discuss the curriculum development and implementation.

Table 6: Frequency Distribution of Recruitment and Curriculum (N=229)

S/N	Indicator/parameter	SD N(%)	D N(%)	NT N(%)	A N(%)	SA N(%)
1	The school has the power to recruit teaching staff/teachers	109(47.6)	86(37.6)	22(9.6)	12(5.2)	-
2	School is involved in curriculum formulation and development	106(46.3)	91(39.7)	13(5.7)	19(8.3)	-
3	School is involved in curriculum implementations	-	19(8.3)	28(12.2)	96(41.9)	86(37.6)

Source: Field Data 2020

Regarding the extent recruitment of local government staff is decentralised Table 6 established that the surveyed teachers and education officers disagreed by 85.2% that the decentralisation policy provides autonomous power to schools and LGAs to recruit their staff. The findings imply that human resource recruitment is centralised. The analysis through triangulation of data obtained from secondary sources and the key informants (i.e., DED, DSEOs and REO) validated the findings that recruitment of local government personnel including teachers is nowadays conducted by central government and even the power of teachers' deployment and allocation, which remained with LGAs, has recently also been taken by the central government via MoEST and/or the ministry under PO-RALG. Focused group discussions with teachers corroborated the results.

In this regard, the discussion and analysis established that recruitment is tightly centralised as the central government does not involve the LGAs or any education actors to identify and estimate the number of teachers required, needed skills, qualifications and experience. So, the full

autonomy of recruiting teachers in Tanzania rests in the hands of the central government due to the poor performance of the decentralised system (Lameck, 2015). In one way or another, it has resulted in poor delivery of education and academic performance as Ngamesha (2013) iterated that "where devolution requirements are provided the effects (academic performance) are good, while where the requirements are not adequately provided the effects of devolution are not realized." The amelioration of such a state of affairs calls for revised coordination mechanisms among education stakeholders to warrant effective decentralised recruitment and education delivery improvement.

The findings coincided with Mbora (2014) who found that recruitment of permanent employees in Moshi District Council was not decentralised. In addition, while Nigeria has shared responsibilities between federal and local governments, still recruitment and deployment of secondary school teachers are still fully controlled by the federal government. On the contrary, in a neighbouring country Kenya, M'Nkanata (2012) disclosed that teacher recruitment and management is by regional government using central government guidelines. Brosio (2014) revealed that most Asian countries such as the Philippines, Indonesia, Cambodia and the Republic of Korea undertake central recruitment of teachers in secondary schools. Besides, Daba (2010) in Ethiopia and Carlitz and Boex (2017) in Tanzania found similar results.

Similar to many countries worldwide, during the past two decades, Tanzania engaged in LGRP, which intended, among other things, to increase efficiency in the recruitment of local government personnel by giving power to local government councils to recruit and discipline their human resources (Lameck, 2015). However, due to poor performance of

local government, the central government took over and retained the power to hire and fire local government staff. The LGA recruitment process was influenced by informal social rules together with socio-cultural factors, ethnicity differences, nepotism, corruption, tribalism (Njovu, 2013; Kinemo, 2015), and unequal personnel distribution between rural and urban, on one hand, and well-off and poor councils, in the other (URT, 2012), and lack of accountability, incentive and capacity of local actors (Lameck, 2015). LGAs are in addition considerably limited in local human resource administration (Carlitz & Boex 2017).

Theory of Change argues that human challenges are complex and dynamic, and thus require theoretical and practical shifts as well as social movements to transform established institutions. The theory helps to understand the historical context of educational decentralisation and its challenges and then extends on these paradigms to understand the extent the desired quality of education delivery change has been achieved and how these achievements are translated into students' academic performance. The Principal-Agency Theory shows a shift and transformation in the light of the relationships between the central and local governments. The success of the relationship between the CG and LGAs depends on the level of decentralisation of power and decision-making from CG and LGAs. Therefore, local government reforms are viewed as processes whereby institutional framework structures adopt decentralisation policy for improved education services delivery. Under this framework, boundaries of the institutions' roles, obligations and prohibitions are defined.

The institutional structure in the recruitment of LGA's personnel in Tanzania means public administration, which establishes the rules and

guidelines for the recruitment of LGA's personnel. Also, it includes unofficial social rules and traditions of conduct which channel the actions of officials and politicians concerned with the process of recruitment of LGA's human resources. The main legislation governing the recruitment and selection of local personnel includes the Public Service Act No. 8 of 2002 and its amendment Act No. 18 of 2007, which grants power to the president of Tanzania to appoint city directors while providing the minister responsible for local government power to appoint town, municipal and district councils' directors and heads of departments. Also, the Public Service Regulations of 2003, the Public Service Scheme of 2003 and the standing Order of 2009 are legislations, which govern the recruitment of LGA's personnel.

Back to the case of curriculum development, Table 6 shows that 86% of the teachers disagreed that the existing policy and laws on decentralisation empower them to participate in the formulation of a national curriculum or their curriculum. Regarding curriculum implementation, the results in Table 6 indicate that 79.5% of surveyed teachers were pleased that schools and teachers were free to implement the specified curriculum. During the FGD, the study was informed that teachers had not been actively involved in the development of the secondary education curriculum. Their opinions did not matter because the officers from TIE and MoEST did not give them a chance to give their concerns about the proposed curriculum, which had been brought up for discussion. The officers had their resolved stand regarding the curriculum and were not ready for changes. Moreover, in-depth interviews of selected respondents in the study corroborated the above findings that the level of autonomy of schools and LGAs in curriculum development is negligible. All powers are bestowed to the

central government through the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) and the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST).

In a review of secondary information to validate the findings, the study revealed that the degree of autonomy of LGAs is doubtful due to overlaps in the powers and authority between the two levels of government. Conflicts in the functions and responsibilities between the central government and LGAs in the formulation and implementation of curriculum, hence, cause inadequate curriculum formulation and implementation. HakiElimu (2016) observed poor academic performance of secondary students' result of inadequate and overcrowded curriculum. Teachers blame MoEST and TIE for not training them to handle the curriculum properly, while the central government blame LGAs for not supervising teachers properly during curriculum implementation (Koissaba, 2018). Attention must be provided to the significance attached to institutional arrangements and interactions for decentralisation for fostering education delivery.

These explanations entail that plans to decentralise are essentially affected by the institutional arrangements in Tanzania. Scholars iterated that the majority of decentralisation reforms either faulted in their institutional design or central governments have not decentralised adequate authority and funds to LGAs to facilitate them contain considerable achievement in education delivery. Considering the institutional arrangements in curriculum formulation and implementations, the LGAs are under the Ministry of Regional Administration and Local Government but curriculum and standards are formulated and issued by the then Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT), while implementation and their adherence is done at the level of LGAs. Needless to say, the

aspects of implementation of curriculum from central government through LGAs become spiritless and the general public suffers the consequences in terms of poor education delivery and hence deteriorating academic performance.

With regard to curriculum development, the findings of this study concurred with a study by Carltiz and McGee (2013) that assessed and documented the impact of Hakielimu's advocacy work on education policy and budget in Tanzania. The findings revealed that the curriculum is formulated by the central government and implemented by the local government. The analogous results were later put forward by Kopweh (2014) and Lameck (2017). Similarly, the findings from selected LGAs conform to the study conducted by Koissaba (2018), which indicated that curriculum development is the obligation of the central government and the implementation is done by teachers, who are barely equipped. The findings revealed that the national curriculum in Tanzania is not competent enough to educate students to be competitive in the modern world and amid these teachers are blamed for poor academic performances while even schools that have an acceptable number of qualified teachers were also poor.

5.0   Conclusion and Recommendations

The results depict that schools and LGAs had demonstrated a high degree of power to plan and execute their academic improvement strategies, and highly been involved in curriculum implementations, school has the power to make their strategic decisions, and without interference, school identify and implement projects such as infrastructure development/income generating activities. However, schools' authority and freedom in planning and implementing its budget; freedom in

purchasing services such as building contractors; procuring equipment; and power to mobilise its resources the way it sees fit, were found to be less, whereas they lack authority in recruitment of teachers and curriculum formulation and development. Various institutional frameworks and guiding principles are in disagreement with the driving force to advance the delivery of education.

The study findings imply that schools have enough decision-making space compared to LGAs. Based on the findings, this study concludes that institutional arrangement in terms of authority and division of responsibilities does not very much allow for lower levels (LGAs and schools) to possess much power as stipulated in decentralisation policy and SEDP-II. Thus, poor delivery of education might be attributed to this because when schools want to implement their plans, they submit them to DEO for approval, which sometimes hinders its implementation if it does not fall under LGAs' priorities. Similarly, DSEOs also have to request permission from the respective Ministry whenever they want to implement a plan. If LGAs' plans do not fit within the national priorities' framework, the Ministry will never approve them. Thus, policymakers should attend to the institutional framework to bring into line the existing imbalances in central government-schools-local government relations by redefining the relationship, functions and roles of central and local governments as institutions.

Thus, based on the findings of this study and the overview of the implementation process of decentralisation and its influence on education delivery, the study makes the following recommendations: There is a need for the government to consider reviewing legal frameworks and institutional set-up to address the problem of conflicts on roles and

responsibility between central government and LGAs. At this point, there is a need for more commitment and political will from both the central government and political leadership for successful decentralisation and improved education delivery.

The reforms need to be wide-ranging to wrap up both systems, structures, processes and the people that are involved in the adoption and implementation. Effective participation and accountability mechanisms are needed. All of these enable the government, shortly, to identify the hurdles of decentralisation at both national and local levels and thus redesign the decentralisation policy to allow smooth delivery of quality education, which reflects the available resources and government structures. This will ultimately improve the outcome of decentralisation on the delivery of quality education.

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The Mission and Intentions of the Wahehe Sayings in Tanzania

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Abstract
This article examines the meanings and intentions of the Wahehe sayings in Tanzania. The primary data used in this article are sayings collected in the Wahehe community in Boma la Ng'ombe and Ng'ang'ange wards, Kilolo District, Iringa Region. Kihehe and Kiswahili were used in the interview, discussions and transcription of data. The analysis and discussion of data presented in this article were guided by Sociological theory. The results show that sayings are considered basic human actions, and they are one of the stable traditional institutions that are given a wide field in implementing, guiding and providing education about the behaviours and directions needed in a society. The themes examined are used as a source of reference for social, political and economic issues. They were used as a solid traditional link that builds a system to train, strengthen and keep society together in the foundations of culture and the whole philosophy of life from ancient times until now. This article concludes that research should be done in all branches of oral literature to determine the values and actions contained in them for the benefit of the present and future generations.

Keywords: Intentions, Sayings, Sociological Theory, Mission, Wahehe

1.0   Introduction
This article examines the meanings and intentions of Wahehe sayings in Tanzania. Phrases are oral literary compositions that are short and use images, metaphors and symbols. They are concepts that are used to describe phrases that use the language of pictures, signs and metaphors to carry meaningful content that is consistent with various language usage clauses (Bernald, 2012; Wanjala, 2013). In addition, they compare life

with events or things as well as introduce a specific environment through the relevant literary work. Sayings has been working to portray life and deal with issues concerning humans as well as the way they interact with their environment. Furthermore, they are viewed as a treasure of heritage loaded with wisdom and knowledge of the community concerned. The knowledge gained is one of the basic things that build society to be able to move on in life.

Artistically, one of the ways of expressing and implying what one thinks in the Wahehe community manifests itself in the use of various genres of oral literature, including sayings (Madumulla, 1995). Speeches are viewed as basic human actions. The convergence of society and its sayings can be confirmed historically and temporally. Every culture that is known in various societies of the world has its sayings that can be determined, examined and verified. This situation is due to the existence of a great convergence between the sayings and the real daily life of the present and ancient man. They are dominated and considered as a tool to fight the movements of daily life in the concerned society. Many sayings are best according to the tradition of the community concerned. Literature is viewed as a social tool controlled by the needs of society at the time. The Wahehe community has been fully explored as it is linked to its literature as it is evident in its sayings.

In the Wahehe community, sayings are tied to the tradition of that community as they change depending on the needs of the audience and time. Traditional sayings are one of the instruments that are given a wide field in implementing, guiding and providing training about responsibility, behaviour, philosophy, culture, education, and community development (Hassan, 2010; Wamitila, 2008). This situation helps to

build and strengthen the strong foundations of culture, economy and culture of many communities in this country.

Phrases are accompanied by stable practices and change according to the context of the society in question. This foundation makes some scholars explore literature and focus on the social, geographical and historical context in understanding its culture and history through literary works. The Wahehe community has been fully explored as having a great place that is fully connected with its literature. The analysis of sayings in this article was based more on the cultural foundations of the daily life of the community. This article examines the motives of the sayings of the Wahehe community in Tanzania.

2.0   Theoretical Construction

The data discussion was guided by Sociological theory. The Sociological theory was founded by Hippolyte Taine in the middle of the 19th century in Europe (Wafula & Njogu, 2007). One of its foundations is to consider literature as the only unit capable of reflecting science and the culture of society controlled by social structures. The theory is used to face the literature in examining how it relates to the social environment. According to Mwakanjuki (2015), an artist cannot avoid the effects of the community in his composition because his literature is a specific product of his community. Literature is an expression of a society that cannot separate the truth from the reality of life in society.

According to this theory, literature is part of the real life of society and it is about people. Literature is a perfect portrayal that does not depict life in detail and examines it from a broad perspective (Ngw'aje, 2019). By referring to the basis of this theory, the researcher engaged in the study of

social forces related to artistic forces. The analysis considered that the work of literature is controlled by the existing structures in the society based on the relationship of the members of the society in their daily activities.

The sayings of the Wahehe community were viewed as a special product of a select community based on their history, their philosophy, their traditions and customs, their economy and their politics. Artistic forces refer to the intentions contained in the sayings of the studied society. Social forces refer to the intentions that emerge in the sayings of that society. The Wahehe community was placed in its normal and real-world to conduct a detailed analysis. It has been used to examine the existing relationship between literature and society by referring to the sayings of selected societies.

3.0   Materials and Methods

Primary data were obtained in the Iringa Region, Kilolo District in Boma la Ng'ombe (Boma la Ng'ombe and Lyamke) and Ng'ang'ange (Mdeke and Ng'ang'ange) wards. The target selection method was used to find selected districts, wards and villages. In the targeted villages, the Kihehe language is used more as they do not have much interaction with the cities where the Kiswahili language is used more.

4.0   Purpose of the Sayings of the Wahehe

Purpose is the total meaning that the author invents when he writes; with the meaning recognized by the reader or listener. The purpose is part of the content that directs us to a specific target from the beginning to the end of a literary work (Samandito, 2012). It is one of the elements that build composition and create content in a literary work. Content in a

literary work includes elements of purpose, philosophy, conflict, attitude, position and message. This article has presented the various themes contained in the sayings of selected communities as discussed in the following sections.

4.1   Responsibility, Effort and Knowledge

The issue of the importance of responsibility, effort and knowledge in the Wahehe community has been explained. The discussion of the mission was based on the foundations of Sociological theory which recognizes the broad role taken by the social context in the review of literary works based on the implementation of the conditions in the society. The saying that says *'you send them to work, and they send them to the fields'* (If you send children to the fields, they will send their children) means that if you send people to work unsupervised, they will be negligent and spoil what is being done. For example, if parents and guardians leave children to weed the crops in the field alone without supervision, the crops may be damaged. Parents should be responsible and supervise any activity that takes place to avoid things from being damaged. Employees have to work hard so that production can be good (Mwangosi, 2016 & 2019). Parents have the responsibility to teach their children work and ensure that what they have taught them they have done well by monitoring and correcting them morally.

In the saying that says *'Pamilau kirapiko'* (Morning is a patch) it means that any basic activity should be done in the morning to do it effectively. This situation is because during the day there is a feeling of fatigue due to the hot sun. For example, in agricultural activities, farmers start farming in the morning and go to finish the rest in the evening. In addition, it is good to be responsible in the morning to continue to cope with the various

challenges that may arise after the morning. This saying is similar to the one that says 'work in the morning, calculations in the evening' meaning that in the morning a person has enough energy after resting at night; and its time is very short, that's why they compared it to a patch. If you are responsible in the morning, in the evening you will be left to evaluate what was done earlier.

This saying *'Pakifuku sivilii'* (The time of spring is two) means that the time of spring is short; if you plant late and plant early you will not get enough harvest in time. Failing to meet the needs of the time, children will go hungry while those who used to farm will get enough crops. The community is advised to pay attention to the time and cultivate in accordance with the rules of agriculture and breeding to ensure that they do their work in accordance with the relevant seasons. Society should be properly responsible according to the time to avoid the situation of poverty that accompanies many communities in this country (Mikofu, 2023). Everything should be done in advance to meet the needs of the community at the right time. The saying that says *'Kumiho nyalifuke kipata, amagulu ge gateng'ime hela sigipata kinu'* (The faces that sweat gets, the legs that sit get nothing) emphasizes the importance of responsibility in society. Staying without worrying can't get anyone anything (Mwakanjuki, 2015). Society should work based on the reality of their economic and geographic environment. Society should not engage in activities that are not acceptable in society. This saying is similar to the Kiswahili saying, a person who walks for nothing is not the same as a person who walks for nothing or a person who is hungry and tired when the rice is dry.

The saying that says *'Ilisiva lya mene yakwasiya si linofu'* (The milk of a borrowed goat does not change) emphasizes that what is borrowed has no lasting benefit. The community has to work hard to build the ability to own property and meet its own needs (Kitogo, 2002). A borrowed item will be taken at any time when the owner needs it, regardless of whether it is still needed by the borrower. The Wahehe community prefers this expression, meaning that if you borrow a goat or anything from anyone in the community, you should not forget yourself. The borrowed dress does not cover the hips. Citizens must work hard and be responsible enough to avoid being given aid that causes the violation of our traditions and culture. Laziness is slavery that removes the ability to trust.

4.2   Leadership, Education and Peace

Another mission found in the sayings of the Wahehe community is about the importance of good leadership. Any gathering of people must have leadership to ensure things and joint plans go well. Every community should have strong leadership that will help them push forward the wheel of development (Songoyi, 1988). Literature is a tool that fully examines society. Sayings are used as a tool to teach, correct and launch society so that it follows the principles that need to be developed and strengthened in the movement of its daily life. The saying that says *'Ilakali lya mtwa'* equal to *'Buluno gwa lyalupala'* (the wrath of a ruler is like the thunder of a lion) emphasizes that a leader who is chosen to lead his colleagues can do anything according to the authority he has. Even though he should have an unshakeable position in managing various social issues. A leader must do justice in their actions because what he says should be heard and acted upon (Khalifani, 2013). This saying emphasizes how to respect their leaders, especially in all productive matters in society.

Any society, its actions must go in line with its culture, traditions and customs, behaviour and attitudes of that society. For example, the saying '*One ubihile ukulamulwa ke kikufi* ubihilu' (If you refuse to be warned what will happen to you will refuse) means that people should accept the advice given by the adults in their community. This saying is the same as the proverb that says 'Refuse the evil one who calls you.' Community members are reminded to pursue productive activities for the benefit of their families and communities. This saying *'Udadoo mnyakukwegala ene asupali, na wilolesi usupali'* (If the father who gave birth to you is not there, even if the parent is not there?) This saying gives an image that the upbringing of a child does not depend on the presence of two parents. The whole community has the responsibility to ensure that children are raised and built based on patriotism, culture and community values (Shule, 2010). The saying gives the impression that the Wahehe community cooperates to raise children according to their culture. The child belongs to the whole society. This expression *'Uwuse uhalule wupefu sange uwugali'* (Making flour is easy cook ugali) means that society should give young people a good education so that they can be independent in society.

Love is one of the most important things in any society in the world. Love brings peace and stimulates development at the family, community and nation level (Bachubila, 2023). Among the sayings that carry that mission is *'Iligulu lya nyasi lidodo'* (The fly's foot is small) which means that humans should love and help each other in times of joy and hardship. For example, when a neighbour visits, he/she eats even if it's a little. The saying means that even though there is little, they must share as part of helping each other. Another saying says *'Amalungulu ga vanu gategulwee kwapa mwi'* (People's areas should be carried together) which means that people should not destroy people's belongings and no one should say bad

things because all this destroys love and causes a situation of disruption of peace in society. The main thing is to get to know people and their behaviour to be able to live in love without conflict. The Wahehe community emphasizes brothers and the whole community to love each other and cooperate to eliminate the conflict that is not productive for the well-being and sustainability of the community.

4.3   Integrity, Loyalty and Patriotism

One of the themes found in the sayings of the Wahehe community is about the importance of honesty, integrity and patriotism. The examination of the mission focused on the broad scope of Sociological theory that looks at literature as a perfect representation of the actions contained in society. Sayings in the Wahehe community emphasize the importance of integrity and honesty in society. This saying 'if a bird has many children' teaches society to avoid things that can cost lives. A fearful bird is considered to be able to have many children due to its fear. The Wahehe society considers that a coward is not easy to act against the existing norms in society. Usually, an honest person often implements what is accepted by society by following the limits of the agreement (Leman et al., 2004). The saying clearly shows the importance of trust in society as a means of living in peace and stability.

Another saying *'Ikaye savanyanonga zolofu siyaga'* (The houses of many litigants are lost) indicates that society and people who are accustomed to litigating at any time in their lives can be ruined. The situation is due to the lack of trust and interference in things that do not concern them, a situation that removes trust in society. This saying gives the impression that trust is an important thing in society. A person who is used to justifying vanity and being legitimate ends up ruining his life along with

his family's lack of direction. The society has to do justice to avoid blame, accusations and unnecessary discord (Ogenga, 2015). The saying *'Isaka kipulika'* (The bush hears) aims to advise the community to build trust to avoid unproductive conflicts in the community. Society should tell the truth to keep everyone free in society. This saying emphasizes that there is no secret to many people. Speaking, especially gossiping about someone can cause misunderstanding in society. Loyalty makes people live freely and worry-free in society.

The saying that says *'Nene ndimukali ifinu nagu kakuhomba'* (I am strict, my things are to be paid), emphasizes that the cure for debt is to pay. This situation shows that the Wahehe society emphasizes justice and equality and people live by the values inherited from generations since ancient times. The community forbids abusing an illegal trust. This is evident until today. In that community, crops or livestock are left outside without protection in a barn surrounded by thorns, and the doors are put on a tree, a situation that reflects safety, trust and peace in the community. This saying reflects the real situation in the Wahehe community. If a person borrows a deposit, he must pay it before he takes action according to the law. Everyone should pay to continue to help and trust each other in the community.

4.4   Savings, Patience and Prudence

Any community should be educated about the importance of savings. Keeping savings helps the community to have something that will help them when something urgent happens, especially famine, disease or disaster. The Wahehe community likes to save by storing their food in warehouses made outside the house. The breeders also store ghee oil because they know that the feed for their livestock will decrease during

the dry season. An example of a saying that reflects this situation is *'One ubite lugeendo, tengulage ikhela cha mung'asi'* (If you go somewhere, carry a gourd on the way), which emphasizes the importance of saving for yourself to avoid humiliation because problems do not knock. Any human being needs to prepare for his life because the journey is one step after another. Life is a journey full of ups and downs that are inevitable. Society has to keep savings that will help a person when he travels so that those who remain at home can continue to live well. The community should work hard to keep savings that will help to afford the activities of daily life in the community.

Wisdom and prudence in society make human beings able to cope well with the environment around them. Sayings related to wisdom and prudence in the Wahehe community say *'Ikaye sawa naisenga yinyakiteve'* (A house is like a cow with a bad leg) meaning the importance of being patient in society. Parents should live with patience because when couples meet and live together, each has its behaviours that can cause conflict. A wise decision is required before working on anything (Alan, 2016; Kabwe, 2016). This saying *'Kilutema kinyalileme ikikagula chanchaniya'* (A pregnant hawk will recognize her above) emphasizes that some words are not spoken in public but use a hidden language to protect the dignity of the society concerned. This situation helps the community to do justice and use wisdom in solving certain issues in the community. The community uses the elderly and community members, in general, to make solutions in the community with high wisdom without discrimination of any kind.

The saying that says *'Pe siuyasizi kumbele pe wi mdodo uyasa pa ugogolo'* (If you don't lose behind when you're young, you'll lose when

you're old) emphasizes that a young person can fight to change his bad life by working with effort and knowledge before he gets old. Ageing makes any human being lose many things, especially strength, knowledge and memory (Mbonde, 2002). The society should emphasize family formation based on the taboos and values of the society. The saying that says *'Uwufwimi wa vanyilambo, amanyakilumbi gakuvaninila'* (Hunting by young people, crows follow them) means that young people can do anything good or bad. The wisdom of parents gives them ample opportunity to follow up on what they saw wrong and apologize to anyone who was wronged. The Wahehe community believes that doing justice avoids curses, strife and discord. In the saying, elders are likened to crows. Parents have to guide the youth for the well-being and sustainability of their society and generation.

Normally, society should live based on tolerance. A person's lack of tolerance in society is not a good thing because he can fall into a situation that was not intended. The Wahehe community has sayings that are used to educate the community so that it can be patient, especially on how to deal with things in a state of impatience as described in the saying *'Iligongoli lyamasebele lifika hela ukwakwe'* (The corn bug will only reach him). The worm moves slowly, but it will get where it is going. Anything, even if it is too difficult, one day it will be successful, especially if it is laid on solid foundations that show the best way to implement it in theory and practice.

5.0   Conclusion and Recommendations

This article has examined the aspect of intentions contained in the sayings of the Wahehe community in Tanzania. Some of them are about issues of trust, responsibility, leadership, contempt, wisdom, love, savings and

patience in society. The objectives contained in the sayings of the society are one of the strong social tools that examine the society in terms of educating and understanding the wider context of the society examined. In recommendation, the mission and intentions are viewed as a specific reference library for social issues; and a solid indigenous link that builds a system to train, strengthen and keep society together in the foundations of culture and the whole philosophy of life from ancient times until now.

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The Effects of Globalization in the African Context: Examples from the Nominated Kiswahili Novels

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Abstract
This article has examined the effects of globalization in the context of Africa by referring to the examples in the selected novels by Walenisi and Babu Alipofufuka. This research is bibliographic. Primary data were obtained by the method of careful reading. A targeted selection method was used to find the selected novels. For verifying and clarifying the primary data, secondary data were obtained from the library. The discussion of the presented data was done by using the theory of Realism. The article explains that globalization has various effects on African societies. Some of its effects have been identified in investment, culture, economy and development of African communities. These effects distress every field of progress in African civilizations. This article suggests that African leaders should be quick to build strong policies aimed at self-criticism and self-correction to take concrete steps to face the identified effects. Also, they should protect the values and actions existing in their countries for the benefit of their citizens as well as build strong economic foundations to avoid dependency.

Keywords: African Context, Globalization, Effects, Novel, Realist Theory

1.0   Introduction

This article has examined the effects of globalization in the context of Africa by referring to examples in the selected novels of *Walenisi* (1995) and *Babu Alipofufuka* (2001). Context is the environment in which something happens. Also, it guides the preparation and presentation of the

text and its performance. In literary works, the context can be geographical, political, economic or historical (Mkumbwa, 2012). The context can be verbal or given by the statement itself or received. This is the basis of Marxist criticism that the meaning of a literary work must take social reality into account (Nyamahanga, 2015). The reality is of the exploratory relations between the society itself and the history of that society. In this article, the researcher considered that the novel is a product of the context of the studied society as far as it interacts and relates to other societies.

Globalization is a concept that aims at reducing and even eliminating the power of the state in the country by increasing the power of national organizations to control the power of national organizations. This system aims to remove geographical and political barriers to allow the free flow of labour between nations (Ryanga, 2002). This method enables industrialized and technologically advanced nations to easily obtain raw materials for their industries, markets for their products, areas of investment and flexible production labour (Ntabara, 2008). Globalization is one of the new methods used by capitalist countries to continue to dominate developing countries in all social fields.

Development experts explain that this system makes the world a single village (Little, 1996). This method welcomes and legitimizes the economic, political and technological systems of capitalist countries to continue to strengthen in developing nations. Capitalist nations use various methods to benefit, including providing military aid, technology and financial institutions including the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank. They use the method of finding leaders who serve as their agents in the implementation of their policies for the interests of

capitalism. Globalization is a concept used to describe cultural, political, economic and educational approaches that emphasize relationships that violate and cross the borders of one nation and another; and the spread of ideology, technology and language (Bhalla, 2006). Globalization can be explored through literary works.

Language is the most important tool in the transmission of culture and in measuring progress and changes that occur in society (Amatubi, 2002 & Khamis, 2007). It is used to transmit culture from one place to another. Here it should be remembered that communities have their own culture, including things that go on in the daily life of the community. In this study, all the continuing issues in society have been used as a basis for measuring the strength of globalization and the flow of its movements as reflected in the effects of globalization in African societies by referring to selected Kiswahili novels.

Novels are among the genres with a long history of human life and development. This genre has been working to depict life and deal with issues concerning humans and the way they interact with their environment (Mbatiah, 2016). It is a good reflection of the pride they have in their culture. The basis of this category is to deal with all the issues in society, especially its problems, dreams, hopes, conflicts and how humans interact and cope with their environment. This category is used as a thermometer of the movement and the real situation in society. This article has examined the effects of globalization in the context of Africa by referring to examples in the selected novel by *Walenisi* (K. Mkangi) and *Babu Alipofufuka* (S. A. Mohamed).

2.0   Materials and Methods

This article has examined the effects of globalization in the context of Africa by referring to examples in the selected novels by *Walenisi* and *Babu Alipofufuka*. Primary data were obtained by the method of careful reading. A targeted selection method was used to find the selected novel. Secondary data for verifying the primary data was obtained from the library. The discussion of the presented data was done using the theory of Realism. The concept of Realism is used to describe the literary genre that views works of art as absent from the reality of society (Booker, 1996 & Selden, 2005). His works are expected to portray actual situations with great reliability and exactness. The theory in this article has been used to look at the African environment that determines the way a literary work should be. The selected theory has been used to emphasise the existing facts about the effects of globalization in African countries. The authors of the selected books were placed in their normal context to know the effects of globalization through scheduled novels as it is their link. It has been used to examine the existing relationship between literature and society through specific novels.

3.0   The Impact of Globalization in Africa Regarding the Selected Novels

The results of the library readings are presented together as much as possible. The parallel presentation was done as the data complemented each other considering the specific objective of the article. The researcher investigated the effects of globalization in the context of Africa by referring to examples in the selected novels by *Walenisi* and *Babu Alipofufuka*. The impact of globalization on Africa is presented in the next section.

3.1   Impact of Globalization on Investment

Investment is one of the results of imperialism that has matured and crossed the borders of its country. Investment is the state of using more money or assets in business to raise production (Chachage, 2003). Investments in African countries are made without considering the interests of the people and the nation. There is no clear return on investment based on the weakness of agreements signed by unscrupulous leaders in third-world nations. These countries have always come in to get small profits and their citizens are harassed and humiliated in their countries.

About the free market and loan aid from capitalist countries. The author has discussed how it is increasingly affecting third-world countries. Also, he has shown that their goal is not to benefit the developing countries but to makes those countries a dump of poor products that are not useful for them. Bad products are the cause of the deterioration of local industries because the leaders have lacked the courage and strength to fight and criticize capitalist efforts and sabotage (Nyangwine, 2012). The author has shown how investment in mineral extraction does not benefit developing nations due to the dubious ratio of income distribution derived from that resource. The author explains:

> *Unachimba nini? Na yeye hujibu dhahabu, almasi na … wenyeji bila shaka hucheka na kuridhika na upumbavu wake* (Mohamed, 2001: 14).
>
> What are you digging? And he answers gold, diamonds and … the locals certainly laugh and are satisfied with his foolishness (My literal translation).

This information shows how large mining companies in African countries are benefiting. African governments get a small percentage of the income from mining and its effects are great in terms of the environment, especially the pollution and destruction of water sources and natural vegetation (Mkangi, 1995). In some areas of investment, major conflicts have been viewed between small and large miners between government agencies and citizens. This causes the deaths of civilians due to serious violations of human rights. Citizens have observed unproductive investments as some investors invest in unproductive matters which are the source of eroding the values of African culture (Mohamed, 2001: 44). For example, casino investment destroys culture and tries to repeal African values where people who will be entering will be naked.

This information mocks the state of unproductive investment in developing countries, including African ones. For example, instead of investing in projects that are beneficial to the people, including health, education, water, industry and modern agriculture, they invest in casinos, which is the source of erosion of African culture. This weakness manifests itself in some countries due to the existence of bad policies that allow unproductive investments in developing countries. Investments in the free economic system do not aim to help young countries, except to exploit their resources and continue to benefit the nations of the first world (Shivji, 2009). Citizens in developing countries have become consumers of goods they do not produce; instead, they produce what they do not use.

This quote shows how African nations receive foreign affairs and use them without making a detailed assessment. As a result, African identity, culture and philosophy have continued to be misguided and weakened in some communities. Young people have lacked the patriotism to take care

of their resources, and their culture and respect the values and performances contained in them for the wider interests of their communities and nations. Haji (2003: 23) has made clear the issue of competing for our proud traditions:

> *Mwayaacha ya kwenu ya hapa,*
> *Ambayo yako mazuri,*
> *Kutii na kuogopa,*
> *Mwaona haina heri,*
> *Mwayavamia kwa pupa,*
> *Kwa hedi na ujeuri,*
> *Mila zetu za fakari,*
> *Wacheni kuzipotosha.*
>
> You have left your ways here,
> Which are good things?
> Obedience and fear,
> You consider them not good,
> You hold them greedily,
> With heed and violence,
> Our good traditions, do not distort them (My literal translation).

The point of defensive and honouring native traditions and customs is fundamental due to the importance of the sustainability of the current and future generations. If local culture is not given enough impetus in its use, society will lack direction and guidance for its life. If efforts to promote local culture are lacking, people will live under the foundations of foreign culture. If the situation is left and more mature, the culture of African societies will be destroyed and the values, actions and history of its development will be completely gone.

The effects of capitalism through globalization do not end only in affecting culture and the looting of minerals; it goes further to the looting of land in African nations. The looting of land is like a brotherly wound because now and then the complaints of citizens are heard in various parts of Africa. Locals are forcibly removed from their living areas under the pretext of allowing investment for the benefit of the nation (Mayega, 2006). As a result, natives are ejected from their lands and homes by using the great power of the government agencies without being given compensation for their property or preparing an alternative place to move and live. The author explains that Delpiero has recently swallowed an entire area of land in a certain place in his stomach. When the fishermen stood firm to blow their bitter sparks, K came up to tell them to relax their grace (Mohamed, 2001: 13).

The author shows how the citizens are making great efforts to defend their resources given by investors. The author has shown how the fishermen's efforts to defend their nation's resources hit rock bottom due to a lack of support from their leaders. Although the laws of the country regarding investment exist, they are silent, they are not strong. Foreign investors are protected by government agencies with the authority of the top leaders of African governments. They get huge profits through their commercial companies that exploit workers by paying them low wages that do not match the labour force they use in investment (Ipara, 2003). It is said that some avoid paying the taxes imposed by the government in the countries concerned. By doing so, they find an opportunity to get a great profit from their investments, while the respective governments continue to suffer losses by not fully benefiting from the resources available in their countries.

3.2 Effects of Globalization on Culture

With respect to nature, no civilization in the world has so far been built on the foundations of imitating the culture of another society. Custom begins as a person's or group's behaviour and later becomes the legal way for a person or people to act. Culture is the heart of a nation. As time goes by, the environment of society changes as some traditions and customs become out of date (Makoye, 1996). These changes make the community develop traditions and customs that go with the times according to the needs of the community.

Culture involves the way of life of the community, the way of thinking about things and their ways of living that distinguish them from others. The pillars of culture are traditions, customs, language, sports and history. Culture is an identity and an expression of the will and vitality of people in any nation (Sengo, 2009). Culture is what legitimizes society's actions. For a long time, Africa has had its culture which is the centre of civilization, dignity, respect and humanity since ancient times, but due to the interaction caused by the opening of doors and the economy, which caused African culture continued to weaken rapidly in some societies. As a result, Africans despise their dignity, their food, their bodies and their culture. The author explains:

> *Ah! Tunafikia hata kuona rangi zetu sio bora, nywele zetu hazifai tena kamwe! Kwenye sherehe wahudumu wakiruka hapa na pale miili yao ya kukoboa na kukwabua na nywele za maiti za singa na blondi* (Mohamed, 2001: 34).

> Ah! We even come to see that our colours are not the best; our hair is never suitable again! At the ceremony, the attendants fly here and there with their naked bodies and

the hair of the corpses of 'singa' and blondi (My literal
translation).

These details show how African values continue to fall due to the
existence of a strong interaction of the cultural power of the Western
societies of the world. The culture of those communities is viewed in a
temporal quality. The author has shown that stripping and snatching the
body, wearing lion hair, sexual intercourse and sexual intercourse which
are prevalent in many societies are not part of African culture. Also,
explains that when Di Livio was found having sex with his dog, he didn't
care. That culture is corrupt which is intolerable and deplorable in African
societies.

Africans have come to the point of seeing everything that comes from
Western nations as better than what is here in Africa (Mong'eri, 2003).
This opium has been seen in language, religion, food, education and
clothing. The foundations of African culture are viewed as weak, which
is not correct at all. For example, the English language is considered
superior to the native African languages. This is dangerous for the well-
being and sustainability of African societies. Ignoring native traditions
and customs has led to the rapid decline of African values and provoked
a strong reaction to the foreign culture. Mjengwa (2020) clarifies that the
motives for the breakdown of native culture have contributed to the rapid
spread of infectious diseases because it was difficult for young people
who were fully proficient in jando and unyago to engage in immorality
easily.

The issue of imitating foreign culture is seen as one of the reasons
contributing to the fading of African values, since, from the beginning; it
was invaded by European institutions that largely destroyed indigenous

culture. That action contributed to the glorification of foreign cultures that continued to silence the local ones. Africans have been enslaved by following traditions and customs as if they do not have their own. Africans have now become confined to foreign traditions and cultures including faith, economy, education and politics (Mwangosi, 2019). An African is used to not doing anything; he must first measure himself against a European and an Arab.

These details confirm that African societies no longer have their traditions and their strong culture. The imitation of overseas cultures in Africa has contributed to the destruction of traditional values based on the African personality, respect, obedience, manners and philosophy (Hull, 2019; Magesa, 1997). They believe that foreign things are more valuable than their possessions. These ideas are getting blessings from the leaders of African countries that do not allow some dangerous products that change the colour of the body and hair. It is not enough to change the body is just one example, even imitating customs that do not come from our past (Mohamed, 2001, p. 51). There is imitation without respect. If you are driven naked! If you are wearing platforms, yes! If you are wearing a dress ohoo! If you are taken and put on a rope, you will be taken back to what used to be called the violence of what is now called fashion.

The foregoing explanation shows how the Western nations have hidden the minds of the people of the third world. Africans see themselves as unable to do anything of interest to their country and rely more on ideas and aid from foreign countries. All the best seems to come from outside the borders of their countries. The leaders of the progressives always rely on aid for everything. Likewise, his people cannot think for themselves and wonder anymore. The author explains that it has become an

inheritance from generation to generation. Every generation sees it that way. Exactly right. Daring has been crushed. The gift of thinking has been killed. Curiosity is not there, it has distressed us, we were not born with it at all, we did not have it, we just found ourselves born and raised in a world without any compass (Mohamed, 2001). The world is to be dragged and followed.

The result of neglecting African culture is to find a nation of people who are not self-aware, unable to inquire and dare an issue that is dangerous for the well-being and sustainability of the local culture. The matter of preserving the national culture should be taken firm measures that will ensure it is preserved and developed in the interests of the present and future generations. Ngadala (2003) stresses the issue of building culture on solid foundations and that a living nation builds the best foundations of its community's culture. Cultural fields are the main pillar of building the culture of any society and nation. Culture is built by community traditions and customs such as in initiation of rituals and traditional songs (Nkemnkia, 1999). Literature can build a nation's culture. Therefore, there is a need to build better and stronger foundations of national culture.

The strong foundations of African culture are becoming weaker day by day due to the presence of a large interaction of cultures outside Africa, especially those of Western Europe. This situation is due to African societies not being careful in the use of the best ways to preserve and develop the issues of native or home-grown culture without being overwhelmed by foreign ones.

3.3 Effects of Globalization on Productivity and the Economy
Neo-colonialism has significantly affected the foundations of growth and sustainability of politics and economy in African societies. The situation

is due to developing countries forcing newly growing countries to implement policies that are not friendly to the economy and environment of developing countries. African societies have to build a sincere patriotism that aims to strengthen the economy and strong politics in their nations because it is the basis of civilization and the development of its citizens (Offiong, 2001). Also, they have to stop the habit of accepting foreign policies without evaluating them in depth about their benefits and weaknesses in the African environment.

The author has shown how neo-colonialism affects the development of society in every sector and field of development in developing countries in Africa. Developed countries are forcing developing countries to implement their capitalist policies that are not productive for public development (Jauch, 2001). Capitalist nations exploit the available resources using various methods including hard and unworkable conditions such as cultivating only commercial crops, an issue that causes hunger and people to fall into extreme poverty that has never been reached even before independence. The author explains: Listen Mr Dzombo; don't think we are not involved. I have already explained why your corn had to be cut. We did that because the World Bank itself advised that this part should be planted with crops to bring us foreign currency (Mkangi, 1995, p. 18).

The information shows how capitalist countries force developing countries to cultivate commercial crops to earn foreign currency by depriving them of food crops. Despite the strong emphasis on the cultivation of commercial crops, their prices are still low while inputs are sold at high prices. This situation discourages farmers and continues to be low in development. If precautions and effective measures are not taken,

the economies of developing countries will weaken and collapse completely.

The effects of neo-colonialism are evident after the government cut down the Dzombo cornfield. The government did so because it had ordered to plant only commercial crops. Citizens in the Dzombo community were not allowed to grow food crops. Unfortunately, the commercial products that were given priority in production were not productive for the people because they were sold at a low price that did not correspond to the production costs. Commercial crops did not have a reliable market, which caused farmers to borrow their crops from buyers and not be paid on time. The trend has caused many farmers to fall into poverty and continue to depend on developing countries. Complaining about the situation, Dzombo explains:

> *Sasa nimwendee nani kueleza hali yangu? Sio kitambo mahindi yangu mliyafyeka na mkanishauri nilime haya yaletayo sijui pesa za kigeni... mlinigeuza na mimi na hata nikawa mwombaji wa hata hicho chakula chenyewe* (Mkangi, 1995: 20).

> Now who should I go to explain my situation to? Not long ago you cut my corn and you advised me to grow this which brings in foreign money... you turned me and I even became a vagrant for even that food itself (My literal translation).

These details show the effects of neo-colonialism in developing countries. Capitalist countries use various methods to achieve the goal of exploiting the economy and resources available in young countries. Poor management of public resources, looting and smuggling of minerals, and unsatisfactory income balance have been witnessed in various projects

invested in African countries (Murray, 2000 & Mwangosi, 2016). This situation makes capitalist countries invest by seizing the sensitive economic sectors in African countries. The responsibility of public leaders in developing countries is to close the gaps by inventing new methods and building the capacity of their countries so that they can be independent and avoid dependence.

3.4   Effects of Globalization on Unity and Solidarity

The growth and demand of globalization in African societies, to a large extent, has affected the foundations of unity and solidarity that existed even before colonialism. The result of its improvement is the flourishing of classes that manifest themselves in terms of income. Some people lack basic services due to low income. This situation causes the existence of class conflicts in society. The issue of classes causes injustice, hatred, abuse, exploitation, and injustice in African societies (Krantz, 2001). The effects of classes manifest themselves in various ways in society, especially if you examine the relationship between the rich and the poor. The author explains:

> *Kwani kwa ghafla aliweza kuona vipande viwili vya miamba ya marasimu wa kwashakoo vimejikita njiani mwake. Miamba hii ilikuwa ya kitabaka. Hakutaka hata kusikia harufu za miamba hiyo. Alijua kuwa ilikuwa ya kutoa harufu ya sumu kali kumfanya ainuse kwa wingi kudhoofika akili milele. Sumu yenyewe ilitokana na ukosefu wa chakula bora. Kwa kawaida, hali hii imezoeleka kwa wale walio ndani ya tabaka libebalo paa dogo, lakini sio zito. Utabaka ndio hueneza miamba* (Mkangi, 1995: 23).

> Because all of a sudden, he could see two pieces of the rocks of the kwashakoo's tombs embedded in his path. These rocks

were stratified. He didn't even want to smell the smells of those rocks. He knew that it was to give off a strong poisonous smell to make him smell it in abundance to weaken his mind forever. The poisoning itself was caused by a lack of good food. Usually, this condition is common to those who are in the same class as a small roof, but not heavy. Stratification is what spreads rocks (My literal translation).

This explanation shows how the lower class lacks basic services such as food and good nutrition due to poverty. Likewise, it shows how the upper class sets strategies to strengthen themselves that have an impact on the lower-class citizens. As a result, people fall into extreme poverty. The situation of poverty has caused a large number of children to suffer from anorexia. Classes must be eradicated to the extent that African societies can strengthen unity and solidarity. The author explains that the growth and maturity of industrial development abroad have led to the emergence of a class of economically and technologically advanced nations. This position is what causes developing nations to continue to be reliant and fade economically by striking impractical hard conditions (Shivji, 2002). Such dependence reduces the value of young nations from depending on everything from industrialized nations.

This information mocks the issue of extreme dependence on aid in developing countries due to irresponsibility and the existence of opium to run the country by relying on the ability of philanthropists. This is evident through budgets and development plans in countries that continue to rely on aid from international donors. This dependence affects the ability of leaders to trust them and protect the resources available in their nations (Mpangala, 2007). One of its effects includes setting the price of crops and other products by imposing conditions that are not friendly to the

economy and development of the country. The author's call is to avoid dependency by building strong foundations of independence to strengthen the economy for the wider interests of the nation and its citizens.

The author has shown the status of classes in the country of the Chunas who believed that people cannot be equal even one day because some will have better housing and clothing and those will be completely lacking. Also, some lack even the normal and basic needs in society. For example, some can afford these needs even to be able to go for treatment or study abroad. The country where Dzombo lived was built on the foundations of the classes of the poor and the rich and the effects were identified. The author explains:

> *Mafahari wawili hawakai zizi moja. Na wote wakielimika ni nani atatufulia chupi zetu? Kutusafishia magari yetu*? (Mkangi, 1995: 173).
>
> Two nobles do not stay in the same cowshed. And if all are educated, who will wash our underwear? Clean our cars? (My literal translation).

The quote shows how dependency was built and its effects on society. Also, he has shown how powerful people use their economic power to oppress and enslave the poor. Dzombo and his brother worked for a low wage that did not match the value of the work they did. The great class gap that continues between the industrialized and technologically developed nations and the young is what breaks human dignity and makes others continue to be neglected, neglected, and always under the umbrella of dependency. Developing countries have to take concrete steps to reduce the gap between them and industrialized countries (Mulokozi, 2013). This

article calls on African governments to build economic self-sufficiency to reduce dependency on aid from altruistic nations. Also, they should take measures to reduce castes by defending the interests of the people.

4.0　Conclusion and Recommendations

This article has examined the effects of globalization in Africa by referring to examples in Kiswahili novels. By referring to the designated novels by *Walenisi* and *Babu Alipofufuka,* the authors have succeeded in showing the effects of globalization in Africa. Some of its effects have been identified in investment, culture, economy, and development. To a large extent, these effects affect every field of development in African societies. This article calls on leaders to be speedy in building strong plans aimed at self-criticism and self-correction to take actual stages to face the identified impacts. Also, they should build strong economic foundations and promote African cultures which in one way or another assists its home-grown to feel proud of their ways of life and line an independent life socially, economically, and politically.

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Dhima ya Usasanyuzi Dosari katika Ufundishaji na Ujifunzaji wa Lugha ya Pili: Mifano ya Wajifunzaji wa Kiswahili katika Jamii ya Wakinga Nchini Tanzania

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Ikisiri

Usasanyuzi dosari ni eneo muhimu katika taaluma ya isimu tumizi. Vilevile, ni mbinu pangilifu ya kuchanganua dosari za mjifunzaji lugha. Kitaaluma dosari si kitu kibaya bali ni kipengele muhimu sana katika mchakato wa ujifunzaji lugha. Dosari husaidia kutambua mchakato changamani wa maendeleo ya lugha na namna pangilifu ya kubaini, kueleza na kufafanua dosari za mjifunzaji lugha. Pia, dosari zinaweza kusaidia kutoa welewa wa mchakato wa kuamili Lugha ya pili. Makala haya, kwa hiyo, yanalenga: kubainisha dosari zinazojitokeza kwa wajifunzaji wa Kiswahili katika jamii ya Wakinga, sababu za wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga na kupendekeza mikakati ya kupunguza hizo dosari. Baadhi ya dosari zilizobainika ni dosari za undoshaji wa fonimu /h/, uchopekaji wa fonimu /u/ na dosari za kimuundo; yaani ukosefu wa upatanisho wa kisarufi. Dosari hizi za uchopekaji zimesababishwa na uhawilishaji wa kanuni za lugha ya kwanza katika lugha ya Kiswahili; ambapo mjifunzaji wa lugha ya pili amehamisha utaratibu wa lugha yake ya kwanza na kuutumia kwenye lugha ya pili anayojifunza na kusababisha dosari. Aina hii ya uhawilishaji ni uhawilishaji hasi. Makala yanahitimisha kwamba dosari hizi zinachangiwa kwa kiasi kikubwa na lugha yao ya kwanza.

Maneno Muhimu: dosari, usasanyizi dosari na uhawilishaji.

1.0   Utangulizi

Usasanyuzi dosari ni kipengele muhimu katika taaluma ya Isimu Tumizi

na katika ujifunzaji na ufundishaji wa lugha ya pili. Isimu Tumizi ni taaluma inayoshughulikia changamoto na matatizo mbalimbali yanayohusiana na ufundishaji na uamiliaji wa lugha. Pia, taaluma hii inajaribu kutafuta majawabu ya changmaoto hizi ili kuwezesha ujifunzaji na ufundishaji lugha kuwa wenye tija. Usasanyuzi dosari unaibua ufahamu wa kina wa mchakato wa ufundishaji wa lugha. Zipo tafiti kadhaa (kwa mfano: Darus, 2009; Ellis, 1995; James, 1989; Keshavarz, 2003, 2006; Norrish, 1983; Ziahisseiny, 1999) zilizofanywa na zenye kuonesha mwelekeo wa usasanyuzi dosari na ufahamu wa kina kuhusiana na ujifunzaji na uamiliaji wa lugha.

Matokeo ya tafiti hizi yametumika kwa kipindi kirefu katika ujifunzaji na ufundishaji wa lugha ya pili. Kwa mujibu wa Corder (1967, 1971 & 1974) inadhaniwa kwamba wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili wanajifunza lugha hiyo karibu sawa na wanavyojifunza lugha ya kwanza. Hitimisho hili lilitokana na ukweli kwamba, watoto wanapoamili[1] lugha ya kwanza husababisha dosari na makosa mengi. Kutokana na dosari zinazofanywa na watoto, watafiti hawa wanabainisha kwamba, ujifunzaji wa lugha ya pili hufanyika sawasawa na ujifunzaji wa lugha ya kwanza. Aidha, Corder (1967) anaonesha tofauti kati ya dosari na makosa kama ifuatavyo:

Aidha, katika majaribio ya kufafanua suala la kasoro za wajifunzaji lugha, Corder anatumia istilahi mbili: dosari na makosa. *Dosari* ni matokeo ya ujifunzaji usiokamilifu wa kanuni za kiisimu kwa mjifunzaji lugha na kwamba dosari hizi haziwezi kurekibishwa na mjifunzaji lugha mwenyewe. *Makosa* kwa upande mwingine, ni matokeo ya utumizi

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[1] Dhana hii ilipendekezwa na Krashan miaka ya 1970 ikiwa na maana ya mchakato wa kiisimu unaotokea kwa wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili au ya Kigeni katika hali ya ung'amuzibwete. kwa maana ya kuwa, mjifunzaji lugha hung'amua kanuni za lugha pasipo kukusudia wala mwenyewe kufahamu kwamba jambo hilo linatokea.

mbaya wa kanuni za lugha kutokana na sababu mbalimbali kama vile uchovu, uzembe na kutojali kwa mjifunzaji. Ufafanuzi huu unamaanisha kwamba, makosa yanatokana na mjifunzaji mwenyewe, wakati dosari zinatokana na mbinu zilizotumika katika ufundishaji. Corder (keshatajwa) anaamini kuwa, dosari ziko nje ya mjifunzaji lugha mwenyewe ilhali, makosa yako ndani ya uwezo wa mjifunzaji. Hii inamaanisha kwamba, mjifunzaji anakuwa anafahamu vema kanuni na miundo ya lugha husika na anaweza kujirekebisha mwenyewe ikiwa uchovu, uzembe na kutojali havitakuwepo. Hii ndiyo tofauti ya msingi kati ya dosari na makosa. Hivyo, ili kufanya uchanganuzi sahihi mchanganuzi lazima awe na uhakika kuhusu utambuzi wa dosari zifanywazo na wajifunzaji wa lugha.

Katika hatua za awali za kuamili lugha kama wafanyavyo watoto wadogo, wajifunzaji pia huibua tungo ambazo siyo sahihi kisarufi na kisemantiki na baadaye kadiri wanavyoendelea kupata ingizo[2] kama vile mafunzo, maelekezo, ufafanuzi na mrejesho wanaanza kujirekebisha wenyewe. Wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili pia hupitia hatua hii. Kimsingi, hakuna tofauti kati ya kuamili lugha ya kwanza na kujifunza lugha ya pili (Corder, 1967). Usasanyuzi dosari una dhima muhimu katika ufundishaji wa lugha ya pili. Usasanyuzi dosari huwasaidia walimu kufahamu njia mpya za kufundisha kwa kutoa mrejesho wa dosari zilizofanywa na wajifunzaji.

Aidha, inaeleweka na ni uhakika kwamba wajifunzaji lugha hufanya makosa katika mchakato wa kujifunza lugha. Dosari hizi zinatoa ufahamu mpya na mbinu za kufundishia kwa walimu wa lugha na wanaisimu katika kukabiliana na matatizo yenye kuhusiana na ufundishaji wa lugha. Kwa mujibu wa nadharia za Wanautabia, ujifunzaji wa lugha ni ujenzi na

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[2] Ingizo ni tafsiri ya neno la Kiingereza "**input**" ikiwa na maana ya kitu chochote anachopata mjifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili au kigeni kwa kusikia, kuona, kunusa au kugusa ambacho kwa namna moja ama nyingine husaidia kuboresha uelewa wake kuhusu lugha anayojifunza.

uimarikaji wa tabia. Dosari katika ujifunzaji wa lugha ya pili zinatokana na ukosefu wa kanuni zilizotengenezwa wakati wa kujifunza lugha ya kwanza. Tabia hizi huibuka na kujengeka wakati wa mchakato wa kujifunza Lugha ya kwanza zinaingilia na kuathiri kuibuka na kujengeka kwa tabia katika kujifunza Lugha ya pili.

Kulingana na Wanautabia kama vile Skinner (1957), dosari za mjifunzaji wa lugha ni matokeo ya mwingiliano wa lugha ya kwanza. Lengo la Makala haya ni kubainisha dosari zinazofanywa na wajifunzaji wa Kiswahili katika jamii ya Wakinga, kufafanua sababu za utokeaji wa dosari hizo na kupendekeza mbinu zinazoweza kusaidia kuepukana na dosari hizo. Utafiti mdogo uliofanywa kwa njia ya ushuhudiaji unaonesha kuwa, wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga hufanya dosari mbalimbali. Hata hivyo, chanzo cha hizo dosari hakifahamiki. Kwa hiyo, data za makala haya zilikusanywa kwa kutumia njia za uandishi wa insha na hojaji.

1.1 Usuli wa Kihistoria kuhusu Maendeleo ya Taaluma ya Usasanyuzi Dosari

Kama ilivyodokezwa hapo juu, katika kipindi cha miaka ya 1940, usasanyuzi dosari ulichagizwa na ujifunzaji lugha ulioegemea katika nadharia za Wanautabia. Ilichukuliwa kuwa ujifunzaji lugha ni mchakato wa ujenzi na kuimarika kwa tabia, na kwamba tabia (kanuni) za lugha moja ikishaanza inasababisha ukinzania katika kujifunza tabia (kanuni) za lugha ya pili au ngeni. Usasanyuzi linganishi ulifanyika kwa kutazama dosari za mjifunzaji lugha kwa kutalii kanuni za lugha zote mbili. Ikiwa kulikuwa na ufanano baina ya kanuni au miundo ya lugha hizi mbili basi uhawilishaji chanya hutokea, yaani ukinzani hautokei na ikiwa kuna mwachano baina ya kanuni au miundo ya lugha hizi mbili, uhawilishaji

hasi hutokea kwa mjifunzaji; yaani ukinzania hutokea.

Kwa ujumla, katika kipindi cha miaka ya 1940 dosari za wajifunzaji lugha ya pili zilinasibishwa na athari za lugha ya kwanza (Ellis, 1995; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Kazemian & Hashemi, 2014; Norrish, 1983; Sanal, 2007). Hata hivyo, Nadharia ya Usasanyuzi Linganishi haikuweza kueleza sababu zote za dosari za mjifunzaji lugha. Kwa maana kwamba michakato ya dosari za mjifunzaji lugha ni changamani mno, kwani kuna baadhi ya mambo ambayo yapo nje ya lugha ya mjifunzaji.

1.2 Maswali ya Utafiti
Makala haya yamejibu maswali yafuatayo:
a) Dosari gani zinazofanywa na wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga?

b) Sababu zipi zinasababisha kutokea kwa dosari hizo kwa wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga?

c) Mbinu zipi zinaweza kusaidia kuondoa dosari miongoni mwa wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga?

2.0 Mapitio ya Maandiko
Mwanzoni kabisa, eneo la usasanyuzi dosari lilifungamanishwa na nadharia za ujifunzaji lugha za Wanautabia kama vile: Skinner (1957) na Lado (1957), japo kwa kutaja wachache. Wataalamu hao wanadai kuwa dosari za mjifunzaji ni matokeo ya kuwapo kwa mwingiliano wa kanuni kati ya lugha ya kwanza na lugha ya pili. Aidha, dosari za mjifunzaji zilihusishwa na taaluma ya usasanyuzi linganishi, ambayo ilikuwa inalinganisha mifumo ya lugha mbili kwa kuangalia zinavyofanana na

kutofautiana, kisha kufanya ubashiri wa kitu ambacho kitatokea kwa mjifunzaji lugha. Mathalani tuseme lugha X, ambayo ni tofauti na lugha tuseme Y anayojifunza. Miongoni mwa watafiti hao ni pamoja na Lado (1957). Baadaye kidogo, Corder (1967, 1974) alibaini wazi kwamba mwelekeo huu wa usasanyuzi linganishi ulishindwa kutoa maelezo toshelevu kuhusu dosari za mjifunzaji. Ilibainika wazi na watafiti mbalimbali kama vile Gawasike (2016), Wei (2008) na Gass na Selinker (2008) kwamba, dosari za mjifunzaji lugha hazitokani tu na mwingiliano baina ya Lugha ya kwanza ila masuala mbalimbali ya kimajumui kuhusiana na miundo ya lugha yaliyoelekea kusababisha dosari kwa wajifunzaji lugha.

2.1 Sababu Zinazopelekea Dosari kwa Wajifunzaji Lugha

Zipo sababu mbalimbali za dosari miongoni mwa mjifunzaji lugha ya pili. Sababu mojawapo ya dosari za wajifunzaji lugha yaweza kuwa uhaba wa vifaa vya kujifunzia lugha au upungufu wa vifaa vya kufundishia kwa mwalimu. Miongoni mwa sababu nyingine zilizobainishwa na watafiti kama vile James (1989, 1998), Ellis (1995), Ziahosseiny (1999), Kashavarz (2003, 2006), Şanal (2007), Darus (2009), Kazemian & Hashemi (2014) kuhusu chanzo cha dosari kwa wajifunzaji lugha ni: (i) Uhawilishaji lugha, (ii)Ujumuivuwa kanuni, (iii) Urahisishajiwa kanuni, (iv) sababu za Uepukaji, (v) Ukakamaaji, (vi) Kutokuwa na maarifa ya lugha, na (vii) Mwingiliano na lugha nyingine.

2.1.1 Uhawilishaji lugha

Uhawilishaji lugha ni sababu inayotokea zaidi katika mazingira ya ujifunzaji wa lugha moja, kwa mfano, lugha ya pili ambapo mjifunzaji lugha huyu tayari anayo lugha nyingine mathalani lugha ya kwanza. Katika mazingira, hayo mjifunzaji lugha huyu huelekea kuhamisha

kanuni za lugha ya kwanza na kuzitumia katika lugha ya pili. Kwa lugha nyepesi, uhawilishaji ni hali ya mjifunzaji wa lugha ya pili kuhamisha kanuni na miundo ya lugha ya kwanza na kuitumia katika mfumo wa lugha ya pili. Uhawilishaji lugha hutokea kwa namna mbili: chanya na hasi. Ikiwa lugha mbili zinazohusika zinafanana kimuundo na kimfumo, uhawilishaji chanya unaweza kutokea; na pale ambapo mifumo ya lugha zinazohusika hutofautiana, uhawilishaji hasi hutokea. Kulingana na Selinker (1972), uhawilishaji lugha ni utumizi wa kanuni za lugha moja katika kujifunza lugha nyingine.

2.1.2 Ujumuivu wa kanuni

Ujumuivu wa kanuni ni hali ambayo kanuni moja au mfumo mmoja wa lugha unajumuishwa katika mifumo mingine. Ni upanuaji wa matumizi ya kanuni moja katika mazingira ambapo yanaweza yasiwe kubalifu hujulikana kama *ujumuivu*. Hii huwa ni chanzo cha dosari kwa wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili au ya kigeni. Kwa mfano, wanafunzi wageni wanaojifunza lugha ya pili hufanya dosari zifuatazo:

A. Lugha ya kwanza (Kiingereza)	B. Lugha ya pili
1. I am in Dar es Salaam.	* Nipo katika Dar es Salaam.
2. I am going to Arusha.	* Ninakwenda cha/kwa Arusha.
3. I am not eating.	* Sikuli.

Dosari zilizobainishwa katika safu B ni mfano wa dosari za ujumuivu wa kanuni za lugha ya kwanza. Mwanafunzi ametumia utaratibu wa Lugha ya kwanza katika lugha ya pili na kusababisha dosari. Akishadidia hili, James (1998) anaeleza kwamba hali hii pia hutokea kwa watoto wanapojifunza lugha ya kwanza.

2.1.3 Urahisishaji wa kanuni

Urahisishaji wa Kanuni ni dosari zinazohusu mjifunzaji kukwepa kutumia kanuni changamani na kupendelea kutumia kanuni za kawaida na nyepesi. Mbinu hii pia hujulikana kama mbinu ya uepukaji. Hali hii ya mjifunzaji kukwepa kutumia kanuni na miundo changamani husababisha pelekea kufanya dosari. Kwa mfano, katika jamii ya Kihaya kuna changamoto ya kutamka silabi *ng'a* na *ha*. Hivyo, wajifunzaji na watumiaji wa lugha ya pili katika jamiilugha ya Wahaya, hukwepa matashi ya silabi hizo wanapozungumza lugha ya pili. Aidha, katika utafiti uliofanyika mwaka 2016 kuhusu wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili ikiwa ni lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga, walionekana kukwepa kutumia urejeshi unaojitokeza mwishoni mwa kitenzi na urejeshi unaotumia *amba*. Watoa taarifa wote walitumia namna moja tu ya kudhihirisha urejeshi katika Kiswahili. Kukwepa au kurahisisha huko kulisababisha dosari mbalimbali (taz. Gawasike, 2016).

2.1.4 Ukakamaaji

Ukakamaaji ni dosari ambazo mjifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili au ya kigeni kushindwa kubadili dosari mbalimbali zilizokuwa zinafanywa kipindi cha *lugha darajia/lugha mpito*[3] licha ya maelekezo mbalimbali ayapatayo kutoka kwa walimu au licha ya kufundishwa na kuwa na fursa mbalimbali za kufanyia mazoezi. Han (2013) anaeleza kwamba, ukakamaaji ni dosari sugu anazozipata mjifunzaji wa lugha, ambazo haziwezi kubadilika au kurekebishwa. Dosari hizi zinaweza kujidhirisha katika viwango mbalimbali vya lugha, kuanzia kiwango cha sauti hadi kilongo (Wei, 2008). Katika utafiti uliofanyika miongoni mwa wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga, dosari za ukakamaaji zinajitokeza katika

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[3] Ni aiana ya lugha ambayo mjifunzaji wa lugha ya pili au ya kigeni hujiundia kabla ya kufikia umilisi wa lugha anayojifunza/amili. Kwa kawaida lugha daraji au lugha mpitio huambatana na dosari mbalimbali za kimuundo, kimaana na kimofolojia.

fonolojia na mofolojia.

2.1.5 Kutokuwa na maarifa ya lugha

Kutokuwa na maarifa ya lugha, ni miongoni mwa sababu za dosari kwa wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili. Wakati mwingine wajifunzaji lugha hufanya dosari kutokana na kukosa au kutojua kanuni za lugha husika. Ukosefu wa kanuni na maarifa ya lugha husababisha mjifunzaji kufanya dosari au makosa anapozungumza au kuandika lugha ya pili. Hali hii humkwamisha mjifunzaji lugha. Huu ni usuli kwa ufupisho kuhusu usasanyuzi dosari.

3.0   Kiunzi cha Nadharia

Makala haya yaliongozwa na kiunzi cha Nadharia cha Usasanyuzi Dosari kama kilivyoasisiwa na Corder (1967) na kufanyiwa maboresho na Corder mwenyewe mwaka 1971. Usasanyuzi dosari ni uchanganuzi wa kiisimu, ambao umejikita katika kupambanua dosari za wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili au lugha ya kigeni. Usasanyuzi dosari ni njia ya kuainisha, kupambanua na kufafanua dosari zinazofanywa na mtu anayejifunza lugha ya pili au Lgn. Hoja kuu ya Nadharia ya Usasanyuzi Dosari ni kuwa dosari za wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili au Lgn hazitokani tu na athari za lugha ya kwanza kama wanausasanyuzi linganishi kama vile Lado wanavyodai; bali kuna vyanzo mbalimbali ikiwamo mtazamo wa mjifunzaji, wasiwasi, mbinu za ufundishaji na hali ya kisaikolojia ya mjifunzaji wa lugha mwenyewe. Nadharia inachunguza mambo makuu manne:

a. Jinsi mjifunzaji lugha anavyoelewa lugha.
b. Jinsi mjifunzaji lugha anavyojifunza lugha.
c. Matatizo anayokabiliana nayo wakati wa kujifunza lugha ya pili au Lgn.
d. Kung'amua mchakato wa ujifunzaji.

Baada ya uchunguzi wa kina wa hoja hizi, wanausasanyuzi dosari wakiongozwa na Corder (katajwa) wanahitimisha kuwa, dosari zinazofanywa na wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili au Lgn hazisababishwi pekee na athari za lugha ya kwanza. Aidha, usasanyuzi dosari umegawika katika matawi mawili: kiunzi cha usasanyuzi dosari na kiunzi cha usasanyuzi tumizi wa dosari.

3.1 Kiunzi cha Usasanyuzi Dosari

Hiki ni kiunzi kinachojaribu kutafuta na kupambanua matatizo mbalimbali yanayohusiana na ujifunzaji lugha. Pia, kinatalii miundo na mifumo inayofanya kazi katika mchakato wa kujifunza lugha. Kadhalika, kiunzi hiki kinachunguza sababu ya dosari katika mchakato wa ujifunzaji. Aidha, kinajihusisha na kubainisha aina ya wajifunzaji lugha, ambao wanategemewa kufanya dosari ikilinganishwa na wajifunzaji wengine. Kwa kuzingatia aina ya wajifunzaji, ilihitimishwa kwamba watu wazima wanaojifunza lugha wana uwezekano mkubwa wa kufanya dosari kuliko watoto wadogo kwa sababu ya mwingiliano baina ya Lugha ya kwanza dhidi ya ile wajifunzayo.

3.1.2 Usasanyuzi tumizi wa dosari

Hili ni tawi la usasanyuzi linganishi linalojihusisha na utengenezaji wa zana za kujifunzia pamoja na ubunaji wa kozi au masomo ya muda wa ziada. Kwa kifupi, hili ni tawi la usasanyuzi linganishi linalojihusisha na mbinu mbalimbali atumiazo mwalimu kufundisha lugha na jinsi ya kukabiliana na matatizo yenye kuambatana kwayo. Makala haya yanashughulikia dosari zinazofanywa na wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili katika shule za msingi na sekondari nchini Tanzania, jamii ya Wakinga ikitumiwa kama mfano.

4.0   Matokeo ya Utafiti

Sehemu hii tunawasilisha matokeo ya kuhusiana na dosari zinazojidhihirisha kwa wajifunzaji wa Kiswahili katika jamii ya Wakinga.

4.1   Dosari Zinazofanywa na Wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili katika Jamii ya Wakinga

Lengo mojawapo la utafiti huu lilikuwa-kubainisha dosari zinazofanywa na wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga. Katika kufikia lengo hili, mtafiti aliandaa swali la insha, ambalo watoa taarifa waliandika kuhusu shughuli wanazozifanya tangu wanapoamka hadi wanapokwenda kulala. Baada ya kuchanganua insha hizo, dosari kadhaa zilibainika kama zinavyobainishwa katika katika Jedwali la 1 zilibainika:

Jedwali la 1: Dosari zinazofanywa na Wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili katika Jamii ya Wakinga

Aina za Dosari			
Na.	Dosari za Udondoshaji	Dosari za Ubadilishaji wa Fonimu	Dosari za Uchopekaji	Dosari za Upatanisho wa Sarufi
1.	Øalafu	*L*ambi*l*ambi	Ninam**u**ka	i. …nasikiliza walimu atasema nini
2.	Lugøa	M*f*ua	Tunapumu**n**zika	ii. …naelekea mstarini, tunafanya usafi
3.	gøarama	*f*is*ia gali/lifti		iii. .…mimi ni wanafunzi wa kidato cha pili
4.	gøafla	am*l*i ya kijiji		iv. .…mwalimu anaturuhusu kuwa niende nyumbani
5.		*s*emanini/*s*		

		amanini/ʄe manini		

Chanzo: Uwandani (2020)

Kama Jedwali la 1 hapo juu linavyoonesha, wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga hufanya dosari mbalimbali. Kuhusu dosari hizi, sehemu zifuatazo zinafafanua kama ifuatavyo:

4.1.1 Dosari za uchopekaji

Dosari ya uchopekaji ni aina ya dosari inayorejelea uongezaji wa umbo fulani la kisarufi au dhana kama vile mofimu, mofu, sauti, au silabi katika mazingira ambamo kipashio hicho hakitakiwi kuwamo. Mfano wa dondoo hapa chini unadhihirisha hali hiyo kwa wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga.

> **Uchopekaji wa fonimu /-u-/ na /-n-/**
> *"**NinapoamUka** asubuhi kwa sababu mimi ni mwanafunzi **ninamUka** saa 10:00 kusoma…**TunapumUNzikA** saa nne, tunaingia darasani kusoma. **TunapumUNzikA** saa sita,"*
> **Chanzo**: Uwandani (2020)

Dondoo hili ni nukuu kutoka kwenye insha ya mjifunzaji lugha wakati anaeleza shughuli anazofanya kila siku. Fonimu /u/ na /n/ zimeongezwa katika mazingira ambamo hazitarajiwi kuwamo. Kutokana na uongezaji huo, kumetokea kasoro za kifonolojia kulingana na kanuni za Kiswahili sanifu.

4.1.2 Dosari za udondoshaji wa fonimu

Hii ni dosari inayorejelea kuondoa kipashio fulani cha kisarufi katika mazingira ambamo kipashio hicho ni muhimu na kinahitajika ili kukamilisha muundo wa neno husika. Data zilizokusanywa kwa njia ya insha kama dondoo katika 2 zinadhihirisha hali hiyo.

Udondoshaji wa fonimu /h-/
*"...**alafu** nikitoka kusoma saa 12 ninafanya usafi wa nje na ndani **alafu** nikishafanya usafi huo naoga, navaa nguo za shule **alafu** natandika kitanda, nachukua mfuko wa shule naanza kwenda shuleni.*
Chanzo: Uwandani (2020)

Kama dondoo katika mfano wa 2 uliopita, mjifunzaji lugha amedondosha fonimu /h-/ katika maneno yaliyoandikwa kwa hati nzito. Udondoshaji wa sauti unasababisha dosari, kwa kuzingatia kanuni za Kiswahili sanifu. Aidha, mifano mingine zaidi ni kama jedwali la 2 hapa chini linavyoonesha.

Jedwali la 2: Udondoshaji wa Fonimu /h/

Neno la Kiswahili sanifu	Udondoshaji wa Fonimu /h/
Halafu	Øalafu
Lugha	Lugøa
Gharama	Gøarama
Ghafla	Gøafla

Chanzo: Uwandani (2020)

4.1.3 Dosari za ubadilishaji wa fonimu
Hizi ni dosari zinazotokana na mjifunzaji lugha kutumia fonimu nyingine badala ya ile inayotakiwa, kwa mujibu wa kanuni za Kiswahili sanifu. Uchanganuzi wa insha zilizoandikwa na wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili ulionesha wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili wamefanya ubadilishaji wa fonimu mbalimbali kama zinavyooneshwa katika jedwali la 3 hapa chini:

Jedwali la 3: Ubadilishaji wa Fonimu

Na.	Ubadilishaji wa fonimu	Muundo sahihi wa Kiswahili
1.	*L*ambi*l*ambi	Rambirambi
2.	M*f*ua	Mvua
3.	*fis*ia gali/lifti	Vizia gali/lifti
4.	am*l*i ya Kijiji	Amri ya kijiji
5.	*s*emanini/*s*amanini/*f*emanini	Themanini

Chanzo: Uwandani (2020)

Kama Jedwali la 3 linavyoonesha, wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili wamebadilisha fonimu zinazotakiwa kutumika katika neno husika na kutumia zingine. Matumizi hayo hayakubaliki kulingana na utamkaji wa Kiswahili sanifu. Katika mfano wa 1 na 4 katika jedwali, mjifunzaji ametumia fonimu /l/ badala ya fonimu /r/. Katika mfano wa 2, mjifunzaji amebadilisha fonimu /v/ na kutumia /f/. Aidha, katika mfano wa 5 mjifunzaji lugha amebadili fonimu /ө/ na kutumia fonimu /s/ na /f/. Hali hiyo imesababisha dosari za kifonolojia kwa kuzingatia kanuni za sarufi ya Kiswahili.

4.1.4 Dosari za upatanisho wa sarufi

Hizi ni dosari zinazotokana na mpangilio mbaya wa maneno katika sentensi au tungo. Katika uchanganuzi wa insha zilizoandikwa na wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga, imebainika kuwa wajifunzaji lugha hawa hushindwa kupangilia tungo zenye zinazowiana. Kwa mfano, wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga hufanya dosari za kuoanisha mpangilio wa maneno katika tungo. Katika uchunguzi uliofanyika kwenye insha za wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili, ilibainika wajifunzaji lugha kutunga sentensi ambazo hazina upatanisho wa kisarufi kama mifano ifuatayo inavyooneho:

Dosari za Upatanisho wa Sarufi
    i. "…nasikiliza **walimu a**tasema nini"
    ii. "…**Mimi** ni **wa**nafunzi wa kidato cha pili"
    iii. "…**ni**naelekea mstarini, **tu**nafanya usafi"
    iv. "…mwalimu anaturuhusu kuwa niende nyumbani"
    Chanzo: Uwandani (2020)

Kama tungo zinavyoonesha, kuna kasoro za upatanisho wa kisarufi. Katika tungo ya 3 i-iv) wajifunzaji lugha wamechanganya wingi na umoja. Kwa mfano, nomino *mwalimu* haichukui kipatanishi *a-* kama ilivyo katika dondoo. Kadhalika, kiwakilishi mimi, ambacho ni kiima cha tungo ya pili, hakichukui kipatanishi *wa-*. Vilevile, tungo ya 3 (iii), kipatanishi **ni-** katika kitenzi **ni**naelekea mstarini si sahihi kwenda na kipatanishi **tu-** katika neno tunafanya usafi. Kama ilivyodokezwa hapo awali, tungo hizo zimedondolewa kutoka kwenye insha za wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga. Aidha, kimuundo, tungo hizi hazikubaliki, kwa mujibu wa kanuni za Lugha ya pili sanifu, kwa kuwa kila tungo ina dosari.

4.2   Sababu za Dosari kwa Wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya Pili katika Jamii ya Wakinga

Mingoni mwa malengo mahususi ya makala haya ni kufafanua sababu za dosari za wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga. Katika kuhakikisha lengo hili linafikiwa, watoa taarifa, ambao ni walimu wa shule za msingi na sekondari, walijaza hojaji. Uchunguzi uliofanywa na makala haya kwa njia ya hojaji ulibaini sababu zifuatazo kuwa ndizo zinazosababisha hali ya dosari kwa wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga kama zinavyooneshwa katika Jedwali la 4.

Jedwali la 4: Sababu za Dosari kwa Wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili

Na.	Sababu za Dosari kwa Wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili
1.	Athari za Lugha mama/Kikinga
2.	Ukosefu wa mwingiliano baina ya Wakinga na jamii nyingine
3.	Tofauti ya Kikinga na Kiswahili
4.	Kuchelewa kuanza kujifunza Kiswahili miongoni mwa Wakinga
5.	Mazingira hayawezeshi ujifunzaji wa Kiswahili
6.	Tofauti ya kimsamiati kati ya Kikinga na Kiswahili

Chanzo: Uwandani (2020)

Kama Jedwali la 4 linavyoonesha, sababu za dosari miongoni mwa wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili ni nyingi. Kwanza kabisa ni athari za lugha mama/Kikinga. Dosari za wajifunzaji wa lugha zinasababishwa na athari za lugha ya kwanza. Hii ina maana kwamba, mazoea ya kutumia lugha ya Kikinga ndiyo hufanya wahamishe kanuni za lugha ya Kikinga na kuingiza katika lugha ya pili. Uchunguzi uliofanywa na mtafiti wa Makala haya unaonesha kwamba, wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili muda mwingi wakiwa nyumbani pamoja na wazazi na walezi wao hutumia lugha ya Kikinga tu katika kufanya mawasiliano. Mazoea haya huwafanya wajifunzaji lugha hawa kuhawilisha utaratibu wa lugha ya Kikinga katika Kiswahili. Kwa kufanya hivyo, dosari hutokea kwa kuzingatia ukiushi wa taratibu za Kiswashili sanifu.

Pili, ni tofauti za kimofolojia na kifonolojia kati ya Kikinga na Kiswahili. Kimatamshi, lugha ya Kikinga ni lugha yenye toni, ilhali Kiswahili ni lugha ya mkazo. Hivyo, mjifunzaji anapotumia kanuni za lugha ya kwanza katika lugha ya pili huleta miundo isiyokubalika. Vilevile, kukosekana kwa baadhi ya sauti katika lugha ya pili, ambazo zimo katika Kikinga ni chanzo kingine cha dosari za wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili. Kwa mfano, sauti /ɵ/ na /š/ hazimo katika mfumo wa lugha ya Kikinga lakini

zimo katika sarufi ya Kiswahili. Hivyo, wajifunzaji kila wanapokutana na sauti hizi hupata ugumu wa kuzitumia katika lugha ya pili.

Tatu, ukosefu wa mwingiliano na jamii nyingine kutoka nje ya maeneo ya utafiti. Katika eneo ambalo uchunguzi ulifanywa ni eneo lenye milima, baridi kali na miundo mbinu kama vile barabara, umeme na maji kuwa duni. Mambo haya kwa ujumla yanatatiza maingiliano ya jamii kutoka nje ya Wilaya ya Makete. Katika shule ambamo utafiti ulifanyika, wajifunzaji lugha ni wenyeji wa Makete tu. Ukosefu wa mwingiliano, huwafanya wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili muda mwingi kutumia Lugha ya kwanza hata katika mazingira ya shule. Maelezo haya yanashabihana na matokeo ya Gawasike (2016) anaposema kwamba, licha ya kuwapo kwa miongozo ya matumizi ya Kiswahili katika mazingira ya shule, bado wajifunzaji hutumia lugha ya Kikinga. Hiki ni chanzo kingine cha dosari kwa wajifunzaji wa Kiswahili katika jamii ya Wakinga.

Nne, kuchelewa kuanza kujifunza lugha ya pili miongoni mwa wanajamii wa Kikinga. Uchunguzi uliofanywa na mtafiti wa makala haya umebaini kwamba, asilimia 78 ya wajifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili, huanza kujifunza lugha ya pili wakiwa na umri kati ya miaka 6 mpaka 10. Ni asilimia 22 tu ndiyo huanza kujifunza Kiswahili kabla ya kufika umri wa miaka 6. Katika wakati huo, yaani kabla ya miaka 6 mpaka 10 lugha inayotumika ni Kikinga tu. Katika umri huo, mifumo ya lugha ya Kikinga huwa umejengeka sana, miongoni mwa wajifunzaji hawa kiasi cha kuwawia vigumu kupokea mifumo mingine ya lugha kutokana na mazoea ya kutumia lugha ya Kikinga zaidi kuliko Kiswahili. Uchunguzi unaonesha kwamba, asilimia 80.5 ya wajifunzaji hutumia Kikinga wakiwa mazingira ya nyumbani. Hata hivyo, ni asiliamia 19.5 ya wajifunzaji lugha pekee inayochanganya Kiswahili na Kiingereza wawapo nyumbani.

Tano, mazingira hayawezeshi kujifunza lugha ya pili. Hii ina maana kwamba, wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili wanazungukwa na wazungumzaji wa Kikinga tu. Yaani, wazazi na walezi hutumia lugha ya Kikinga zaidi kuliko Kiswahili. Jambo, hili huwafanya wajifunzaji lugha hawa kukosa ingizo huria. Yaani hawasikii lugha ya pili nje ya mazingira ya shule. Kwa hiyo, ukosefu wa ingizo la kutosha kutoka katika mazingira ya kijamii ni chanzo kimojawapo cha dosari za wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga.

4.3   Mbinu Zinaweza Kutumika Kupunguza Dosari

Lengo la tatu la makala haya lilikuwa kupendekeza mikakati inayoweza kutumika ili kupunguza dosari zinazofanywa na wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga. Katika kutimiza lengo, iliandaliwa hojaji kwa ajili ya walimu wanaofundisha Kiswahili katika jamii ya Wakinga. Swali lifuatalo lilitumika kudodosa, *"Je unafikiri ni mbinu gani zinaweza kutumika ili kuwasaidia wanafunzi wa Kiswahili katika jamii ya Wakinga kumudu vizuri lugha ya pili."* Majibu kutokana na swali hili ni kama inavyooneshwa katika jedwali la 5.

Jedwali la 5: Mbinu za Kupunguza Dosari

Na.	Mbinu iliyopendekezwa
1.	Shule za awali zijengwe/watoto wafundishwe wangali wadogo
2.	Kuboresha miundombinu ili kuruhusu mwingiliano
3.	Kuwapo kwa midahalo ya kwa Kiswahili
4.	Wataalamu/walimu wa Kiswahili wenye sifa waletwe

Chanzo: Uwandani (2020)

Kama Jedwali la 5 linavyooonesha, mbinu mbalimbali zinapendekezwa ili kupunguza dosari za wajifunzaji wa lugha ya pili. Pendekezo la kwanza ni kujengwa kwa shule za awali. Katika shule za awali, watoto wadogo

watafundishwa lugha ya pili, kabla mifumo ya lugha ya kwanza haijaimarika miongoni mwa watoto hao. Hali hii itasaidia kuepuka wajifunzaji lugha ya pili kukakamaa. Zipo nadharia zinazoshadidia mwingiliano wa kajamii na nafasi yake katika kujifunza lugha ya pili kama vile nadharia ya Utabia ya Skinner (1957) na Nadharia ya Maingiliano ya Kijamii Vygostky (1978).

Hata hivyo, ili mawazo ya nadharia hizi yaweze kufanya kazi na kumsaidia mjifunzaji lugha ya pili kumudu lugha anayojifunzi shurti jamii inayomzunguka mjifunzaji lugha husika ziwe zinatumia lugha hiyo kuwasiliana katika mazingira yao ya kila siku. Kutumia lugha hiyo kuwasiliana wawapo nyumbani na katika shughuli nyingine za kijamii ili kumwezesha mjifunzaji lugha huyu kuamili lugha hiyo kwa njia ya uigaji au mwigo. Katika mazingira ya wajifunzaji lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga, hali haiko hivyo. Wazawa wa eneo la utafiti hutumia lugha ya Kikinga katika mawasiliano karibu yote. Mjifunzaji lugha ya pili anapotoka nje ya mazingira ya hukutana na Kikinga katika mawasiliano yao ya kila siku. Kinadharia, umri sahihi wa kujifunza na kumudu lugha ni ule umri wa kabla ya balehe (Lenneberg, 1967; Penfield & Roberts, 1959).

Pili, kuboresha miundombinu ili kuruhusu mwingiliano. Miongoni mwa sababu za dosari imebainika kuwa ni kukosekana kwa maingiliano na wanajamii wengine ya Wilaya ya Makete. Hivyo, miundombinu ya barabara, umeme na maji ikiboreshwa, watu kutoka nje ya Wilaya ya Makete watakwenda kufanya kazi huko kama manesi na walimu, hivyo, mwingiliano na jamii nyingine utakuwa unatokeo na hivyo kuleta mabadiliko ya kutumia lugha. Watoto wa jamii ya Wakinga watalazimika kuzungumza Kiswahili na wenzao ambao hawajui Kikinga. Kwa sasa,

wafanyakazi wengi wanapopangiwa maeneo mbalimbali ya Wilaya ya Makete huomba kuhamishwa, na baadhi ya wafanyakazi hawaripoti kabisa vituoni kwao.

Tatu, kuwepo midahalo itakayotumia lugha ya Kiswahili. Hali hii itawalazimu wajifunzaji Kiswahili kukitumia mara kwa mara. Matokeo yake, ndimi zao zitajizoesha kuzungumza lugha ya Kiswahili tofauti na ilivyo sasa, ambapo Kiingereza kinahamasishwa Zaidi na kutumiwa na wajifunzaji Kiswahili kama lugha ya pili. Mwisho, wataalamu wa Kiswahili wenye sifa wapelekwe kufundisha Kiswahili katika maeneo haya. Uchunguzi uliofanywa na mtafiti wa makala haya, umebaini kuwa walimu wengi wanaofundisha Kiswahili katika shule zilizofanyiwa utafiti, hawana mafunzo ya ufundishaji wa lugha ya pili. Zaidi, hawana ufahamu ikiwa Kiswahili ni lugha ya pili katika maeneo zilizomo shule zao. Jambo hili linawafanya walimu hao kufundisha Kiswahili kama masomo mengine. Hivyo, kupeleka walimu wenye mafunzo ya mbinu za ufundishaji wa Kiswahili ikiwa ni lugha ya Kigeni kunaweza kusaidia kupunguza dosari zinazofanywa na wajifunzaji lugha hawa.

4.0   Hitimisho na Mapendekezo

Makala haya yanahusu dhima ya usasanyuzi dosari katika ufundishaji na ujifunzaji wa lugha ya pili katika jamii ya Wakinga. Data zilikusanywa kwa wajifunzaji lugha kwa njia mbili: uandishi wa insha na hojaji. Nadharia ya Usasanyuzi Dosari ya Corder (1967, 1974) iliongoza utafiti huu. Matokeo yameonesha kuwa wajifunzaji lugha hufanya dosari za: udondoshaji wa fonimu, uchopekaji fonimu, ubadilishaji fonimu na dosari za ukosefu wa upatanisho wa kisarufi. Pia, sababu za dosari zimebainishwa kuwa ni athari za lugha ya kwanza, tofauti za kimofolojia kati ya lugha ya kwanza na lugha ya pili, kuchelewa kuanza kujifunza

lugha ya pili na mazingira yasiyowezesha kujifunza lugha ya pili. Mikakati anuai imependekezwa ili kupunguza dosari hizo kama vile: shule za awali zijengwe/watoto wafundishwe wangali wadogo, kuboresha miundombinu ili kuruhusu mwingiliano, kuwapo kwa midahalo ya kwa Kiswahili na wataalamu/walimu wa Kiswahili wenye sifa waletwe. Hivyo, usasanyuzi dosari unatumika kama chombo cha kuonesha welewa mpana wa jinsi mchakato wa ujifunzaji wa Lugha ya pili ulivyo pamoja na changamoto zinazowakabili wajifunzaji wa lugha.

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ISSN: 2820 - 2724

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