YOUTH TRANSITION

FROM SCHOOL TO WORK IN TANZANIA

A Case Study of the Vocational Education and Training in Tanzania (VETA)

Edited by
Paschal B. Mihyo
Donald E. Mmari
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Organisation for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa (OSSREA)

REPOA

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ABBREVIATIONS

ACET	African Centre for Economic Transformation
ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
AfDB	African Development Bank
CBET	Competence Based Education and Training
BEST	Basic Education Statistics
CCM	Chama cha Mapinduzi
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
COMEDAF	Council of Ministers of Education in Africa
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GLS	Generalized Least Squares
ENABLE	Empowering Novel Agro-business-Led Employment
HC	Human Capital
HCT	Human Capital Theory
KAS	Knowledge Skills and Attitudes
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IITA	International Institute of Tropical Agriculture
ILO	International labour Organization
ITEP	Integrated Training for Entrepreneurship Programme
MMSME	Mini, Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises
NACTE	National Council for Technical Education
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NECP	National Employment Creation Programme
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization

MKUKUTA Tanzania	Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza Umaskini
NMTSP	National Medium -Term Strategic Plan
NVTC	National Vocational Training Council
NVTD	National Vocational Training Division
OCGS	Office of the Chief Government Statistician (Zanzibar)
SDL	Skills Development Levy
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SME	Small and Medium Enterprises
SNV	Netherlands Volunteer Service
STI	Science, Technology and Innovation
STRYDE	Strengthening Rural Youth for Development
STW	School to Work
STWT	School to Work Transition
TCU	Tanzania Commission of Universities
T&DNA	Training and Development Needs Assessment
TET	Technical Education and Training
TIC	Tanzania Investment Centre
TRA	Tanzania Revenue Authority
TSH	Tanzania Shilling
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
TVETDP	Technical and Vocational Education and Training Development Programme
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNDAP	United Nations Development Assistance Plan

UNESCO	United Nations Education and Scientific Organization
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
VETA	Vocational Education and Training Authority
VET	Vocational Education and Training
WEP	Work Experience Programme
YEE	Youth Economic Empowerment

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Economic downturn and declining social sector performance in the period 1980-1995 have substantially influenced debate on skills supply and demand in Tanzania. The downturn saw a substantial decline in the key skills indicator of literacy that had reached a high of 90.4 per cent less than a decade earlier. Central to the debate were concerns that the key skills inputs such as primary school enrolment and primary-secondary transition rates were either falling or stagnating. While there have been improvements in schooling in recent years, the skills debate has nonetheless continued to be informed not least by an absolute increase in youth unemployment in recent years. Recent estimates suggest that at least 2 out of 5 youth are in a state of long-term joblessness or unemployment for a period of one year or more.

Earlier evaluations have found the high levels of youth unemployment in Tanzania to be paradoxical because of Tanzania's relatively high economic growth and spending on education which in theory ought to have translated into rapid job creation and an abundance of well-educated youth. In exploring the paradox, the evaluation found explanation in the dominance of content-based learning in the education system with limited application in the labour-market. Content-based learning focuses on rote memorization of factual knowledge. Despite being replaced by a competence-based curriculum in 2005, the learning curriculum has continued to be content-focused because of policy and institutional bottlenecks. While content-based learning has remained prominent in most of the courses in secondary and tertiary education, it does not necessarily apply to vocational education and training which has a long history in Tanzania, and it has since its inception focused on orienting trainees, most of them young people, towards the world of work.

Unemployment rates among graduates of vocational educational have historically been lower than those of their primary, secondary or University counterparts. Yet, a recent employers' review of Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Tanzania suggests that employers are not satisfied with the skillset of young graduates of the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA). This is despite multiple initiatives to improve TVET programmes in the country.

In the light of these observations and Tanzania's renewed drive to transform its economy through labour market diversification, it is important to revisit

the debate on youth (un)employment and skills in Tanzania. This edited volume attempts to do just that by examining the institutional capacity of TVET organisations, and the desire of employers to engage TVET graduates.

This book is the result of the efforts of the numerous individuals and institutions that worked with REPOA to understand the barriers to youth employment and transition to work in the context of Tanzania's new industrialization drive in 2018-2019. We extend our sincere gratitude to the Embassy of Ireland in Tanzania for funding the research that informs the larger part of this book and to its staff who provided guidance and technical support during the research period. We thank the Government of Tanzania, through the Prime Minister's Office responsible for Labour, Youth, Employment and Persons with Disability for providing us the opportunity to assess the institutional capability of its TVET organisations and for providing us with one of its staff to work with us on this project. We acknowledges the support of the Vocational and Education Training Authority (VETA), private and faith-based providers, students and employers of TVET graduates for providing access to data and the field sites. We thank all acknowledge the contribution of REPOA researchers and research assistants that participated in data collection. Finally, we thank OSSREA for facilitating technical reviews and publication process.

While we acknowledge the support and contribution from various individuals and institutions, we retain the responsibility for data analysis and the results presented here and for any errors that might be associated with the analysis.

Editors

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BOOK SUMMARY

Economic downturn and declining social sector performance in the period 1980-1995 have substantially influenced debate on skills supply and demand in Tanzania. The downturn saw a substantial decline in the key skills indicator of literacy that had reached a high of 90.4 per cent less than a decade earlier. Central to the debate were concerns that the key skills inputs such as primary school enrolment and primary-secondary transition rates were either falling or stagnating. While there have been improvements in schooling in recent years, the skills debate has nonetheless continued to be informed not least by an absolute increase in youth unemployment in recent years. Recent estimates suggest that at least 2 out of 5 youth are in a state of long-term joblessness or unemployment for a period of one year or more.

In light of these observations and Tanzania's attempts to transform its economy through among others labour market and training reforms, this book revisits the debate on youth (un)employment and skills in Tanzania. This is done by examining the institutional capacity of TVET organisations, and the desire of employers to engage TVET graduates. Analysis finds that overall youth participation in the labour market is low and transition from school to work slow. Limited access to labour market information; geographical location both in rural and urban areas; mismatch between skills and job requirements; inadequate entrepreneurial orientation; and prolonged schooling which creates higher expectations, and lack of clear information about the wage structure in various sectors are among many factors that lead to prolonged transition for many graduates in rural and urban areas. At the institutional level, capacity shortcomings in the form of finances, organisational collaboration and coordination, teaching infrastructure and personnel remain prevalent in the administration of TVET. These affect much needed updating of the curriculum and delivery, which are key to addressing skills mismatch in the labour market.

Despite such challenges, the study finds that TVET graduates remain desirable in the labour market with most graduates securing jobs within two years of completing their training. Overall, the book argues for the promotion of strategic linkages between VETA, private providers and employers to improve the ability of TVET to timely respond to labour market demands. The book concludes by recommending policy options to inform medium and long-term institutional arrangements in the sector.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Paschal B. Mihyo, Donald E. Mmari & Jamal B. Msami

Employment remains one of the most pressing public policy concerns in the world. Its primacy is driven as much by the direct livelihood effects it has on the population, as it is by the intergenerational spill-overs on public revenue, service provision and the socio-political welfare (Dvouletý et al., 2018; Siddartha et al., 2020). The success of employment policies across the globe is often measured on the extent to which they are able to balance the supply of jobs with demand in an economy (Holzer, 2019). This is a feat that has proved particularly difficult for developing countries with an increasingly youthful and ill-educated workforce like Tanzania (Morriset et al., 2013). The effect of ineffective employment policies in poor countries like Tanzania is circular, manifesting in a retardation of economic growth, transformation, and service delivery, further stymieing policy implementation (United Republic of Tanzania, 2007a, 2008). Employment policy challenges are further compounded by the varied feedbacks of policy inadequacies which threaten peace, and contribute to instability and social disharmony (United Republic of Tanzania, 2007a).

The multiple challenges posed by shortcomings in employment policies have over time compelled closer considerations of not just the costs and benefits of employment but also for the demographics of populations affected (Chari et al., 2017; Cuesta and Budría, 2017). Inspired by Gary Becker's foundational analyses of human capital and employment (1962; 1994), recent employment discourse focusing on young developing countries has explored how to harness the abundance of labour brought by growing population to effect employment outcomes. (Chari et al., 2017; Loprest et al., 2019). Discourse has framed the relationship between youthful growing populations and employment in terms of the quality of available labour, promoting debate on skills and training in much of the developing world (Chari et al., 2017; Morriset et al., 2013). Yet continued sub optimality of employment policies, has seen a rise in the number of youths, both with and without skills, without employment across the globe. Such considerations have opened debates on how skills and training impact on the transition from school to work. These debates are also informed by some previous studies which revealed that the gravity of youth

unemployment increases over time, as the transition from school to work becomes difficult. In Tanzania, for example, while close to one million youth enter the job market every year only 50,000 to 60,000 manage to secure jobs in the formal sector (Wijesekera, 2015). This was confirmed at the launch of the World Bank Report titled 'Tanzania: Productive jobs wanted' in February 2015 by the former President Jakaya Kikwete at which he said every year over 800,000 young people enter the labour market[1] . As a result of the difficult transition, many young graduates have not secured jobs that are productive, assured of a fair income, safe working conditions, equality of opportunity and treatment, job security and social protection (ILO, 2018).

In simple terms, most of the jobs that the youth get do not qualify to be classified as decent work (ILO, 2018). Indeed, most youth graduates have ended up in low paying, high-risk jobs without social protection and are unable to demand or protect their rights. Most of these jobs are in the informal sector (Ndyali, 2016; Rizzo & Wuyts, 2014) and they lack most of the elements of decent work such as regular and fair pay, and the right to organise (see Table 1).

It is noteworthy from the data on table 1 that youth employment in the agricultural and other natural resources sub-sectors is not aggregated per subsector although most of the employment opportunities for the youth are in those sectors. A 2009 World Bank study on Sustaining Job Creation and Improving the Quality of Jobs in Tanzania (World Bank, 2009) indicated that the fourth phase government of Tanzania (2005-2015) had intended to create one million jobs by 2010, but this could not happen because of several factors. It identifies skill levels as a primary challenge and indicates that among people aged fifteen years and above only 0.8 % had advanced to secondary and university education; 16.5 % had completed secondary education; 49.5 % primary education; 25.3 % had no education, and 3.2 % had dropped out of secondary education. This was a severe impediment to job creation targets.

The study further noted that during the periods when employment had increased, significant growth was in agriculture, trade and hospitality. While there was a slow increase in urban areas, rural areas had stable employment

1 The Former President was addressing audience in the launch of the 2015 World Bank Report, titled 'Tanzania: Productive jobs wanted'.

rates accompanied by stable underemployment. Another observation in this study was that in urban areas, there was a remarkable increase in women participation in market activities especially for those aged 25 and above but unemployment remained high for the youth and women. Table 1 below corroborates the findings of the 2009 World Bank study. It shows that the agricultural sector led in job opportunities by contributing 65.83 % of total employment followed by wholesale and retail trade. It is these sectors that require the youth but do not attract the necessary support to enable them to recruit and retain post-primary education graduates (World Bank, ibid).

Table 1: Youth Employment by Industry 2004 and 2014

INDUSTRY	2006				2014			
	Male	Female	Total	% Share	Male	Female	Total	% Share
Agriculture/ Hunting/ Forestry & Fishing	3,257,857	3,876,378	7,134,235	74.4	3,606,846	3,638,021	7,244,867	65.82
1. Mining & Quarry	44,597	8,847	53,444	0.6	84,439	25,729	110,168	1
2. Manufacturing	160,924	117,939	278,863	2.9	194,925	179,788	374,712	3.4
3. Electricity, Gas & Water	2,676	1,152	3,828	0	12,456	2,328	14,784	0.13
4. Construction	106,521	3,729	110,250	1.1	233,626	12,141	245,767	2.23
5. Wholesale & Retail 6. Trade	478,397	331,295	809,692	8.4	704,920	723,276	1,428,196	12.97

INDUSTRY	2006				2014			
	Male	Female	Total	% Share	Male	Female	Total	% Share
7. Hotels & Restaurants	51,734	162,287	214,021	2.2	87,861	371,158	459,019	4.17
8. Transport/Storage & Communication	141,511	5,843	147,354	1.5	348,378	18,245	366,623	3.33
9. Financial Intermediation	3,988	4,076	8,064	0.1	9,892	23,611	33,503	0.3
10. Real Estate/Renting & Business activities	28,281	8,877	37,158	0.4	1,192	827	2,019	0.02
11. Public Administration	45,369	10,338	55,707	0.6	43,037	20,200	63,237	0.57
12. Health & Social service	6,696	18,319	25,016	0.3	18,536	40,162	58,698	0.53
13. Other								
Community/Social & Personal Service Activities	44,072	22,677	66,748	0.7	107,618	96,853	204,471	1.86

INDUSTRY	2006				2014			
	Male	Female	Total	% Share	Male	Female	Total	% Share
14. Private Households with Employed Persons	113,914	436,083	549,996	5.7	27,196	187,619	214,815	1.95
15. Extra-territorial Organization & Bodies	-	-	-	0	586	-	586	0.01
Total	**4,531,514**	**5,056,802**	**9,588,316**	**100**	**5,563,759**	**5,444,050**	**11,007,809**	**100**

Source: *Tanzania Integrated Labour Force Survey (ILFS), 2006 and 2014*

Kanyabwoya (2014) provides further evidence of alarming youth unemployment using two incidences of recruiting and selection in some organisations. First, when almost 20,000 candidates applied to fill only 70 positions at the Immigration Department in the Ministry of Home Affairs in Dar es Salaam, so enormous were the qualifications of the applicants that the department shortlisted a total of 10,500 candidates for interviews which, for the lack of adequate office space, had to be conducted at the National Stadium in Dar Es Salaam. Similar occurrences were recorded elsewhere in the country including at the Tanzania Revenue Authority.

The rate of youth unemployment in Tanzania can be seen from the Integrated Labour Force Survey (National Bureau of Statistics, 2015), which indicated that by the end of 2014 there were 14.8 million youth of which 11 million were employed. Most of those employed were in the informal sector. According to the survey, 3.8 million youth were unemployed. Amongst the unemployed, there were 2.3 million youth who could work but did not have jobs and they were not actively searching for work (see Table 2).

Table 2: Youth Employment Situation by Sex

YOUTH EMPLOYMENT SITUATION	SEX		TOTAL
	Male	Female	
Employed	5,444,050	5,563, 759	11,007,809
Unemployed	920,073	543,109	1,463,182
Inactive	1,317,861	972,710	2,290,571
Youth Population	7,079,578	7,681,984	14,761,562

Source: *ILFS, 2014*

According to the National Bureau of Statistics, while the total youth unemployment rate declined from 13.2% in 2006 to 11.7% in 2014 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2015), the percentage of rural youth out of employment increased from 7.9% to 8.2% in the same period. The increase was more profound among rural females who saw a 1.3%-point increase in their prospects of being unemployed between 2006 and 2014 (see Table 3). This is confirmed by recent data indicating that youth unemployment had increased since the last Integrated Labour Survey published in 2014. According to Trading Economics (2016), the general unemployment rate in Tanzania decreased from 10.70 % in 2012 to 10.30 % in 2014, and the unemployment rate has been higher among the youth than among adults having continuously stood at 13.70 % between 2010 and 2013 and

increased to 14.90 % in 2014. Also, while the general unemployment rate is projected to fall to 8.00 % in 2020, youth unemployment is projected to be 12.65 % by that time (Trade Economics, 2018b). A comparison of female and male youth also indicates that youth unemployment is higher among females than their male counterparts at 14.3 % among females compared to 12.3 % among males. In urban areas, it is estimated at 22 % against 7.1 % in rural areas (Mejia, et al 2015).

Table 3: Youth Unemployment Rate by Sex

	2006			**2014**		
	Male	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
Number	621,382	836,656	1,458,038	543,109	920,073	1,463,182
Rate	**12.1**	**14.2**	**13.2**	**8.9**	**14.5**	**11.7**

Source: ILFS, 2006 and 2014

Following the seriousness of the problem of youth unemployment in Tanzania this study focuses on problems of transition from school to work. The assumption is that the education system does not adequately prepare the youth to become employable or to form their own successful enterprises. The Vocational Education and Training Authority which offers skills development training aimed at increasing the employability of its trainees was chosen as a case study. The focus was on the factors influencing youth unemployment and employability and the role of vocational education and training in reducing challenges of from school to work transition.

Following this introduction, the remainder of the book is organized as follows. Chapter two provides the overview of concepts and methodology in this book. Chapter three provides a theoretical framework and literature review of what is known about factors that influence transition from school to work. Chapter four addresses the Tanzanian labour market characteristics that have the potential to impact on youth transition to employment. Chapter five covers national policies that are aimed at employment promotion and provide those which provide the institutional framework for provision of vocational education and training services. Chapter six provides an overview of the mandates and strategies used by the Vocational Education and Training Authority in implementing these policies. Chapter seven examines factors that influence youth decisions during job search and how they impact on their transitions. Chapter eight contains suggestions on strategies that can increase the contribution of VETA to appropriate skill development supportive of the employability of its trainees. Chapter nine

provides a summary of major findings, conclusions, and recommendations for policy action.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND METHODOLOGY

Jamal B. Msami & Donald E. Mmari

Applied and theoretical contributions to youth employment are often anchored on the basic tenets of the nexus between youth education, skills and training, and employment, unemployment, underemployment, labour market transition, human capital, and human resources (Dvouletý *et al.*, 2018; Filmer and Fox, 2014; Fox *et al.*, 2016). These conceptual blocks enable and constrain the ability of youth to engage in the labour market, providing the building blocks for understanding the relationship between the two. This chapter reviews the state of literature on youth employment to highlight issues related to the understanding of key concepts in this analysis, including 'employment', 'unemployment' and 'youth'. This is done to map the conceptual landscape of vocational education and training, and to unpack the theoretical composition of youth, skills and employment.

2.1. EDUCATION

Education is one of the essential aspects of human life, particularly human development. It builds one's brainpower and skills. Much of the literature interrogating the relationship between education and employment is modelled on the 1992 Economic Sciences Nobel Prize winner Gary Becker's (1962; 1994) insights on the capitalisation of one's knowledge and skills. This school of thought generally argues that education and training are potent drivers affecting the school to work transition of youth. For example, Borjas (2013) argues that not only does education increase earnings, but it also acts as a signal to employers on an individual's innate ability. Additionally, education increases individual productivity which employers expect from employees (Borjas, 2013). Education attains this by exposing the employees to relevant training programs, thereby improving the performance of the workforce (Holland & De Cieri, 2006; Kramar et al., 2011). Ormiston (2016) and Brixiová *et al.* (2015) observe that exposing youths to effective training programs can (i) 'create' or equip them with relevant Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes (KSAs) (ii) 'maintain' KSAs acquired by youths by continually updating training programs to reflect the latest and most relevant KSAs, and (iii) ultimately help youth to become employable following improved performance as a result of the possession of KSAs that enable them to more effectively and efficiently

perform their roles. This study focuses on vocational education and training as a mechanism for developing skills that can help youth to acquire such capabilities.

At this juncture, it is important to clarify some key conceptual differences in labour and employment terminology. According to Orton et al. (2000), while all the members of the workforce can collectively be referred to as human resources, only the workforce with quality KSAs qualifies as human capital (HC). This fact is further emphasised by Kramar et al. (2011), who define HC as the list of KSAs and other relevant human characteristics that an individual must have to perform a particular job. Hossain (2004) expands this definition by arguing that HC is constituted by KSAs embodied in individuals that can enhance the performance of a particular organisation. He further points out that HC is formed by exposing individuals to relevant training programs, which is in this particular case we hypothesize the significance of TVET programmes in general and Vocational Education and Training in particular. TVET in Tanzania is divided into technical Education and Training (TET), which offers training in advanced technical skills; and Vocational Education and Training (VET), which offers training on basic vocational skills. We seek to examine the extent to which human capital formation through vocational education and training enhances chances for youth employability and shortens their transition from school to work. In Chapter 3 we will provide the theoretical perspectives on the link between human capital development through TVET and transition from school to work.

Two components of education commonly used in the world today are general/academic education, and vocational education and training (VET) as Box 1 indicates. Assessment of the role of education in labour market outcomes requires a necessary effort in observing how general academic education and VET impact the school to work transition of labour market prospects as they are different components.

According to Ishumi (1994), general academic education relates to an exchange of knowledge that aims at raising and expanding levels of awareness and comprehension of matters in question. In contrast, vocational training mainly targets the development skills by exposing people to a set of techniques related to a particular trade or vocation[1]. Furthermore,

1 Vocation is defined as a valued job or occupation chosen by or for an individual because of its potential for providing gratification and moral worth to the individual and the service to the wider community (Ishumi, 1994)

vocational training is said to have noticeable impacts on socioeconomic development as it is closely related to job performance (Katebalirwe, 2014; Filmer and Fox, 2014). Additionally, vocational education and training provide knowledge for complete mastery of a job.

Regarding job performance, generic training is said to be a necessary condition, but it may be insufficient to master a job. That is why vocational education is required. Therefore, to equip people with necessary skills and knowledge for job mastery, vocational education and training may be synchronised or may be taken successively (Ishumi, 1994). More emphasis on the relevance of vocational education to employment is made by Wößmann, et al (2015) who maintains that for countries with vocational schooling, youth are more likely to be employed, but then this possibility decreases with age. Verhaest and Baert (2015) have also portrayed general schooling set against vocational schooling as a trade-off between lower risk of bad match persistence later on, and higher employment chance and better match at the start of the career but only when the unobserved heterogeneity is not taken into account.

Box 1: Various aspects of education and training

General education	**Vocational education**
• Raising and expanding awareness level which lasts longer • Raising and expanding comprehension level that endures	• Facilitating total mastery of the job • Giving indirect ability to perform work • Providing an alternative to higher levels of general education
General training	**Vocational training**
• Permitting exposure to diverse techniques/ skills • Allowing use of techniques/ skills used across occupations and establishments, i.e. equal productivity	• Acquiring specific skills/ techniques for a job • Leading to quick and apparent effects on socio-economic development • Becoming a necessary condition for job performance

Sources: Borjas (2013, p. 270), Ishumi (1994, pp. 107,108)

With all these views on general education against VET in relation to the youth unemployment challenge, the question remains on the role of VET in making school to work transition for the youth easier.

2.2. EMPLOYMENT

Employment is the provision of service for gaining income (Black, Hashimzade, & Myles, 2009; National Bureau of Statistics, 2011). According to the National Bureau of Statistics (2011), it involves the engagement of people in the economic activities for gaining income in order to sustain their lives. Employment can be in the formal and non-formal sectors (Helgesson, 2006; United Republic of Tanzania, 2007a, 2016a). It can also involve self- and non-self-employment (Black et al., 2009; National Bureau of Statistics, 2011). Furthermore, non-self-employment can be in the formal on non-formal sectors.

2.3. UNEMPLOYMENT

Black et al. (2009) define unemployment as the inability to secure employment when one is ready and able to work. Similarly, ILO defines it as a situation involving people who have not worked more than one hour during a short reference period, but who are available for and actively seeking work (O'Higgins, 1997). For Tanzania, according to National Bureau of Statistics (2011), unemployment means a condition experienced by people working fewer hours than those required to enable them to meet their needs; those capable of working and available but without any work and those capable, available and without work but not seeking it. As was shown in Table 3, youth unemployment in Tanzania is very high and increased in absolute numbers between 2006 and 2014, especially for females.

2.4. YOUTH

The debate on who is a 'youth' in Africa has not resolved the confusion surrounding the concept. Thus, the concept of 'youth' has been understood and used in different ways by different governments, NGOs and the public in general in many African countries and elsewhere in the world (Helgesson,2006; Mkandawire, 1996 as cited in Chigunta, 2002). In much of Africa, laws define 'adulthood' as commencing from the age of 21, even though in recent years, there has been an attempt to lower this age to the conventional 18 years (Curtain, 2000 as cited in Chigunta, 2000; Mkandawire, 1996 as cited in Chigunta, 2002). In practice, however, for most countries, 21 years of age remains the level at which many of the activities and responsibilities of 'adulthood' are assumed legally and socially (Chigunta, 2002).

Sociologically, the term youth denotes an interface between 'childhood' and

'adulthood' (Helgesson, 2006). Nevertheless, in many African societies, especially rural Africa, the status of 'adulthood' is largely determined by the capacity to sustain an official or legal marriage (Chigunta, 2002). In such countries as Mali, Burkina Faso, Ivory Coast, Guinea-Conakry and Senegal, 'adulthood' is defined in public perceptions as related to one's marital status. Accordingly, those who are unable to acquire such status for economic or other reasons, irrespective of their biological age, can still be regarded as "children" or "youth". Hence, a 12-year-old girl experiencing early marriage is likely to be regarded as 'adult' while a 40-year-old unmarried man may be treated as a "child" or "youth", being dependent on his parents to get the necessities of life (Abdullah, 1999; Mkandawire, 1996; cited in Chigunta, 2002).

In general, however, the concept of youth is defined by biological age. In this line, the spectrum of youth has been variously defined, ranging between 10 and 35 years. To standardise youth programmes, international organisations, particularly the United Nations and the Commonwealth have come up with specific age categories. For instance, the United Nations uses the age category 15-24 years to define 'youth', while the Commonwealth applies the age category 15-29 years. The ILO (2014) defines youth as the people whose age is between 15 and 29. Most African countries have adopted either the UN or Commonwealth definition (Chigunta, 2002). In Tanzania, the same concept is understood as the people of age between 15 and 35 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2015; United Republic of Tanzania, 2007b).

2.5. LABOUR MARKET TRANSITION

Youth labour market transition is defined as the passage of the young people from the end of schooling or entry into the first economic activity or the first stable or satisfactory job (ILO, 2014).

2. 6. THE STUDY METHODOLOGY

The study underlying this book examined the capacity of VETA to contribute to human capital development in such a manner that makes it easy for its graduates to transit quickly from training to work and the desire of employers to engage VETA graduates. VETA coordinates and regulates the provision of vocational education and training (VET) services by all institutions which offer courses on vocational and occupational skills. Training focused on technical education (TET) which involves technical colleges is coordinated by the National Council for Technical Education

(NACTE). The study focused on VET and the role played by VETA and its institutions in developing skills that can enhance youth employability and easy transition to work. This was done by answering two research questions, on: whether VETA institutions do possess the institutional capacity to deliver on their mandate, and the desirability of VETA graduates to employers. Analysis is based on a comprehensive sampling of VETA staff, VETA students, VETA and non-VETA graduates, and employers. The study employed a convergent parallel mixed-method approach, involving a triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data. Additionally, the study strictly followed research ethics to promote comprehensive reality of the research process and findings.

A total of 574 respondents were purposively sampled by the study from various councils in Tanzania depending on the physical presence of VETA institutions. These included institutions in Arusha City, Dodoma City, Ilala Municipality, Ilemela Municipality, Kilosa District Council, and Kinondoni Municipality. Other locations were Kyela District Council, Lindi District Council, Lindi Municipality, Mbeya Municipality, Meru District Council, Misungwi District Council, Morogoro Municipality, Temeke Municipality, and Ubungo Municipality.

A total of 210 graduates evenly divided between VETA, Private and Faith Based VET centres and non VETA centres were sampled in this study. This was supplemented by a sample of 210 current VET students, 105 staff at VET centres and 49 employers. Tables 3 and 4, illustrate the sample's composition.

Table 4: Respondents According to Their Groups

GROUP OF RESPONDENTS	NUMBER
VETA Graduates	70
Private and Faith Based VET Graduates	70
Non VETA Graduates	70
Total Number of students	210
Total number of employers	49
Total number of staff	105
TOTAL NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS	**574**

Sources: Field work data

Field data was collected via a survey based on semi-structured interview questionnaires. Bespoke semi-structured questionnaires were administered to each of the study groups presented in Table 3. The study found a

disproportionately high number of male VET students and graduates compared to female students. Conscious efforts were made to compensate for these uneven populations by oversampling female participants. Approximately 4 out of 10 VET graduates interviewed were female (Table 4).

Table 5: Percentage of TVET Graduates Interviewed by Location and Sex

NAME OF COUNCIL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
Arusha City	9.5	4.3	13.8
Dodoma City	10.0	4.3	14.3
Ilala Municipality	1.4	1.4	2.8
Ilemela Municipality	6.2	2.9	9.1
Kilosa District	4.8	1.9	6.7
Kinondoni Municipality	1.9	4.8	6.7
Kyela District	0.0	1.0	1
Lindi District Council	4.3	0.0	4.3
Lindi Municipality	2.9	7.1	10
Mbeya Municipality	6.7	6.7	13.4
Meru District	0.0	0.5	0.5
Misungwi District	1.9	0.0	1.9
Morogoro Municipality	6.2	1.4	7.6
Nyamagana Municipality	1.0	2.4	3.4
Temeke Municipality	3.3	0.5	3.8
Ubungo Municipal	0.5	0.5	1
Total percentage	**60.5**	**39.5**	**100**
Number of interviewees	**127**	**83**	**210**

Sources: Field work data

Research ethics were observed to minimise harm to participants and enumerators. Elements of ethics followed are informed consent, privacy, confidentiality, anonymity, data protection, integrity, and gender sensitivity.

CHAPTER 3

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Paschal B. Mihyo, Donald E. Mmari & Jamal B. Msami

3.1. DEFINING TRANSITION

In employment and labour market situations where the ultimate goal of a job seeker is to secure fixed term employment, 'transition' essentially refers to the length of time a person spends between completion of schooling and the 'first entry into fixed term employment' based on a formal contract (Matsumito and Elder, 2010). The definition provided by Matsumito and Elder emphasizes 'fixed term' and 'satisfactory job' to ensure that the issue of decent work is not lost sight of in the discourse. In their own words, 'It is not until a young person has attained work that meets a very basic criteria of 'decency' namely permanency that can provide the worker with a sense of security (fixed term employment) or a job that the worker feels personally satisfied with (satisfactory employment), that we can claim the transition has been completed'. The ILO School To Work Programme of which the work by Matsumito and Elder is one of the outputs, uses this definition and considers a person to be in transition if she or he is not engaged in temporary or an unsatisfactory jobs or in a salaried or wage job without a contract or where a person is self-employed or engaged in unpaid family labour. Those in school or out of school but not looking for jobs are not considered to be in transition.

In the changing world of work, in which labour markets are becoming less protective of full, or long-term employment, transition is better understood as a process through which a person passes after exiting formal schooling before getting his or her first job. In the contemporary world of work, fixed term jobs are getting more elusive. Even in the public service, tenured jobs are becoming fewer and fewer (Fontaine *et al.*, 2020; Hur and Perry, 2019). Therefore, the definition of transition ought to take cognizance of this fact and should include temporary work as long as it is contractual and decent. Labour management experts have found fixed term contracts characterized by wage rigidity, trade union practices that entrench featherbedding and protective union shops as obstacles to competitive labour recruitment and

youth employment. Marsden (1995) argued that employment systems that go for fixed contracts and keep employees for very long irrespective of performance stifle chances for the recruitment of youth and create anti-recruitment labour market and wage rigidities. In his words, 'remuneration policies may also be inconsistent with employment openings for certain workers e.g. bureaucratic pay scales with rates of pay tied to jobs may militate against young peoples' employment'.

It is important to define transition bearing in mind that rigid labour market practices based on relational contracts that treat several categories of workers as homogenous coupled with heavy reliance on old scientific management systems such as compartmentalization of functions through fixed contracts, have been blamed for the degeneration and near collapse of General Motors in the 1990s (Harper and Henderson, 2014). Pegging the definition of 'transition' to fixed term contracts connoting long term employment also ignores new public management practices characterized by short term contracts, contracts that are performance based, contracting out and use of collateral or non-core staff and other new management practices now popular in the public sector which used to rely very much on fixed term and tenured contracts (Alabi 1999).

Similarly, the notion of 'satisfactory employment' in determining the end of transition may also be misleading because it is very easy to confuse between a satisfactory job and job satisfaction as the former may arise from the temporary satisfaction on securing a job that meets some or most of the job seeker's expectations. But that the job meets expectations does not necessarily mean it is satisfactory. Job satisfaction is a process and develops or deteriorates depending on how workers fit into organizations, how supportive or unsupportive they perceive the organizations to be and how conducive they find the environment to be to their personal growth and advancement (Hussin and Mokhtar 2018). Hence transition should be looked at as a process through which a potential worker is searching for jobs and the process should be deemed to have come to an end when such a person gets a job whether it is temporary or longer term or becomes self-employed. In all these cases it is important that the work should be able to secure a decent income for the worker.

3.2. EDUCATION LEVEL AND TRANSITION

Unemployment imposes emotional and psychological problems for youth and adults alike. Recent research associates unemployment among youth

with adverse perceptions about one's standing in society and their future (Loprest *et al.*, 2019). For those who have spent longer in school up to tertiary level, prolonged learning followed by prolonged transition to employment is construed by family and community members as evidence of failure. The perceptions become more negative when primary and lower secondary school leavers manage to get jobs quicker than those from tertiary education. More often than not, communities and families consider those who did not go very far in schooling and remained behind to be more useful to them because they help with household and community chores and when local job opportunities appear, they take them without thinking twice (Fox, 2016; Fox *et al.*, 2016). They work on local farms and in local firms and accept low pay and difficult working conditions.

A School to Work (STW) study by the ILO team on Azerbaijan, Egypt and Iran showed that there were higher rates of unemployment among secondary school than among primary school and tertiary education graduates and it was very low among those who had not attained any formal education. This creates difficulties for categories of graduates who are not considered to be useful to local communities anymore and yet fail to get good jobs that can enable them to meet their needs and the expectations of their families and communities. In order to address this challenge, tertiary education graduates may be ready to accept jobs below their qualifications or they may not disclose their actual qualifications, and this may easily lead to underemployment (Matsumito and Elder 2010:15). However, in most cases the school system seems to prepare learners for specialized jobs and if they only look for such jobs, they experience prolonged transition periods. This raises the fundamental issue of whether the school system prepares people for excessive specialization and alienation which aggravate transition challenges for the youth.

Alfred Mike Dockery (2010) conducted research in Australia to examine the assumption that higher education may be preparing young people for expectations that cannot be met in most of the labour markets. He found out that for university graduates, their university days were their 'days of glory' and their happiness declined upon completion of their studies and attaining qualifications. He also concluded that on the other hand vocational education, apprenticeship and traineeship had a positive impact on happiness during training and happiness continued among graduates of these programmes after their graduation. The unhappiness among Australian university graduates was caused by the mismatch between what

they were prepared for during training i.e. good jobs and good pay and what they face on the labour market after graduation. Further expounding on the challenge of increasing unhappiness among graduates, Dockery indicates that at global level, research had shown that for almost half a century there has been substantial growth in real income but happiness level had not increased at the same rate because it is what people earn or expect to earn in comparison with what others earn that shapes their level of happiness.

Similar research undertaken by Omari and Mihyo (1993) on student unrest in public African universities in Kenya, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe found that between 1985 and 1990 most university students' strikes took place near final examinations and in most cases led to closure of universities sometimes for indefinite periods. In Kenya these prolonged strikes were making students to take as long as six years for degree courses supposed to take three years and seven to eight years for those supposed to take five years. When asked about the root causes some students said they did not want to finish training because in their words, 'if we finish, we are finished'. During that period up to the year 2000 students in most universities were getting free accommodation, food and student allowances that were higher than salaries of middle category civil servants. This creates expectations and lifestyle gaps between life on campus and life in the community with or without work and it has a big impact on expectations and on the duration of transition. These observations hold true among many of Sub Saharan African youths today (Chari *et al.*, 2017; Filmer and Fox, 2014)

The *'finish and get finished'* fear of university students in the study by Omari and Mihyo (1993) points to a bigger problem of education and culture. Education has not been studied seriously as a process of configuration of personal behaviour, etiquettes, expectations and practices. Doubledam (1990) explained this configuration in terms of education as a process that leads to old thoughts, ideas, beliefs, and practices fading away and being replaced by new ones. The longer people remain in educational institutions the stronger the adaptation to new values and culture becomes and when they come out of these institutions, they experience a culture shock. This shock becomes more pronounced when people leaving educational institutions become aware on graduation that there are not as many jobs as they expected, and they may be without jobs for a long time even for the whole of their lives (Chari *et al.*, 2017; Fox *et al.*, 2016). According to Cheng Kai Ming (1990) culture shock for graduates who cannot find jobs

quickly or easily may be caused by lack of adaptability of the labour force or potential labour force to conditions in the labour market.

The culture shock which Cheng Kai Ming has written about needs further discussion in terms of how it affects the transition from school to work. Ming looks at it in terms of the extent to which education integrates into or alienates the leaner from his or her community. He compares the school systems in Eastern mainly Buddhist countries- China, Korea and Japan on the one hand and in Western countries mainly France, Germany and Holland. He distinguishes the school system in these hemispheres based on three factors. First the school systems in the East are unified and expose students to the same curriculum from primary to secondary school with very limited differentiation at post-secondary level ensuring all learners are exposed to the same training while in the West specialization starts very early with learners being confined to specific specialization from lower secondary school level and the differentiation becomes more pronounced at higher secondary and tertiary levels. Second, by following the same curriculum the Eastern Asia approach emphasizes cultivating the ability of students while in Western education the teaching is supposed to build on the in-born ability of the learner. The third area of difference between the two models is that in the West student counselling is based on what the teachers consider to be suitable for students using personality and psychological tests while in the East emphasis is on the students' job prospects and preferences. According to Ming, 'Personal suitability comes very low in their priorities. In other words, they look for job satisfaction rather than job satisfactoriness.' It is the emphasis on job satisfaction that encourages many graduates in East Asia to prefer self-employment or to accept jobs in areas where they want to learn and soon establish businesses of their own. The clash between what the school systems prepare young people for and what they encounter during job search accounts in most cases for prolonged transition among tertiary education graduates and shorter transition among those whose did not stay long enough in educational institutions to get a culture shock because those who stay for very long there find it difficult to get back to their original mind sets. As Aristotle observed, 'One thing alone not even God can do, is to make undone whatever hath been done' (Aristotle).

Africa inherited a colonial schooling system initially designed to uproot young people from their communities and prepare them to serve the structures of colonial governance either as producers or service providers or

as administrators on behalf of the governing powers. In that configuration the school system became a process of removal and alienation. Post-colonial design and management of education policies has done little to transform extant education systems. Primary schools have continued to be located in the community and without fencing. Villagers or community members continue to pass through school compounds even when classes are in session. Secondary schools, especially in rural areas, have continued to be built far from community residences and in some cases in isolated areas or in the middle of forests. In keeping with their colonial predecessors, these have continued to be fenced, with children kept for long periods of six months per term, being taught many things most of which have little to no direct links with their surrounding communities or environments. Thus, it is not surprising that after six years of staying in such institutions, their thinking and perceptions of society are already changed to suit the culture of those in charge of education and systems of production, distribution and governance. Demonstrating their colonial heritage, universities and colleges in much of post-colonial Africa have maintained a physical distance from communities and are mostly in urban centres and have to date remained insulated from these communities by fences and security guards.

The failure to reform education systems in Sub Saharan Africa away from their colonial past, has led to the production of communities within communities (Goode, 1957), in which students and their instructors maintain little relevant knowledge about the characteristics of their surrounding environment (communities). Students only mingle with citizens when they come out to demonstrate against inadequate provisions or allowances. This kind of insulation which starts at secondary school level has continued even after the end of colonialism. It contributes negatively to the processes of integration of learners into communities and after graduation it leads to clashes of cultures and frustration and shock as students discover that the lives, they were living whether on campus or off-campus were really out of touch with life in the real economy.

3.3. OVER-EDUCATION, UNDER-EDUCATION AND TRANSITION

In 2016, Kelvin Balogoun, the President of Coca-Cola for Central, East and West Africa, remarked that almost half of the ten million graduates released onto the labour market by over 668 universities in Africa do not get jobs because they lack the necessary competence and a few of those

Coca-Cola takes, have to be trained to work (ACET, 2016). Education is very useful, but it can both empower and disempower people. Where it equips the learner with knowledge and skills to produce goods or provide services, it empowers both the learner and the society. Education becomes meaningful if it leads to the development of the individual learner and the society to whose development the learner must make a contribution. It is therefore important that in understanding the challenges of school to work transition, a clear distinction is made between learning or schooling and education. Education has always been a way of life and preparation for survival in Africa and it has been integrated within the social, economic and governance systems of African communities. However, schooling as a process of removal of learners from their communities and confining them into exclusive enclaves of learning is a more recent phenomenon.

In traditional non-formal education, people chose education which could lead them to a specific craft, occupation or specialization (Boyden, 2013). General education was about rules, norms, roles, and chores determined by division of labour between gender and age groups and these also included survival and soft skills. After this general education people entered into training on crafts or specializations such as defence, farming, tool making, iron work, weaving, pottery, farming, fishing, hunting, using timber products to produce goods, medicines etc., and all these were integrated into society and responsive to the direct needs of the individual learners and their communities.

Therefore, there was no learning aimed at securing an unknown job after completion of training and there were limited, if any, problems of transition from learning to work because most of the job related training was either on the job or directed at particular jobs of interest to the learners and the communities in which they lived. Learning was educational in the sense of aiming at the development of the individual and the society and it was embedded in the lives and cultures of communities and therefore both programmatic and pragmatic (Kaya and Seleti 2013, Funteh 2015, Ezeanya-Esiobu 2019). Another difference was that in non-formal education, the training was on how to think and resolve problems and not on what to think or how to think like others. Learning leads to education when it trains young people not on what to think but how to think and we lose the education bit when we concentrate on training them what to think. As Roger Lewin counselled in *Lord of the Flies,* 'Probably the most important skill that children learn is how to learn. Too often we give

children answers rather than problems to solve' and as Richard Leakey said, education needs to be holistic because in his words, 'Humans become human through intense learning not just of survival skills but of customs and social mores, kinship, social values-that is culture' (Leakey Quotes). Our modern education unpacks the youth of all traditional knowledge and social norms and equips them with modern survival techniques, most of them devoid of local content in terms of social norms and culture and this prepares them not only for frustration and shock but also prolonged transition to work

As Pai Obanya (1992) has argued, education has existed in African society for a long time but schooling is a recent invention and has been very much influenced by Islam, Christianity, other religions and politics such that it has become more focused on schooling than on educating learners, a view also shared by Mazrui (1978). Obanya further argues that education is not synonymous with schooling because people can go through the school system and acquire knowledge that leaves them knowledgeable but not adequately skilled. What makes education in modern times likely to disempower youth and make their transition difficult is that it concentrates more on the development of the institutions of education and less on the development of the individual learners and their communities. The individual is developed within the goals of the education institutions and not those of the individuals or their societies. It is the exclusive focus on these institutions and their regulatory bodies that makes the education systems value more the number of students that graduate with distinction, the number of professors or best teachers they employ and the number of publications they produce per year no matter how related these factors are to their surrounding communities. It is not surprising that some of tertiary education institutions regularly rated among the best in Africa are in the poorest areas or are surrounded by slums or environmentally degraded areas. Worse still it is not surprising to find schools of engineering and urban planning on campuses with dysfunctional infrastructure in terms of roads and simple machinery. These institutions produce graduates who are either 'too educated' to secure jobs or play meaningful roles in the economy and their immediate surrounding communities or 'under-educated' in the sense that they leave school with knowledge but with few practical skills that are relevant to their development and that of their communities and society.

Over-education manifests itself when people with secondary and even lower levels of education are found to be more employable than those with

higher qualifications. Herrera and Merceron (2013) estimate that over-education accounts for about a fifth of the labour force in parts of Africa, accounting for a significant proportion of job mismatch on the continent. In the discourses on mismatch between education and skills the assumption is always that the unemployable graduates have the skills that do not match the needs of the available jobs. But mismatch is multi-dimensional. The first dimension is about the educational level of potential recruits and the level required in the performance of existing jobs. It is in this aspect that those with lover levels of education or skills may be more in demand especially where those with higher levels of education find such jobs to be below their level or status. The second dimension is what Caroleo and Pastore (2015) have characterized as 'horizontal mismatch'. According to them horizontal mismatch occurs when the level of schooling is appropriate, but the type of schooling is not. This is caused by rapid changes in the nature of work and the attendant technology. People may be trained in the skills that were relevant at the time of their training but were overtaken by technological changes by the time they were searching for jobs. The technology may also have changed while they were still in training and their institutions did not upgrade their training to match the changes. This can be aggravated by lack of linkages between training or educational institutions one hand, and productive sectors on the other. This mismatch is therefore a symptom of under-education.

The third dimension is the 'vertical mismatch' which is caused by over education which results from the gap between the years needed for training for the job and excess years spent on training which leads to what Caroleo and Pastore (above) refer to as 'excess education' or 'over-skilling'. Over-education or excessive schooling, if we go back to the distinction between schooling and education, is perpetuated by the rigidity in the curriculum of the school systems based on fixed student learning hours computed into rigid semester systems culminating into minimum years of training. In some universities for example at masters' degree level, even if a student finishes coursework and his or her dissertation below the minimum period, they cannot graduate until that period expires. Over-education or excessive schooling imposes a penalty on individuals who spend more time in school, building more expectations of better wages and welfare benefits only to find that they are considered to be too qualified or too expensive by potential employers. The excessive schooling penalty affects not only the individuals involved but the governments that in some cases are the sole sponsors, the parents who pay for the education and the communities that

lose the opportunity to utilize the knowledge the learners acquire through all the years of schooling.

The negative effects of the failure of the school system to support the development of individuals and their communities can be far reaching. It led students to reject the school system during the apartheid system in South Africa. They organized demonstration agitating against schooling chanting, 'we don't want no education' (Omari and Mihyo 1993). Some scholars have even attributed some of the recent social disorders and increased acts of violence to the failure of education to transform livelihoods of young people. The de-schooling movements such as Boko Haram in Nigeria have emerged and gained momentum in marginalized communities which have not seen any benefits arising from the school system (Obanya 2011). The failure of education to transform the livelihoods of young people and their communities has enabled the Taliban and al Qaeda to establish links and organize sustained terror campaigns in Cameroon, Chad, DRC, Kenya, Mauritania, Nigeria, Somalia and Sudan, propagating anti-western and anti-western education ideology among other things (Davis 2007). Therefore, prolonged transition or complete failure of graduates to get jobs is affecting not only the individuals concerned but it is also shaping the perceptions of communities about the usefulness of education and providing grounds for the de-education movement in the African region.

3.4. GRADUATE CHARACTERISTICS AND CULTURAL PERSPECTIVES OF TRANSITION

While labour market characteristics, as will be seen in the next chapter, impact on the duration of job search, the behaviour and perceptions of the youth about labour markets tend to have influence on the duration of their transition (Chari *et al.*, 2017; Dvouletý *et al.*, 2018; Haji, 2015). Graduates who leave school with the hope of immediately getting employed tend to be quickly disappointed when their expectations are not immediately met. The longer they stay unemployed the more frustrated they become. If the communities they live in also expect them to get employed very quickly in certain types of jobs, this may create the temptation to stop looking for jobs in their localities and to migrate to other areas or even to outside their countries. The longer they take the more discouraged they become. Discouraged youth may develop the urge to stop job search altogether thereby becoming inactive (Dvouletý *et al.*, 2018; Loprest *et al.*, 2019).

Another category of job seekers comprise of those who are fastidious and keep on searching until they find what they consider the right job. Several factors encourage this behaviour. One of them is that, for the majority of cases, such people have a fall-back position either supported by working friends or relatives for their basic needs. The other factor could be that they find the wages compared to the costs they will have to incur going to work not worth their efforts. If the costs are very high relative to the wages being offered, they may choose to hang on till they find jobs they consider capable of meeting their welfare and work-related costs.

Culture also plays a role in shaping propensity to seek work in the locality or away from the community (Filmer and Fox, 2014; Fox *et al.*, 2016). In some communities until recently, when children completed the rites of passage through informal education, they were encouraged to migrate out of their communities to seek wealth or jobs. If they were initially trained to become warriors, they could be expected to raid other communities and bring resources such as livestock to their communities. Some pastoralist communities like the Karamajong and Iteso of Uganda, the Pokot in Kenya and the Maasai in Kenya and Tanzania still encourage cattle rustling as a way of life. For the Maasai and the Karamajong, the belief has always been that all the cattle in the world belong to their communities and as a result it is the duty of their youth to raid other communities and retrieve them (Odong, 2015).

The culture in such communities, therefore, pushed the youth to leave their communities in search of the lost wealth and when they came back with their bounty, they got recognition accompanied by titles. It was only after the commercialization of livestock markets that cattle rustling became more commercialized and politicized (Gener, 2013; Luchetu and Muia, 2015; Meshack, 2018). On the other extreme is the culture of youth migration among some coastal communities in East Africa. The significance of this phenomenon is that the indigenous systems of education in such communities prepared people to get out of their communities to search for resources. Those who remained behind were considered inactive and of less use to their communities. They would not get titles and in some communities, they would be considered 'young' till they achieved something from such ventures.

Similarly, in communities along the East Coast of Africa from Somalia

to Mozambique, rituals of passage including training were followed by periods of youth migration. Among the coastal communities in Kenya and Tanzania after reaching puberty male youth were expected to migrate in search of wealth. Initially the main activities were fishing and petty trade, but after the introduction of commercial farming some would migrate to commercial plantations or mines in search of work. They would then return home periodically to acquire land and establish families which gave them rights and entitlements to positions of leadership or simply new status. Females were expected to remain in the community to prepare for marriage and responsibilities of motherhood. Some of the males who left in search of work ended up on ships and would disappear for a long time and then appear with some newly acquired resources that enabled them to acquire property and titles in their communities before going again. Those who worked on ships were known as sailors, and to be a sailor in Tanga in Tanzania and Mombasa in Kenya was considered prestigious. Hence the word *'msela'*, which is still used today among coastal people to refer to those who worked on ships and even those who look smart are considered as *'wasela'* which very few now link with being a sailor.

These two cultural practices among pastoralists and coastal communities have a big impact on the perceptions of work by young people and their communities. For young people if one is educated whether through the non-formal or formal system, to be relevant they must work outside their communities and bring resources back to those communities in form of livestock for pastoralists or remittances for labour migrants. In many communities of Africa today, after secondary school education, parents and communities expect people to migrate to urban areas, get jobs and send remittances (Filmer and Fox, 2014). Both among the youth and some people in the communities, failing to get out of the communities after graduation is a sign of failure. These cultural beliefs when combined with the way education prepares the youth for gradual removal from their communities encourage graduates to shun rural life and even those trained in agriculture end up migrating to urban areas in search of agricultural jobs where there is no agriculture. As a result, in very few African communities are children trained to take part in family businesses even those who belong to parents engaged in big businesses. Similarly, very few of the youth try to engage in self-employment in their own localities and those who do, they do so as a last resort.

3.5. OTHER FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE TRANSITION

Many other factors affect transition beyond culture and personal characteristics of job seekers. Age is one of them. The study by Matsumito and Elder (2010) mentioned earlier, found, among other things, that a transited youth is more likely to be between 25 and 29 years of age. In this group the majority of those who had completed the transition were urban based males. In the age group 20 to 24 the averages were close between males and females and between urban and rural youth. Those who had not started the transition either because they were still in school or out of school but inactive, were predominantly between 15 and 19 years of age and the majority were urban based. For the latter group it is important to note that in rural areas young people start working at an early age while in urban areas both the regulatory framework and capability of families to support inactive youth contribute to delay in their search for work.

Lamb and Mackenzie (2001) studied racially disadvantaged youth in Australia and their findings may also be applicable to youth in developing countries. The first important part of their findings was that social background matters and youths from higher or privileged backgrounds easily get full time jobs faster than their counterparts from less privileged backgrounds even when their qualifications are the same or lower. Second, they found that in Australian rural areas female and male youths who finish secondary schools easily seek training through apprenticeship and this helps them to get jobs faster than secondary school leavers in urban areas. Thirdly, apprenticeship generally helps youths to transit faster. It can be assumed by way of anecdote that those who complete secondary school without any hope or plans of going further in education find it easy to accept apprenticeship training or even employment commensurate with their skills getting advantage over those who go for higher education and develop higher perceptions of jobs suitable to their levels of education. The fourth finding was that those who leave government schools in Australia were more likely to be absorbed in the public service on a full-time basis soon after graduation while those who went through private schools especially those which were faith based took longer. However, the explanation was that those who leave private schools normally have a higher chance of opting for higher education thereby prolonging their transition. Their fifth finding was that in some situations, networks based on ethnicity tend to help those from dominant ethnic groups to transit faster than those from less influential and less networked communities.

In a study on labour-market transitions in the United Kingdom, Dorsett and Lucchino (2015) observe that prolonged unemployment carries the risk of longer transition and possibilities of never finding a job for an entire lifetime. They also assert that previous work experience affects transition. This means teaching and training which is accompanied by successful apprenticeship or internship that equips the learners with some work experience is crucial for graduates as it may shorten their transition. It may also be one of the reasons why graduates with teachers' education qualifications easily get jobs because most of them undergo practical training while going through their education process. In addition to all these, labour market characteristics matter. In the next chapter we examine the labour market factors and how they may impact on youth transition in Tanzania.

3.6 PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER: A FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSING SCHOOL TO WORK TRANSITIONS

The factors that combine to accelerate or delay the transition of youth or any group from training to work can be captured in four important words: work, information, education, skills and education (WISE). These four factors are so interlinked that when the goals of each is optimally achieved, they provide the best basis for sustainable and buoyant employment-supportive labour markets. Each of these four factors is loaded with components that need to be explained more in detail and which at the end have to be weaved together to form the basis of analysis and planning for reforms that may enhance employability for the youth, especially as they transit from school to work.

Work in this framework covers investments, enterprises and the types of jobs they create; systems of production and whether they involve static or dynamic technical and technological processes that create demand for high level and intermediate skills and whether such enterprises contribute to employment through technology and innovation. Between 2017 and 2020 the President of Tanzania held a number of meetings with local and international investors, and one of the challenges raised by the government was that most of the enterprises privatized in the 1990s were not used for the purpose for which they were acquired but instead they were allowed to degenerate and land on which they are located was used as collateral for loans for other purposes.

If investors fail to invest in areas for which they are licensed, or if they do not invest in dynamic transformative employment generating activities, no matter how skilled the trainees of TVET are, they cannot be adequately employed. Another element which comes from the contribution of enterprises to employment creation and easy transition is openness in the processes of recruitment, allocation of rewards and advancement for employees. It was noted in the previous sections that some graduates spend more time looking for jobs that offer emoluments that can meet their subsistence and growth needs. Increased transparency in recruitment and human resource management can also reduce non-market barriers to transition from school to the world of work.

Information as an input into the labour market participation processes has several components. The first one is information about and access to TVET training and courses. Enrolment trends do not touch upon disparities in the access to information about TVET between rural and urban areas and within those areas between advantaged and disadvantaged groups. Therefore, there are some potential trainees who fail to get access to training or drop out of training due to lack of prior information about the nature of the courses and ultimate requirements for completion of such courses. The second factor is lack of information about course content. In the student characteristics it was clear that the majority opt for courses without knowing their content and their potential for their future career development. Third is the information gap which was noted among staff who did not know much about what goes on in the world of production and services and those who indicated some confusion about what competence-based training really entails. Finally, it is the issue of information asymmetries about job opportunities which was clear from the interviews with graduates indicating that labour market information systems were not adequately equipped or updated enough to reflect the actual number of jobs available is each sector relevant to the courses taught by TVET institutions.

Skills provided by VETA were more geared towards generic and technical training but almost no attention was paid to soft skills. Even with emphasis on core competence –based training, evidence gathered from trainers and employers' points to emphasis on skills considered to be relevant to existing jobs and not much about jobs of the future. As a result, not

much of the training relied on information technology. In addition, most employers interviewed were of the opinion that there were gaps related to English, leadership capacity, written and expressed communication, work attitudes and emotional intelligence. This framework of analysis calls for more emphasis on the following:

- Job-related technical skills as opposed to generic traditional static skills.
- Practical knowledge which can be developed over the whole period of training through a periodic and systematic well-funded apprenticeship and internship programme.
- Through hands-on theoretical knowledge on processes related to existing and future production and service processes and programmes including thorough knowledge of national and international product standards.
- Good writing and verbal communication skills in Kiswahili, English, and preferably other languages of individual choice
- Behavioural skills such as listening, reliability, honesty, tolerance, team spirit, perseverance, eagerness to learn, initiative, creativity, and innovativeness.
- Experience which has to be cultivated during training through attachments, apprenticeships and internships.

Education and schooling were distinguished in the theoretical framework on the basis that education leads to personal and community development while schooling may involve acquisition of knowledge without necessarily educating the individual. In this approach education needs to be supported to meet its promise of developing the individual learners and their communities. To do that training and regulatory institutions have to be fully aware of and responsive to the needs and demands of the sectors for which they are preparing the learners and they should be able to predict the shifts in demand for skills and prepare the learners to fit into the changes in the labour market. Client orientation has therefore to be apparent not only in the public service charters of the training and regulatory bodies but also in the curriculum and the skills imparted should prepare the learners for the present and future jobs. This will help to address the quality gap that was identified by employers and some of the graduates during the interviews.

Education needs also to address the quantity gap. Employers have indicated that most graduates are not properly trained for industry especially manufacturing and in 2019 during a meeting with investors, the Tanzania President expressed a worry that Tanzanian firms were unable to produce even the simplest pain killers, syringes and other simple medical suppliers. He noted that Tanzania has been awarded a tender by the Millennium Challenge Fund for medical supplies to all SADC countries but expressed concerns that most of the medicines and simple medical gadgets were likely to be imported. Although this was a comment on the pharmaceutical industry, it is indicative of a quantity gap in the number of graduates with skills to support the manufacturing sector in in general.

To sum up we propose a WISE focused framework for analysing and tackling the problem of transition of the youth from school to work which takes into account those four factors. The enterprises system has to be based on productive enterprises that are dynamic and create opportunities for the absorption of technical and technological skills that are being produced by TVET institutions. This will provide basis for work and employment not only for primary school leavers as was seen in the previous chapter but for highly skilled graduates. Second, information systems have to be transparent enough to tap all the possible talents in the country starting from potential trainees in the rural and urban areas to potential young people who are employable. Third, skill formation must go beyond generic and technical capabilities to a combination of skills that promote innovation, creativity, and leadership together with language and what we termed as soft skills. Use of informational technology should be the norm in all courses. Education should be a crosscutting issue and should aim at developing the individual and prepare learners to be productive, innovative, and independent thinkers and workers. It should be emancipatory. The framework is depicted in the figure below.

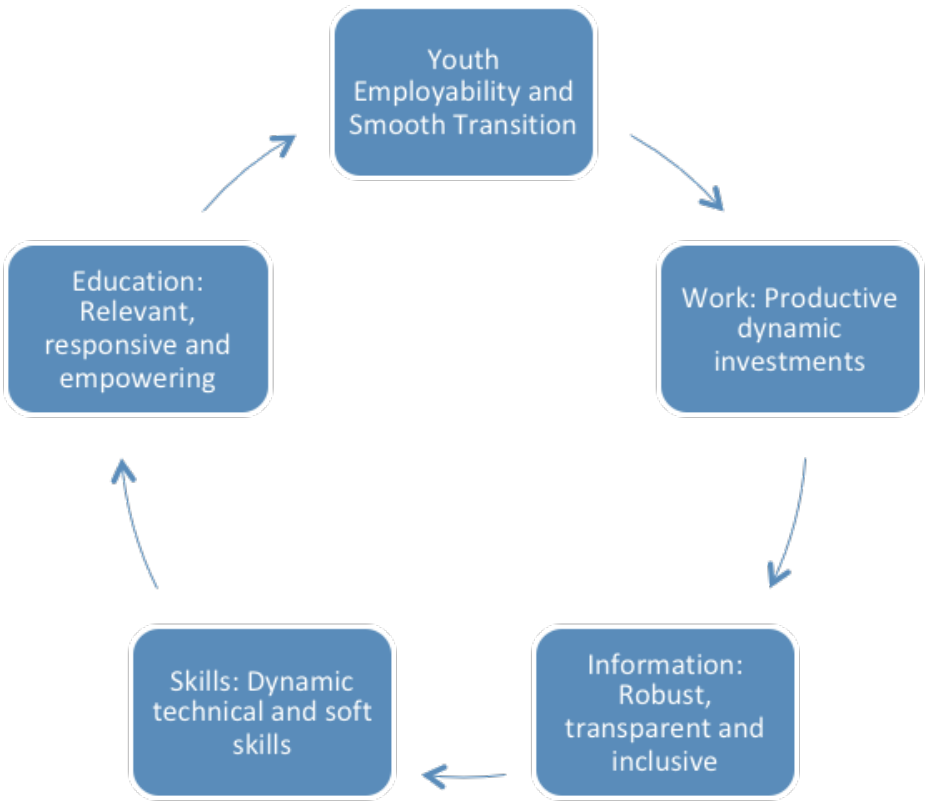

Figure 1: A framework for analysing school to work transitions
Source: Field work data

CHAPTER 4

LABOUR MARKET CHARACTERISTICS AND YOUTH IN TANZANIA

Paschal B. Mihyo, Lucas Katera & Thadeus Mboghoina

4.1. OVERALL EMPLOYMENT SITUATION 2014 TO 2018

Further to the information provided on Tables 1 and 2 in chapter 1, recent estimates indicate that the overall unemployment rate decreased from 10.3 % in 2014 to 9.7 % in 2018 (NBS, 2019) as the number of persons in employment increased from 20 million in 2014 to 22 million in 2018. Agriculture continued to absorb over 60 % of the labour force while at the same time employment in the industrial sector went up from 6.5 % of the total employment in 2014 to 7.3 % in 2018. Overall, the private sector (including smallholder agriculture) remains the main employment sector, having increased its share of the labour force to 95.7 % in 2018 from 96.5 % of in 201. An overwhelming majority of industries in Tanzania are owned and by the private sector. The private sector remains, therefore, the primary source of employment opportunities in Tanzania.

Further examination of figures on employment indicates that the private sector in Dar Es Salaam absorbed 26.3 % of the total employees in 2015 and 40.4 % in 2016 while employment in the public sector also increased from 4.3 % to 12.4 % in Dar Es Salaam in 2015 and 2016 respectively. Overall figures indicate that Dar Es Salaam absorbed 31.2 % of the total employment in the public and private sectors in 2016 followed by Morogoro Region (10.9 %), Arusha (6.8%), Kilimanjaro (6.8%), Mwanza (5.9%), Tanga (5.2%) and Mbeya (4.9%) only to mention the big contributing regions to employment. Statistics also show that most of jobs in these leading regions are regular rather and not casual.

Table 6: Regular and Casual Employment in Selected Regions of Tanzania Mainland 2016

REGION	FORMAL			CASUAL			% TOTAL Formal & Casual
	% Male	% Female	% Total: Formal	% Male	% Female	% TOTAL Casual	
Dar Es Salaam	20.4	11.1	31.5	19.8	7.8	27.6	31.2
Morogoro	7.6	3.4	11.0	6.3	3.2	9.5	10.9
Arusha	3.8	2.9	6.7	3.4	4.1	7.5	6.8
Kilimanjaro	2.9	2.3	5.2	2.6	2.4	5.0	5.2
Mwanza	3.4	2.1	5.5	9.0	2.6	11.6	5.9
Tanga	2.3	1.8	4.2	5.9	5.0	10.9	4.6
Mbeya	2.8	2.1	5.0	3.3	1.1	4.4	4.0

Source: *National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), 2018, Formal Sector Employment and Earnings Survey, 2016, Tanzania Mainland, NBS, Ministry of Finance, May 2018*

However, as can be seen from Table 5 above, the gap between males and females in regular employment is big in these high employment regions especially in Dar Es Salaam where it stood at 9.3 % in favour of men and Morogoro at 4.1 %. In causal employment the gender gap in favour of men was also high at 12 % in Dar Es Salaam, Mwanza (6.5%) and Morogoro (3.1%). It was only in three regions i.e. Ruvuma (5.3%), Arusha (0.8%) and Geita (0.1%), where the %age of women in casual employment was higher than that of men.

4.2. YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

At the end of 2016 a total of 2,599,311 persons were employed by the formal public and private sectors in Tanzania (NBS, 2018), with 92.9 % of these in regular employment and 7.1 % as casual labourers. Youth

constitute some 36.8 % of formal regular employees (NBS, 2018), with male youth accounting for higher shares of employment at 59.3 % than female.. Overall, some 21.7 and 15.1 % of all formal regular employees in Tanzania are young males and females respectively. Youth account for more than a quarter (28.6 %) of formal casual employees in Tanzania , with male youth twice as likely as their female colleagues to be find formal casual employment (NBS, 2018). Most of the youth were employed in the big urban areas with Dar Es Salaam leading, with 41.9 % of those in the private sector aged between 15 and 35 years and 10.5 % of them employed by the public sector in that region. In Mwanza region the %age of people in employment aged above 36 years was 4.8 and those between 15 and 35 was 8.6 % meaning more youth than adults. In Arusha the %age of those aged above 36 employed in the private sector was 9.6 while those between15 and 35 was only 6.0 %. However, Dodoma, Kilimanjaro, Morogoro and Tanga regions were leading in the %age of youth employment in both sectors as can be seen from Table 6.

Table 7: Percentage of Employment by Region, Sector and Age in Tanzania Mainland 2016

REGION	PRIVATE SECTOR		PUBLIC SECTOR	
	Over 36	Between 15 & 35	Over 36	Between 15 & 35
Dodoma	1.1	2.2	4.7	5.6
Arusha	9.6	6.0	4.3	2.1
Kilimanjaro	5.1	5.3	6.4	3.8
Tanga	5.6	2.6	5.3	3.8
Morogoro	15.2	4.8	8.6	9.3
Pwani	1.3	1.6	3.3	3.5
Dar Es Salaam	39.6	41.9	13.9	10.5
Lindi	o.4	0.6	3.3	2.2
Mtwara	0.8	1.0	2.1	2.6
Ruvuma	1.6	2.4	3.3	2.2
Iringa	2.0	2.7	3.3	4.2
Mbeya	3.5	5.0	6.6	7.3
Singida	1.1	1.2	3.5	2.4
Tabora	0.7	1.0	2.2	5.1
Rukwa	0.4	0.7	1.9	2.8

Kigoma	0.8	1.3	3.7	2.8
Shinyanga	1.5	1.7	3.4	4.7
Kagera	1.2	1.6	3.2	4.0
Mwanza	4.8	8.6	5.0	6.2
Mara	0.8	1.6	3.6	4.4
Manyara	1.0	2.4	2.7	2.1
Njombe	0.5	0.8	1.6	2.0
Katavi	0.1	0.1	0.8	1.3
Simiyu	0.2	0.3	2.0	3.2
Geita	1.1	2.3	1.3	1.4
Total %	100	100	100	100
TOTAL EMPLOYEES	**1,183,002**	**565,694**	**475,004**	**375,571**

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2018, Formal Sector Employment and Earnings Survey, 2016, Tanzania Mainland, NBS, Ministry of Finance, May 2018

Consistent with the changing employment landscape, some 60.1 % of youth found formal work in the private sector compared to 39.9 % in the public sector. It can be seen from Table 6 that in the private sector youth comprise 45.64% of total employment while in the public sector their share is 44.15%. This implies that in both sectors, the number of youths is slightly lower than that of adults. This could be because in both sectors technology is still not very advanced and therefore youth with advanced technical and technological skills are not yet in very high demand. Table 6 also indicates that youth employment is higher in urban areas especially in Dar Es Salaam, Arusha and Mwanza (8.6%). For the rest of the regions, both adult and youth employment rates are still low. It is possible that if the economy was becoming more knowledge driven, the percentage of employees between the age of 15 and 35 would have been higher because young people are more proficient in technology and information management. If that is the case the predominance of adults among employees in both the public and private sectors may be a pointer to the fact that the economy is not yet knowledge driven and possibly the wages paid in both sectors are not very attractive to many young people. It may also be due to labour market rigidities regarding termination and replacement of staff in both sectors and the lengthy bureaucratic and budget expenditure constraints on recruitment of new staff. To understand

the trends better, it is important to look at the recruitment trends.

4.3. RECRUITMENT IN THE PERIOD 2015-2016

Recruitment figures during the period 2015-2016 indicate that the private sector recruited 51,251 new employees and the public sector absorbed 18,388 new employees. The total number was 69.939.

Table 8: Number of Newly Recruited Employees by Sex and Level of Education in Tanzania Mainland 2015-2016

Level Of Education	Male		Female		Total Numbers
	Number	%	Number	%	
Tertiary -University	8,279	23.7	4,559	13.2	12,383
Tertiary-Non-University	3,209	9.2	3,216	9.3	6,425
Teachers Education College	6,443	18.4	4,442	12.8	10, 885
Vocational Education	5,802	16.6	6,703	19.3	12,505
Secondary Education-A Level	7,56	2.2	558	1.6	1,314
Secondary Education-O Level	4,815	13.8	3,877	11.0	8,622
Primary Education	5,671	16.2	11,397	32.8	17,051
TOTAL	**34,975**	**100**	**34,064**	**100**	**69,639**

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2018, Formal Sector Employment and Earnings Survey, 2016, Tanzania Mainland, NBS, Ministry of Finance, May 2018

As shown in Table 7, out of the total 69,639 new recruits, 34,975 (50.22%) were males and 34,664 (49.78%) were females. The majority of these were absorbed in the service and retail sub-sectors (1,515). The data also show that more males with tertiary education accessed employment opportunities (23.7%) compared with females (13.2%). Similarly, among graduates with teachers' college education qualifications more males were recruited (18.4%) compared to females (12.8%). In the case of jobs offered to primary school leavers, more females were recruited (32.8%) compared to males (16.2%). Therefore, for the period 2015/2016 recruitment in

the skilled job categories favoured more men than women while in the less skilled jobs more women were absorbed than men. It was only in the category of jobs offered to graduates with vocational education and training qualifications that during this period more females were taken (19.3%) compared to males (16.5%). As can be seen from table 7, the gender gap was narrow for secondary school and tertiary non-university graduates.

A further scrutiny of the recruitment figures indicates that although in the total number of employees the gender gap is very small, out of the 10,997 persons recruited in the professional jobs, 7,055 or 64.13 % were male and females were only 3,942 or 35.85 %. The gender gaps were also big in the crafts jobs where out of a total of 1,969 jobs only 248 women were recruited (12.6%) compared to 1,721 men (87.4%). The differences were negligible in the legislator, administrator and managers' jobs as can be seen from Table 7. In Table 8 we show the link between jobs and levels of education.

Table 9: Number of Newly Recruited Employees by Level of Education and Occupation 2015-2016 Tanzania Mainland

Occupation	Tertiary University Education	Tertiary Non-University Education	Teachers' Education College	Vocational Education	Secondary Education A-Level	Secondary Education O-Level	Primary education	Total
Legislators and Administrators	1377	397	178	202	89	452	142	2837
Professionals	9738	985	274	-	-	-	-	10,997
Technical and Associate Professionals	1032	3627	6625	3592	-	-	-	14,876
Clerks	485	869	560	946	219	1206	653	4938
Agriculture and fisheries	4	4	86	9	71	320	387	881
Service and retail sales	146	497	1296	3766	357	4316	5137	15,515
Crafts and Related Workers	18	-	91	592	19	578	671	1,969
Plant and machine Operators	28	35	255	1339	440	938	844	3879
Elementary Occupations	10	11	1520	2059	119	812	9216	13,747
TOTAL	**12,838**	**6,425**	**10,885**	**12,505**	**1,314**	**8,622**	**17,050**	**69,639**

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2018, Formal Sector Employment and Earnings Survey, 2016, Tanzania Mainland, NBS, Ministry of Finance, May 2018

Figures on Table 8 provide useful information on the link between skills and jobs during the period 2015/2016. The biggest number of jobs went to primary school leavers (24.5%) followed by vocational education qualifications (17.95%), teachers' education college qualification holders (15.63%) and lower secondary school education graduates (12.38 %). Therefore, lower secondary school graduates and primary school leavers together constituted 36.88 % of the new recruits in 2015/2016. The majority were absorbed in low skills jobs as retail workers and elementary occupations. Vocational and teachers' education college graduates together constituted 33.58 % of the new recruits and this group put together with that of lower secondary and primary school leavers constituted 70.46 % of the new recruits. The implications of this, at least for the period in question are that most of the jobs that absorbed primary and lower secondary school leavers required low skills while in the technical category vocational and teachers' education provided intermediate skills that provide more people with opportunities for employment.

One could easily conclude that primary and secondary school leavers have a higher chance of getting employed faster in low skill jobs while those with tertiary education qualifications have longer periods of transition. A second observation would be that the graduates with vocational education and teacher education qualifications have higher chances of getting employed than those with tertiary non-university education qualifications. However, it is clear from Table 8 that graduates of tertiary university institutions who are likely to be fewer in numbers than secondary and primary school leavers had a better chance of getting employed in 2015/2016.

One stark anomaly relates to the relatively big number of people with teachers' education college qualifications who were recruited in the service and retail activities instead of being absorbed into teaching given the chronic shortage of teachers. The statistics on the qualified teacher to pupil ratio for 2016 show ratios as high as 468 in Bukombe Namoge in Geita Region, 369 in Mbulu Sambo in Manyara Region and over 120 in some schools in Katavi, Kigoma (Kibondo and Kasulu), Kilwa and Kilwa Kivinje in Lindi, Biharamulo and Muleba Kimwani in Kagera, and several other regions (Ministry of Education 2016). There are many factors that influence choice of jobs including the geographical location of workplaces. This could be one of the factors behind the shortage of teachers in some schools and teacher graduates opting for jobs in the service and retail sales sub-sector. Another issue relates to the very low number of people who

were recruited in the agriculture and fisheries sector. From Table 8 only 881 were recruited in the agriculture and fisheries sector. This indicates that outside the peasant farming and household-based fishing sub-sector, investments in this sector were limited.

4.4. WAGES ON THE TANZANIA LABOUR MARKET

The characteristics of monthly wage earnings of citizen employees in Tanzania have a high possibility of shaping perceptions of job seekers leading to short or longer periods of transition. The highest income bracket for citizen employees is between TSH 500,000 and 900,000 or between US$ 240 and 440 per month. Most of those in this bracket (22.9%) are in the public sector while only 15.3 % are in the private sector. Employees earning between TSH 150,001 or US$ 73 and TSH 300,000 or US$ 148 a month in the private sector constitute 17.8 % while those earning between 100,000 or US$ 45 and TSH 150,000 or US$ 70 per month constitute 14.6 % of employees in the private sector. Those earning between TSH 300,001 and 500, 000 constitute 8.1 %. However, while the private sector was paying the majority of its employees between 150,000 and 300,000 it still had a small group of employees (2.7%) earning above TSH 1,500,000. In the public sector, the group in that bracket was smaller (1.8%). On the average, the public sector was employing less people than the private sector but paying wages averagely higher than those in the private sector as most employees were earning between TSH 300, 000 and 500,000. The majority of employees in the private sector were earning below TSH 300,000.

Youth in both sectors were the most disadvantaged because 83.1 % of those employed in the private sector earn between TSH 100,000 and 500,000 a month, 10.2 % earn between TSH 500,001 and 900, 000, only 2.7 % earn between TSH 900,000 and 1,200,000 and only 3.9 % of them earn more than TSH 1,200,000 a month. Similarly, in the public sector 0.7 % of the youth earn between TSH 100,000 and 150,000, while 36.2 % earn between TSH 150, 000 and 500,000. However, compared to those in the private sector, 48.2 % earn between TSH 500,000 and 900,000 and 12.4 % between TSH 900,000 and 1,500,000, and 2.4 % of them earn above TSH 1,500,000. For more details, see Table 9.

Table 10: Monthly Earnings of Regular Citizen Employees in Tanzania Mainland by Sector and Age Groups in 2016

MONTHLY WAGES	ADULTS 36 YEARS AND ABOVE			YOUTH 15-35 YEARS		
	Private	Public	Both Sectors	Private	Public	Both Sectors
Up to 100,000	8.5	0.4	5.9	14.4	0.2	8.4
100,000 -150,000	22.4	0.7	15.6	22.8	0.5	13.3
150,000 -300,000	26.5	3.2	19.2	29.6	3.3	18.4
500,001 – 900,000	12.5	39.6	21.0	10.2	48.2	26.3
900,001-1,200,000	5.4	22.7	10.8	2.7	9.6	5.6
1,200.001-1,500,000	5.4	11.1	5.8	1.5	3.3	2.3
Over 1,500,000	5.0	7.6	5.8	2.4	1.9	2.2
TOTAL PERCENTAGE	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
TOTAL REGULAR EMPLOYEES	**1,035,993**	**471,225**	**1,507,218**	**508,071**	**373,071**	**881,676**

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2018, Formal Sector Employment and Earnings Survey, 2016, Tanzania Mainland, NBS, Ministry of Finance, May 2018

In order to understand the wage aspects of the labour market it is important to break down each of these sectors and see which sub-sectors pay relatively lower or higher wages. To avoid generalizations the private sector includes profit and not for profit institutions, cooperatives, civil society, and voluntary organizations. The public sector includes central and local government bodies and sate owned organizations known as parastatals.

Table 11: Monthly Average Cash Earnings by Sub-Sector in Tanzania Mainland 2015 and 2016

	2015			2016		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
			PRIVATE			
Profit Making	347,724	335,481	328,162	365,468	343,262	339,229

	2015			2016		
	Male	**Female**	**Both sexes**	**Male**	**Female**	**Both sexes**
Non-Profit Making	462,021	467,699	440,801	504,488	452,939	460,717
Cooperatives	460,812	463,641	445,887	411, 436	438,309	404,266
OVERALL AVERAGE	**373,704**	**366,590**	**353,589**	**391,886**	**368,090**	**362,400**
			PUBLIC			
Central & Local Government	1,016,175	874,795	982,536	1,232,465	1,019,967	1,198,740
Parastatal Organizations	1,797,836	1,639,435	1,752,486	1,472,138	1,387,237	1,452,326
OVERALL AVERAGE	**1,097,990**	**957,816**	**1,063,064**	**1,279,127**	**1,083,130**	**1,243,945**

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2018, Formal Sector Employment and Earnings Survey, 2016, Tanzania Mainland, NBS, Ministry of Finance, May 2018

From data in Table 10, the average monthly earnings' figures point to several important factors that may influence youth transition to work. One of these is the low level of wages in the private and public sectors. When wages are already low, job search is likely to be influenced more by search for jobs with relatively better income and these are in the public sector though job opportunities in this sector are not growing very fast. The second factor is about the gender gap in monthly earnings in both sectors. This may imply that women may take longer in the search for jobs with attractive monthly wages. The third factor is that young people who cannot find jobs in the central and local government agencies may be attracted to work in cooperatives and civil society organizations. However, the monthly wages in these organizations are much lower than in the local and central government and therefore can only be considered as last resort by most young job seekers.

It is important to note however, that although the figures show the private sector as a low wage sector, employers in the private sector had a higher wage bill than those in the public sector at TSH 12,983 billion in 2016 compared to the wage bill of TSH 10,654 billion in the public sector excluding the armed forces. The National Bureau of Statistics has attributed this to the private sector having employed more people than the central

and local government on the one hand and parastatals on the other (NBS 2018). Statistics also show that apart from the wages, the annual wage bill in the private sector was inflated by free rations for staff especially in the wholesale and retail businesses, hospitality, repairs, logistics, storage and social services. According to NBS (above) in these enterprises free rations took 40 to 60 % of the wage bill. In addition, the private sector pays taxes on profits in addition to personal tax by employees while in the public sector only employees pay taxes. These factors make the private sector wage bill and costs of production or services relatively higher than those of the public sector and as a result the private sector cannot afford to compete with the public sector on wages. However, if free rations are taken into consideration in computing the welfare benefits of employees, organizations providing these welfare benefits may be attractive to some of the youth who do not look at earnings only from a point of view of monthly wages.

The figures in Table 10 relate to earnings of regular employees. During job search some youth may find it necessary to engage in casual employment. Casual work usually attracts either those who cannot secure temporary or long-term employment or those searching for jobs who would like to use casual employment as a stop gap measure. Figures in Table 11 indicate that while the average earnings of people in regular employment in all sub-sectors went up from TSH 425,026 in 2015 to TSH 458,924 in 2016, earnings for casual employees declined from an average of TSH 127,245 in 2015 to TSH 121,466 in 2016.

Table 12: Average Earnings of Employees in Regular and Causal Employment in Tanzania Mainland 2015 and 2016

	2015		2016	
	Regular Employees	**Casual Employees**	**Regular Employees**	**Casual Employees**
Private Profit-Making Institutions	349,744	121,005	349,923	115,004
Private Non-Profit Institutions	460,592	129,756	471,415	130,946
Cooperatives	458,762	116,311	415,696	106,611

	2015		2016	
	Regular Employees	**Casual Employees**	**Regular Employees**	**Casual Employees**
Parastatals	1,793,738	291,516	1,454,587	126,171
OVERALL AVERAGE	**425,026**	**127,245**	**458,924**	**121,460**

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2018, Formal Sector Employment and Earnings Survey, 2016, Tanzania Mainland, NBS, Ministry of Finance, May 2018

The monthly average earnings of casual employees remained comparatively very low across all the sub-sectors including central and local government and in the state-owned enterprises. Cooperatives which are closer to rural youth had the lowest wage average for casual workers. Therefore, causal employment is not likely to attract youth looking for jobs unless their situations are desperate.

4.5. THE INFORMAL SECTOR AND ITS POTENTIAL FOR YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

The informal sector is part and parcel of the formal sector and the two sectors co-exist supporting one another. Most of the informal sector workers sell their services or products to individuals and corporate bodies in the formal sector. Both home workers and street vendors are in one way or another connected contractually or informally with small- and large-scale businesses. Minibus, taxi and motorcycle transport service providers are normally subcontracted by companies or individuals to deliver a fixed amount of their proceeds on a daily or weekly basis. In the majority of cases these operators treated as entrepreneurs are merely unprotected workers and are part of the formal sector value chains.

By working as independent contractors, they make the cost of labour cheaper and since they do not require sophisticated infrastructure, they provide cheaper services to their consumers. In urban settings wholesalers and retailers supply goods to street vendors thereby transferring to them several risks, including the duty to pay taxes and the costs of storage. It is still predominantly a sector of underpaid, unprotected and exploited labour as most operators are either subcontracted workers such as the taxi, minibus and 'boda boda' drivers or traders working on the basis of comissions selling goods on the streets which they get on a daily basis from wholesale and retail traders. This sector is very complex and involves

sole traders, street vendors or hawkers, minibus and motobike drivers and touts, mini, micro and small enterprises. Workers in the sector include children, youths, adult men and women and the elderly.

The ILO (2018) has estimated that in Tanzania the informal sector absorbs about 75 % of the labour force. In Sub-Saharan Africa, women are often heavily represented in informal employment at approximately 90 %, inclusive of those working in agriculture. Female youths are more likely than any other age group to work in the informal sector, as 94.9 % of all women engaged in the informal sector, aged between 15 and 24. The ILO report goes further and points out that on the average, 86.5 % of informal sector workers in Africa are primary school leavers, 68.1 % secondary school leavers and 27 % tertiary education graduates. In Tanzania this sector comprised of Mini, Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MMSMEs) is a significant contributor to employment opportunities for women and youth. A 2012 Baseline Survey of Non-farm Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSME Survey 2012) found that the private sector contributes some 27% of GDP. However, the sector is dominated by unregistered mini, micro and small enterprises which fall in the category of the informal sector and a big employer both for men and women (see Table 12).

Table 13: Formal and Informal Employment

	2006			2014		
Formal Employment	**Male**	**Female**	**TOTAL**	**Male**	**Female**	**TOTAL**
	792,460	316,010	1,114,018	1,051,447	496,861	1,548,308
Informal Employment	7,293,865	8,224,799	15,513,115	9,091,953	9,939,878	18,481,831
			Percentage share			
Formal Employment	9.8	3.7	6.7	10.4	5.0	7.7
Informal Employment	90.2	96.3	93.3	89.6	95.0	92.3

Source: ILFS 2006 and 2014

The MSME survey referred to above estimated that only 3.9 % of all non-farm MSMEs in Tanzania are formally registered. Despite this, the sector continues to grow regarding contribution to employment opportunities. The

2014 Integrated Labour Force Survey (National Bureau of Statistics, 2015), found that employment in the informal sector had increased by almost three-fold from 1,682,383 workers in 2006 to 4,344,580 in 2016 meaning an increase from 46.1% to 71.8%. This trend is global and the sector will keep growing as long as many workers on standard contracts are being retrenched and most enterprises increasingly relying on home workers because of stiff competition on the global markets. With globalization and labour market reforms, it will continue absorbing many former workers who have been or will be retrenched. As job searches become longer it will be a fall back position for those who have lost hope of being employed in the formal sector (Mwangi 2011, Kumari and Singh 2016).

Most of the jobs in this sector fall in the 'vulnerable category' which are characterized by long hours of work at a very low pay in hazardous health and safety conditions and without significant social protection, maternity cover nor holiday provisions. It is crowded and even over-crowded, under-capitalized and characterized by low productivity and lots of risks and uncertainty. Street vendors for example have to walk long distances in a day, stand in dangerous places including in the middle of highways in harsh weather conditions only to get very meagre earnings. Rates of fatal accidents involving motor bike transport service providers (known as *boda boda*) have reached unmanageable dimensions in the whole of East Africa such that some public hospitals have special wards for victims of *boda boda* accidents (Mukuna and Maloba 2015).

In addition, the wages or commissions accruing from the activities of this sector are enough to keep the operators just above the poverty line. As the ILO has noted, 'there is a clear positive relation between poverty and informality' (ILO 2018:48) According to National Bureau of Statistics (2015), the monthly median earning in the informal sector was Tanzanian shillings 120,000 compared to Tanzanian shillings 220,000 in the non-farm formal private sector, and Tanzanian shillings 500,000 in the public sector. Therefore, while contributing to employment the sector is not an immediate destination of school leavers looking for jobs for which they have been prepared by the school system. The vulnerable nature of the jobs in the sector, the risks it entails including bureauratic harssment by law enforment bodies, lack of protection, high enterprise mortality, low productivity and high level of unpredictability, make it a dead end and last resort sector for many young people especially those with post-secondary education qualifications.

4.6. THE UNTAPPED POTENTIAL OF THE YOUTH IN AGRICULTURE

The existing research on youth is limited. The problem of absence of literature on youth is more serious for research that focuses on the relationship between rural growth and young people (Sumberget al., 2012). As a result, rural policies that aim at improving young people conditions have based on common knowledge, anecdotes and narratives which are not backed by solid evidences. The major risk of formulating policy this way is to come up with a policy that do not yield expected economic benefit even though it can be politically popular. The problem is even greater when one deals with a complex issue like that of addressing youth problems in the rural settings.

One of the most pressing topics of discussion in the contemporary debates is on youth employment, with clear focus on the need to address high unemployment rate for this segment of the labour force (ILO, 2012a,b,c; OECD, 2012). These debates have tried to relate agriculture to solutions of the youth unemployment. Those who connect agriculture with the solution of youth unemployment tend to feel that youth are better positioned to bridge the current world food need. Despite improved nourishment estimates in recent years, one in eight people suffered chronic undernourishment in 2010–2012 and it was prevalent in Sub Saharan Africa where one in four suffered undernourishment (FAO, 2012). With this high shortage of food, the average age of the farming population is now in the range of late-50s to early 60s. A clear conclusion of this debate is that the problem of food shortage will be solved if the youth are encouraged to engage in farming; they are considered energetic enough to produce more than the current average farming age. Within this context, it can be argued that agriculture could solve both problems of under and unemployment of young people by providing them with employment and income. This will not only provide enough food through increased production but also can ensure that good farming practices are sustained because they are passed from one generation to the next. This assertion attempts to place young people as a solution to the hunger problem, which is increasingly becoming a challenge in recent years due to several factors, including climate change. This assertion can be true, subject to young people perception of whether agriculture practices can provide them with their income needs and a lifestyle of the current world.

In reality, most young people do not have an interest in agriculture and the sector is not considered as part of the future vision for many young people. The young peoples' view on agriculture is also supported very much by their parents/elders (Leavy, 2012). Agriculture is always viewed as a back-breaking work; has little or no mechanization; and uses traditional inputs. As s a result, it is further believed, it ends up with little or low returns. Hence, agriculture is not envisioned as an activity that provides a lifestyle and status that young men and women of the current era would like to be associated with. In other words, agriculture is perceived unable to deliver, through incomes and working conditions—the kinds of lifestyles that young men and women expect people to aspire for in the current world. Except for revolutionary advances attained in communications technology that is accessible to the majority, even to people living in the remote areas, living conditions in most rural areas are not attractive to the youths. Consequently, agriculture especially in developing countries is regarded as a poor peoples' activity, mainly to make them survive but not to provide higher living standards or even people's sense of pride and self-respect. These are important dimensions of wellbeing and take us beyond narrow, one-dimensional conceptions of what it means to be poor, marginalised and disadvantaged. If agriculture is perceived unable to deliver either the desired living standards or the prospects for upward mobility, then it will be very difficult for it to attract young people into or retain them in the sector (Leavy, 2012). Those who believe that agriculture can lead them to a better life, they want to see it being smarter, more productive, more reliable, and also more predictable. This suggests a need to bring about a revolution in agricultural practice, so that it is modern enough to be attractive to this group.

Within the context of agriculture and youth, education is another challenge for youth in two ways. First, it is expected that higher education should transform and modernize farming practices. However, attainment of higher education seems to be a challenge for engaging in agriculture especially in developing countries. The common practice is that once young men and women attain higher education, they seek jobs that require higher skill levels, and, as such, smallholder and traditional farming practices do not seem to fit in this category. To put it differently, the more education one gets, the more one is detached from the rural setting.

In their study on young people and farming in Ethiopia, Tadele and Gella (2012) found a negative perception on farming among the youth. They

attributed their results to the fact that life as a farmer is associated with life in a village which is considered hard, demanding and backward. According to their study, no one realizes that life in the village can still be enjoyable like town life. Young men who engage in agriculture and do well after failing in formal schools are not viewed as vivid examples to attract other young men in agriculture. Instead, those young men who do well in their examinations and end up in agriculture are accused of misusing the education they received (Tadele & Gella, 2012). From this perception, education is seen as something that should remove someone from the agriculture settings. Therefore, agriculture is still seen as a degrading occupation especially when someone is educated.

Secondly, education does not seem to yield the desired results, neither in agriculture nor in other fields. Higher unemployment levels which is a youth phenomenon, suggest that there are no linkages between work and education. Lack of linkage between education and work has thus resulted in the failure of two key routes by which people move out of poverty and as crucial mechanisms linking economic growth to poverty reduction. At the moment, we have more children going to school than it has ever been in the past. However, the learning outcomes appear to be different from the skills needed in the labour market of the current world (UNESCO, 2012; World Bank, 2012b). In other words, there appears to be a very big mismatch between the education system and the labour market demands. This is also likely to be true for agriculture sector skills, in which absence of young men in the sector might also be linked to lack of the required skills in the agriculture sector.

Literature reveals another important aspect, that young people are forced out of agriculture even when they are willing to be farmers. Here, the emphasis is on aspects of agrarian structures, economies and transitions which limit young people's access to productive resources (Tadele & Gella, 2012). Population is increasing very fast, leading to increased land pressure. Consequently, small scale farmers in Africa end up increasingly cultivating smaller plots overtime (Jaine et al. 2012). A similar problem is that of making land a commodity, which in countries like Ghana has denied youth from accessing land which initially belonged to the family (Amanor, 2010). In Sierra Leone, the 1991-2002 war was partly as a result of grievances around deeply rooted agrarian structures and relations that restricted young peoples' access to land labour and thus limited their ability to build a livelihood in rural areas (Peters & Richards, 2011). In

connection to the aforementioned discussion, it is highlighted that in Malawi, young people have expressed their feelings of marginalisation leading to powerlessness, alienation and hopelessness due to land grabs (Sumberg et al., 2012).

These emerging findings suggest a lack of existing conditions in the agriculture setting that encourage the youth to participate in the sector. Subsequently, any policy option that addresses rural economy and employment, especially in developing countries, by focusing attention on farming per se is unlikely to yield tangible results for the youth. Policymakers need to think beyond the conception of (young) people as units of labour to be placed in jobs. To engage and empower young people in agriculture, the sector needs to address their aspirations and expectations and offer potential for social mobility. Using the language of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and FAO, rural employment needs to provide 'decent work' but also as the importance to people of self-respect and status highlights, it needs also to address broader conceptions of human wellbeing. Farming needs a change of image to get over entrenched, though not unfounded, beliefs that it involves dirty, laborious work at low skill levels for minimal returns. Otherwise, the current urban unemployment which has a substantive contribution from migration from rural areas will still be a problem because young people are pushed to seek the so-called "decent jobs" in urban areas. Thus, modernising farming by creating an environment considered as being "conducive" for the youth or creating employment outside farming within rural areas that the youth may consider similar to what they seek in urban areas may partly help to address the unemployment and rural poverty problems.

Since Tanzania is not special in the preceding debate, the current trend in which youth employment in the agriculture sector is very low is likely explained by the negative perception to the sector in terms of providing decent work, but also providing enough income needed by the young men and women in the country

At a workshop on 'Empowering Novel Agribusiness-Led Employment (ENABLE) Youth Program Design' held on 21-22 April 2017 in Abuja, Nigeria, most speakers praised the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) Youth Agripreneurs Model' and agreed that the average age of the farming force in Africa was 60 years which accounts for low productivity in the sector, making it important to encourage youth to engage in agriculture (IITA 2017). Very powerful statements were made

at the workshop starting with the Minister for Agriculture in Ivory Coast who suggested that to attract the youth to agriculture, governments need to develop attractive credit schemes, favourable tax regimes and impose restrictive measures on the importation of foodstuff to promote local markets for food products. The CEO of the Tony Elumelu Foundation Ms. Abimbola Adebakin said agripreneurs do not necessarily need money but an understanding of what they need to do with that money.

Akpan (2017) has suggested that analysis of youth involvement in agriculture should go beyond labour market analysis and examine the skill structure and applicable standards on local and international food markets; the market structures and how they operate and skill enhancement for youth and adults involved in agriculture so that knowledge of agronomic practices, agriculture relevant ICT, technology relevant to mechanization and entrepreneurship development can encourage youth to see the sector as dynamic and at the same level as manufacturing or the public service. Akpan gives examples of big youth agricultural enterprise development schemes in which Nigerian states invested a lot of funds but which collapsed after very promising initial take offs. He attributed their failure declining natural resources, youth expectations about better life in urban areas, increasing costs of inputs, youth alienation from communities, oppressive religious and ethnic practices and lack of market integration.

Combining social, political and ecological factors that gravitate youth away from agriculture, Adekule, Oladipo, Adisa and Fatoye (2009) have pointed out economic factors such as inadequate credit facilities, poor returns on investment, lack of agricultural insurance, insufficient access to equipment and inputs, poor storage facilities, lack of ready markets and low prices for agricultural products. In the social factors they included poor farming knowledge, poor quality of education in rural areas, youth general dislike of village life, notions of better employment opportunities in urban areas, bigger chances of marriage in urban areas, negative public perceptions of agriculture, lack of respect for young farmers and social exclusion for women. In the ecological factors they included lack of land resources, declining soil fertility and land disputes.

Youth perceptions of agriculture as an occupation of the old, illiterate, poor rural people are real and most youth will continue to see it as a dead-end sector unless measures are taken to raise its status (Njeru and Gichimu, 2014). Analysis by Kimaro, Naiman and Moshi (2015) on determinants of youth participation in agriculture in in Kahe East, Moshi Rural District

has identified six main factors which encourage youth to engage in rural agriculture. The first factor was age. They argue that those engaged in agriculture in that area are aged between 30 and 35 years, have family responsibilities, had limited knowledge about alternative activities to farming and most of them were no longer aspiring to go for further education. The second factor was gender. They argued that most women did not own and cannot inherit land because of customary practices and were therefore associated with rural farming by marriage. The third was marital status which they argued increases the need for engagement in agriculture as a means of meeting household needs and responsibilities. The fourth was family background. Their argument was that those born in farming families tended to value farming and they found that 96.7 % of their interviewees who were involved in farming came from farming family backgrounds.

The fifth factor was the level of education. The majority of those involved in agriculture (71.1 %) were primary school leavers while secondary school, leavers involved in farming were 27.1 % and 1.1 % were vocational training graduates. The last factor they identified was knowledge on agriculture. They argued that those who entered into farming and continued in the activity had acquired farming knowledge through parents and neighbours including learning through extension officers. It is clear from this micro level study that the higher people go in education the less they become interested in agriculture. Furthermore, land ownership is a major determinant of participation in agriculture.

Another determinant is access to finance. In Tanzania as a whole, the potential for youth engagement in agriculture is very high but conditioned by access to credit. According to CGAP (2018) an international organization dealing with financial inclusion, in Tanzania 7.6 million people of 15 to 30 years of age live in smallholder households. Generally, youth in these smallholder households save more than elders. CGAP has estimated that out of the 7.6 million youth living in smallholder households in Tanzania, 1.8 million owned mobile phones in 2018 but financial service providers have not made enough efforts to reach out to them. As a result, they tend to rely on informal mechanisms to set aside money with the objective of investing in land development or businesses.

In an earlier study organized by the CGAP, Anderson and Ahmed (2016) interviewed 270 smallholder farmers in Mozambique, Pakistan, and Tanzania over two weeks of one calendar year. It was found that

smallholders in these three countries faced the same challenges as they lacked land and had serious constraints accessing finance. In Tanzania an in-depth CGAP study by Anderson, Marla and Musiime (2016) focusing on challenges smallholders face and barriers to increased youth participation in agriculture, found that lack of access to credit, insurance and payment facilities were serious impediments. They also found that financial sector deepening was not very advanced in Tanzania although mobile phones have a big potential to transform lives and of smallholders by facilitating payments, transfers, insurance, credit and savings. They argue in their report that this transformation is also constrained by other factors. These constraints include, exclusive dependence on land; lack of diversification due to single crop dependency; the gendering of crops with cash crops being a male domain and food crops a female domain; risky practices such as borrowing without crop insurance; the dominance of markets by brokers and middle persons; limited channels for new and relevant information on the weather, markets and other factors and lack of linkages with groups that can help them to secure relevant information. These factors influence the decisions of youth to even think about engaging in agriculture.

Other factors that make the sector less attractive to youth and even investors who could employ them include under-funding of agricultural research and extension and support institutions located in rural areas, limited capacity of farmers' cooperatives to play a bigger role beyond crop marketing such as supplying vital information on markets and climate change; patriarchy which disempowers women by denying them rights to own assets such as land or livestock and matriarchy which marginalizes young men in matrilineal communities. Elitist curricula at primary and secondary school levels also contribute to lack of preparation of the youth for rural life or manual work. However, in Tanzania the government has increased efforts to address the economic, social and other challenges that turn youth away from agriculture. On the 20th September 2019, the Deputy Minister in the Prime Minister's Office directed all District Councils to set aside land for youth activities in agriculture, livestock and fishing. This effort has been launched on the backdrop of a far-reaching National Strategy for Youth Involvement in Agriculture 2016-2021. This strategy has nine objectives:

- Facilitating land acquisition and accessibility by youth for agricultural investment.
- Facilitating acquisition and access of financial resources for youth to invest in agriculture.

- Facilitating the acquisition of agricultural inputs, machinery, and support services.
- Promoting the development and use of irrigation infrastructure.
- Enhancing market integration for agricultural products
- Building capacity for mitigation and adaptation to climate change
- Promoting technical and entrepreneurship skills.
- Facilitating linkages between youth and youth agricultural support initiatives; and
- Promoting decent work in the agricultural sector.

In each of these strategic objectives the strategy spells out interventions to be launched. It is beyond the scope of this study to examine extent to which the strategy has been implemented. But it is also noteworthy that the Chairperson of the UVCCM the Youth Wing of the ruling CCM Party in Tanzania while addressing the Executive Council of that organization in Arusha on the 13 February 2020 to mark the 43rd Anniversary of CCM called upon the youth to focus on and engage in agriculture arguing that they were the future and the future of the country depended to a large extent on the agricultural sector. With youth involved in policy dialogue about their engagement in the sector, there is some hope that if the national strategy is fully implemented the youth will respond positively to their leaders' call.

4.7. OTHER FACTORS IMPACTING ON YOUTH LABOUR MARKET PARTICIPATION AND TRANSITION

Securing employment or engaging in productive self-employment requires a level of literacy that can enable the employee or entrepreneur to use knowledge and be productive. Literacy among the youth is still at unacceptable levels especially in rural areas. The 2014/15 National Panel Survey Data covering 3,352 households from Tanzania Mainland and Zanzibar indicated that 24.7 % of the rural youth could not read or write. For urban areas the %age was 5.4 %.

Table 14: Proportion of Individuals Who Cannot Read and Write, by Age and sex

Cannot read or write	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
Youth (ages 15-35)	16.9	21.5	19.3
Rural youth	21.4	27.8	24.7
Cannot read or write	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**

Urban youth	3.9	6.5	5.4
Whole sample	**32.0**	**35.9**	**34.0**

Source: 2014/15 National Panel Survey Data

The principal factor for the literacy deficit was that most of them had not had any formal education. The same panel survey results indicated that an average 14.5 % of the youth in the survey sample had had no formal education. As can be seen from Table 14, rural youth are more disadvantaged, and the percentage was higher for females than males in both the rural and urban areas.

Table 15: Proportion of individuals with no formal education, by age and sex

No formal education	Male	Female	Total
Youth (ages 15-35)	12.1	16.6	14.5
Rural youth	15.2	21.9	18.6
Urban youth	3.2	3.9	3.6
Whole sample	**21.0**	**25.1**	**23.1**

Source: 2014/15 National Panel Survey Data

Literacy levels were affecting the occupations in which most youth in rural and urban areas get involved. As we will see later, low level of literacy and numeracy affect training and trainability of youth in VET centres. Even those who would like to get employed on commercial farms require a minimum level of education that can make them trainable. If not in school most those in rural areas were involved in smallholder agriculture and livestock (65 %) and very few were employed by the private sector (only 2.8 %) and yet another very small percentage was involved in non-farm enterprise activities (4.2 %). Data on Table 15 indicate that in urban areas 34.9 % of the youth were in the informal sector and unpaid family work, 14.7 % in the private sector and 11.2 % in agriculture and livestock. Primary and secondary education does not necessarily impart skills, but it should be able to build capability to learn. When such capacity is low, enrolment in VET centres is limited and even where it is robust, pass rates will be low and rates of drop out high.

Table16: Main Occupation for the Youth in the last 12 Months, by Area of Residence and Sex

Main occupation	Male	Female	Total
RURAL			
Agriculture/livestock	61.2	69.8	65.6
Private sector	4.5	1.3	2.8
Unpaid family work	3.9	5.6	4.8
Non-farm enterprise	4.3	4.1	4.2
Student	21.1	15.4	18.2
URBAN			
Agriculture/livestock	10.2	12.0	11.2
Private sector	19.6	10.9	14.7
Unpaid family work	4.3	24.8	15.8
Non-farm enterprise	18.8	19.3	19.1
Student	32.4	20.8	25.9

Source: 2014/15 National Panel Survey Data

Lack of productive assets such as land also pushes young people out of rural areas into urban areas where they end up searching for jobs and experiencing long periods of job search. Those who leave school with intent to start their own firms or farms, face a challenge of land ownership. The National Panel Survey Data for Tanzania Mainland and Zanzibar 2014/2015 indicate that only 26.4 % of rural youth own land while 42.7% lived on land owned by relatives or spouses (see Table 16).

Table 17: Land Ownership Amongst the Rural Youth, by Sex (%)

Land ownership status	Male	Female	Whole Sample
You personally own the land/plot where you live	32.5	20.8	26.4
You own the land/plot together with someone else	3.3	10.3	7.0
A household member owns the land/plot	40.3	44.8	42.7
The land/plot is rented	5.7	7.5	6.7
You don't own or rent the land	18.0	16.5	17.3
Don't know (Don't read out)	0.2	0.1	0.1

Source: 2014/15 National Panel Survey Data

In urban areas, only 11.7 % of the surveyed youth owned land, 32.9 % did not own or rent land and 32.7 % lived on land owned by relatives or spouses and shown in Table 17 below.

Table 18: Land ownership amongst the urban youth, by sex (%)

Land ownership status-urban youth	Male	Female	Whole Sample
You personally own the land/plot where you live	13.0	10.7	11.7
You own the land/plot together with someone else	0.8	2.2	1.6
A household member owns the land/plot	32.1	33.1	32.7
The land/plot is rented	18.2	22.8	20.8
You don't own or rent the land	35.4	31.0	32.9
Don't know (Don't read out)	0.6	0.2	0.4

***Source**:* 2014/15 National Panel Survey Data

It is important to note that even among those who indicated they owned the pieces of land they lived on, both in rural and urban areas a very small number (6 %) of the youth had rights of occupancy. If self-employment is one of the targets of entrepreneurship development programmes offered by VET and TET institutions, it is important to look at access to land and credit as possible factors that can fast track the transition of youth from training to employment including self-employment.

Table 19: Proportion who possess land ownership documents, by sex of respondents and area of residence

Have documents of land ownership	Male	Female	Total
Age 16-35	6.0	6.1	6.0
Age 36+	18.6	12.6	15.8
Overall sample	12.1	8.7	10.4
Area of residence	Urban	Rural	
Urban/rural	8.0	14.8	10.4

***Source**: 2014/15 National Panel Survey Data*

4.8. INTERFACE BETWEEN LABOUR MARKET AND YOUTH TRANSITION CHALLENGES

From the discussion above it is clear that youth participation in the Tanzania labour market is very low. Available studies attribute this to multiple factors. Geographical location, particularly between rural and urban, is one of the factors which influence unemployment. A study on the determinants of unemployment in Tanzania by Msigwa and Kipesha (2013), revealed that the geographical location contributes to unemployment in two dimensions. First as shown in the discussion on transition, urban based youths stand a better opportunity of getting jobs that fit their qualifications or aspirations faster than those based in rural areas. The second dimension is that even in the same locality, whether urban or rural, youth in remote or geographically disadvantaged areas have a higher probability of experiencing difficulties in accessing information or travelling to places where factories and service providers are located.

The ILO and some scholars (ILO, 2012; Ndyali, 2016; Mihyo and Mukuna, 2015; Samji et al. 2009) have identified other factors such as lack of experience and skills and the mismatch between skills and jobs which reduce youth employability thereby contributing to the high youth unemployment. However, as we saw earlier mismatch is a broad concept with horizontal and vertical aspects. Skills deficit as manifested through under-education and skills mismatch as manifested through over-education appear to have been noted as critical policy issues in Tanzania. In his presentation of the budget for the Prime Minister's Office on the 4th April 2018, the Prime Minister, Hon. Kassim Majaliwa reported that joint research conducted by the Government and the Private Sector Foundation indicated that 79.9 % of the national labour force had low-level skills, 16.6 % intermediate skills and only 3.6 % possessed high level skills and he noted that in order to achieve the goal of an industrial economy the proportion of those with high-level skills has to be raised to 12 % and intermediate skills to 34 % (Ministry of Labour, Employment and Youth Development, 2018). What may be required is to ensure the curriculum is regularly enriched by practice from enterprise participation in quality assurance and curriculum review.

Earlier on the 17th September 2017, the Prime Minister Hon. Kassim Majaliwa launched the National Apprenticeship and Internship Guidelines aimed at addressing the unemployment crisis in Tanzania. Commenting on the skill gap, he said, "We have witnessed a high rate of employers

complaining about graduates being incompetent. This has pushed the government to come up with this programme to increase skills to address unemployment crisis," The new guidelines are expected to increase competence of the youth and thereby increase the choice of skills on the job market (*Daily News*, 18/09/ 2017).

In the Tanzanian *Nipashe Newspaper* Issue Number 0579595 of 11 June 2018, the ILO Coordinator of Skill Development Mr Herbert William was quoted as having said that the problem of youth unemployment was global, but in Tanzania, it is aggravated by the provision of training and education which is not in line with the needs of employers. He was quoted saying, "We need changes in the design of curriculum and employers have to be fully involved, and if possible, they should be given opportunity to get involved in teaching to ensure trainees are aware of what employers need". Skills mismatch is also experienced in other countries like Swaziland. For example, Brixiova and Kangoye (2014) found out that the skills mismatch between what the young job seekers had and what was needed by the employers had a significant effect in the transition to employment.

There are different kinds of skills which influence youth unemployment. Examples include reading, literacy, and numeracy skills at primary school level which if weak impair acquisition of appropriate learning skills and affect the quality of teaching at all later levels. Table 7 gives an indication of youth employment by levels of education. It is important to note that the number of graduates from tertiary education institutions is smaller than the cohorts leaving secondary and primary education institutions. Although the figures do not show the total number of graduates per group which could provide a picture of the proportion of youths employed per group, it seems that the primary and secondary school leavers together added up to 86.1 % of the total youth in employment.

From the literature, it seems that tertiary education graduates have fewer chances of getting employed than secondary and primary school leavers (Haji, 2015) because the jobs in which the latter group is employed do not require high-level skills. They are mainly manual and in the agriculture and the informal sector. Employability seems to be higher among post-secondary education graduates reflecting challenges within the system of education as youth proceed from lower to higher education.

Moreover, Haji (2015) has characterised the formal education system in Tanzania as 'deeply flawed' and noted that 'national learning assessments conducted by Uwezo in Tanzania since 2010 indicate that those enrolled in

the system of formal education especially in primary schools do not seem to be learning'. This situation is compounded by the number of youths, not in employment, education, or training (NEET) which seems increasing significantly (by 3.7%) over the years.

Another challenge is the lack of transferable skills. Most youths do not have adequate transferable skills (Morriset *et al.*, 2013), mainly the capacity for critical, analytical, creative and innovative thinking, teamwork, and self-directed and group leadership which usually are picked through skills training. These skills are also learned through counselling (ILO, 2012), attachments, internships, fieldwork and other work experience programmes (WEPs).

There is also the lack of soft skills such as learning by doing, listening, creativity, innovativeness, team spirit, honesty, reliability, resilience, self-confidence, and focus. For many employers, these skills are proxies for not only employability but also trainability and chances for advancement for employees (ILO, 2014, Mihyo, 2015, Murshed, Farrell and Burton, 2015).

Apart from the skills touched upon above, entrepreneurship skills appear to be critical to address the policy issue of youth unemployment. The ILO study (2012) revealed that youth unemployment persists because they lack relevant entrepreneurship training for self-employment. This is aggravated by training in static skills evidenced by the high prevalence of vocational skills that are already saturated in the formal and informal sectors and lack of emphasis on vocational training on skills in agriculture, fisheries, forestry and other sectors in the rural areas with a high potential for self-employment by the youth. Samji et al. (2009) also found that youth unemployment is rampant because of a shortage of skills in the growing sectors such as energy. Recently the government embarked on infrastructure development projects and the Korean Company building a new ship in Mwanza port expressed an opinion in December 2019 that the metalwork skills of graduates from TVET institutions were not to the level of applicable skills in the metal and fabrication industry as a result of which they have had to train them on the new skills and standards.

The rapid population increase not matched by commensurate increase in investment and employment opportunities has meant that not all youth even if very highly skilled can be absorbed in the workforce (Black, Hashimzade and Myles, 2009). The increase in the youth population has been attributed by a very high birth rate of 37.25 births per 1000 people, decreased infant mortality rates, and a total fertility rate of over five

children born per woman in Tanzania (World Population Review, 2018). Tanzania currently has the 18th highest population growth and birth rates in the world with an estimated population of 55,966,030 in 2020 and projected to reach 86,871,546 million by 2035 (NBS & OCGS, 2018). Without levels of investment and job creation matching the number of skilled graduates coming out the school system per year, unemployment is likely to remain a challenge.

Further analysis of the employment situation in Tanzania revealed that the level of investment tends to affect rates of employment and unemployment. For instance, in 2002, about 311 investments which were registered by the Tanzania Investment Centre (TIC) had a potential of employing 33,132 people (United Republic of Tanzania, 2007b, p. 2), but the investors employ well educated and skilful people (United Republic of Tanzania, 2008). There is no data at the moment to indicate in which sectors these investments were made and whether the target of creating those 33,132 employment opportunities was met. However, as Table 19 shows, the youth employment-to-population ratio had declined from 77.5% in 2006 to 74.6% in 2014. This implies that the ability of Tanzanian economy to create employment declined over the said period[1]. The ILO (2012) has also indicated that the static economic growth contributed to youth unemployment. In other words, the growth was not dynamic.

It can be noted from Table 19 that the decline of employment to population ratio, affected females more than males and the ratio decrease is mostly attributed to the decline of the ratio of females from 76.6% in 2006 to 70.9% in 2014. This of course suggests the need for some more pro-female strategies in addressing youth unemployment problem in Tanzania.

Table 20: Youth Employment-to-Population Ratio by Sex

Year	2006			2014		
Sex	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
Ratio	78.4	76.6	77.5	78.6	70.9	74.6

Source: ILFS 2006 and 2014

Gender inequality which is one of the socio-cultural issues, (Kabeer, 1999) also influences youth unemployment. While young women and men face

1 Employment-to-population ratio provides a proportion of country's working age population that is employed. High overall ratio is typically considered desirable

the same challenges of youth-based constraints to entry into the labour market, each of these gender groups experiences these barriers differently.

The push factors for gender-related youth unemployment inequalities start with the school system. Regarding enrolment, it has been confirmed that in Tanzania, while education for all initiatives record higher rates of female enrolment at the primary school level, the rates of advancement and completion continue to decline in favour of males at secondary and advanced secondary school levels (BEST, 2014). Then as learners advance to a higher level, the tertiary education system channels women into courses that prepare them to enter the labour market as clerical, service, junior managerial and lower professional workers for which openings are very few while providing more opportunities for young men to take courses in technical, engineering and other dynamic disciplines that prepare them for more better-paying jobs for which there are still more openings in the labour market. A quick look at the admission figures and details of the University of Dar Es Salaam, Mzumbe University and Zanzibar University, for example, provide a clear picture of the admission patterns at higher education level (BEST, 2014).

After graduating, employment-related gender-based constraints set in. These include adverse gender stereotypes by employers most of whom believe that young women, especially if they are single, are likely to change jobs after marriage or that their reproductive roles may hinder them from exercising their skills and professionalism to the utmost. Other stereotypes relate to the jobs they make available to young women most of which are dead-end jobs regarding career path and advancement, fair pay, maternity coverage and other benefits (ILO, 2017).

These stereotypes are compounded by multiple burdens that women carry at household, community and workplace levels that limit their choice to take jobs which require them to work away or very far from home or to work at night or in dangerous industrial estates. As noted by the Restless Development Group in Tanzania (Restless Development, 2012) this is in addition to gender hierarchies that reduce the power and ability of women to have full control over their bodies and hence their inability to negotiate fair deals and navigate the complex mesh of unequal gender power relations in employment. Other gender-based constraints to women's entry and stabilisation in the labour market in Tanzania have been documented by Lokina, Nyoni and Kahyarara, (2016) in their contribution to the Tanzania Human Development Report 2017.

Similarly, the African Region Gender Action Plan for the period 2013-2017 has given an in-depth presentation of the institutional and systemic foundations of gender inequality on the African labour markets that disadvantage women (World Bank, 2012). A few of these include unequal access to financial services, agricultural inputs and other productive resources such as land; gender stereotypes based on cultural beliefs and practices and gender-blind policies on employment and many other issues. The plan indicates three indicators of inequality for women engaged in farming, entrepreneurial and wage sectors as mainly, 'gender differences in time use (primarily resulting from differences in childcare responsibilities), gender differences in access to productive inputs (particularly land and credit) and gender differences stemming from market and institutional failures' (p.5).

Labour market information access influences youth unemployment as well. It is argued that labour market information systems are poorly developed. Most youths and other job seekers rely on informal networks or physical search for jobs from enterprise to enterprise. This lengthens and makes job search costly especially for those already with income challenges (Haji, 2015). Although most of the jobs are in the informal sector, labour market information systems do not include jobs in this sector. This is because the informal sector operates very informally including resistance to regulation and registration because the actors find regulatory frameworks constraining or likely to expose unfair labour practices. These unfair labour practices such as unprotected and underpaid work also become a barrier to youths' entry into the informal labour markets. For example, ILO (2012) argues that the poor working environment in the informal sector contributes to youth unemployment.

Additionally, since the formal sector is more organised than the informal sector, higher learning institutions tend to target the formal sector (ILO, 2012). However, mismatch of jobs and skills makes it difficult for the graduates of tertiary education to be fully absorbed in this sector. Most youth graduates cannot employ themselves because they face a challenge of financial capital as they do not have income. For them, self-employment becomes harder because it is difficult to access the financial market since they cannot meet the set conditions (ILO, 2012). In the next section, we focus more on the informal sector.

4.9. WHAT THE DATA IN THIS CHAPTER TELLS US ABOUT TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO WORK

This chapter (the whole of Chapter 4) has highlighted labour market characteristics in terms of regional or spatial aspects of employment, recruitment trends for the period 2015-2016, link between education and jobs and jobs and finally earnings across sectors and between regular and casual employment. The aim was to lay the foundation for understanding the manner in which the labour market characteristics ultimately influence transition to employment by the youth. The chapter concentrated on the period 2015 to 2016.

Table 3 shows that employment opportunities in this period were higher in six major urban areas Dar Es Salaam, Morogoro, Mwanza, Arusha, Tanga and Mbeya which implies that growth based on industry and services is still urban centred and therefore there will be a tendency for job seekers to continue flocking to major urban centres.

Table 4 illustrates that employment opportunities were higher in the regions hosting these major urban centres and although agricultural production is higher in what are regarded as the 'big five' regions i.e. Iringa, Katavi, Rukwa, Ruvuma and Mbeya, recruitment in the agriculture sector was very low in these regions in 2015 and 2016. This could be attributed to most of the agricultural activities in these regions being dominated by smallholder farmers who rely on household labour. In contrast agriculture absorbed more recruits in Kilimanjaro and Arusha regions due to the commercial nature of agriculture there. Employees on farms in these regions consider themselves more advantaged than those in the public service. Therefore, when policy makers project agriculture as possibly the biggest potential employer, they may have to look for ways of taking it beyond traditional farming. Otherwise it will not provide the expected solutions to youth unemployment and youth will continue flocking to urban centres.

Table 6 gives some indication on the link between jobs, education and recruitment trends. Data indicates that while university tertiary education graduates are still getting employed in good numbers in both the public and private sectors, lower secondary and primary school leavers were more employable in 2015 and 2016 as they constitute 43.8 % of those recruited. This could be because the skills required in many institutions which recruited them were lower or because these graduates are less choosy and transit faster. Table 6 also indicates that graduates with vocational and

teachers' education qualifications were very much in demand because both categories constitute 35 % of those who were recruited during that period. Therefore, when you combine lower secondary and primary school leavers on the one and vocational and teachers' education graduates on the other, these four constitute 73.8 % of the jobs filled in 2015/2016.

Table 6 further illustrates the percentage of female recruits with university tertiary education and teachers' education was lower than that of their male counterparts. However, more females with vocational education qualifications than males were recruited that year and there was near gender parity in the category of non-university education and high-level secondary graduates. In terms of job content, Table 6 indicates that most of the job seekers were absorbed in low skills jobs and this is clearly indicated by the high number of lower secondary and primary school leavers who were recruited in big numbers. One possible conclusion from this data is that less skilled job seekers have higher chances of getting employment than their more skilled counterparts. It could also imply that less qualified job seekers have shorter periods of transition than their more qualified counterparts because they know their limitations and are more ready to accept jobs offered to them. It was also noted earlier in this chapter, that while there was high demand for teachers as shown by the high teacher pupil/student ratios in several regions, it was paradoxical that during 2015/2016 a good number of teachers were recruited in non-teaching jobs as shop and sales employees and in other services. This could be due to the working conditions in the education sector or the expectations of job seekers as regards pay or their future expectations and plans.

As regards the possible influence of pay and earnings structure on job search, Table 7 throws some light on monthly earnings by sector and age. The table shows that in the private sector 66.8 % of the youth earn up to a maximum of TSH 300,000 an equivalent of US$ 145 per month, 10.2 % of them earn between TSH 500,001 and 900,000 and only 3.9 % earn between 900,001 and 1,500,000. In the public sector wages are higher and 57.8 % of the employed youth earn between TSH 500,001 and 1, 200, 000. It is noteworthy that the wage bill of the private sector is higher than that of the public sector because of the higher welfare costs and tax obligations in that sector. However, when it comes to competition for recruits, the public sector may be considered as a better employer making job seekers want to try to get employed by this sector before they seek or accept jobs in the private sector especially if they are in the middle and upper skilled

categories. This may have an impact on their perceptions of pay in both sectors and their possible prolonged transitions as they look for jobs whose wages meet their expectations.

Furthermore, it is possible to assume that as people search for temporary or long-term jobs, they may find the informal sector or casual employment a very useful stop gap measure. However, Table 9 indicate that on the average, earnings of casual employees in both the private and public sector in the period 2015/2016 were relatively very low and most of the casual employees earn averagely TSH 150,000 per month. While job seekers with primary or lower secondary school qualifications may find casual employment as the only opportunity for them, those with higher secondary and post-secondary qualifications may find it better to search for jobs longer and accept causal work as the last resort.

CHAPTER 5

NATIONAL POLICIES ON EMPLOYMENT PROMOTION AND TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Paschal B. Mihyo, Jamal Msami & Cornel Jahari

5.1. EMPLOYMENT PROMOTION IN TANZANIA'S LABOUR POLICY

Employment promotion has long been at the core of economic policies in Tanzania. There has been a gradual liberalisation of labour and employment regulations as part of broader market liberalisation economic reforms since the mid-1980s. Labour laws have been changed to introduce limited-time contracts, ease hiring of expatriates and disciplining of workers as part of incentives for private domestic and foreign capital investment (UNCTAD, 2002). The 1997 Investment Act was designed to attract investment in agriculture, manufacturing, mining, tourism, fishing and banking (URT, 1996). This was followed by the liberalisation of labour markets through the Employment and Labour Relations Act (No.6 of 2004) and the Labour Institutions Act (No.7 of 2004) both of which emphasised labour market competition, productivity bargaining and flexibility in wage bargaining within the framework of social justice (Kijaji, op.cit).

Education policies have also undergone changes to align the sector's capabilities with those demanded by the increasingly dynamic, competitive, and productive labour market. Early reforms included the replacement of the 1967 Education for Self-Reliance Policy by the Education and Training Policy in 1995 (ETP 1995) (Weaver, 2011). The ETP 1995 placed strong emphasis on TVET reorienting its objective towards the creation of skills that could increase employability, productivity, and the welfare of the workers. ETP 1995 promoted increased TVET enrolment and expansion of facilities to increase equity and access to training opportunities between regions and social groups. The implementation of ETP 1995 was further strengthened by first, the launch of the Primary Education and Secondary Education Development Programme (PEDP) in 2001, and later the Secondary Education Development Programme in 2004, both of which increased facilities for enrolment and access leading to a high number of youths in primary and secondary schools (MoEST, 2018). The rapid

expansion of enrolment and access since the turn of the millennium has piled the pressure existing TVET infrastructure, necessitating a closer review of ETP 1995 to meet the needs of the both the labour and education markets (MoEST, 2018; Sumra and Katabaro, 2014).

Multiple reviews of ETP 1995 found inadequacies in its response to increased demands for competitive transferable skills and competencies advanced by the gradual transformation of Tanzania's economy (Kahyarara and Teal, 2008; Katera, 2016; Sumra and Katabaro, 2014). Further, policy divergence gradually grew between the ETP 1995 and other employment promotion measures including the 2003 National Small and Medium Enterprise Policy which called for enhanced Self-employment, entrepreneurship training and practical skills. This was a paradigm shift from training for employment per se, to training and skill development for self-employment and enterprise development. The same policy thrust was evident in the 2008 National Employment Policy. Further, the National Medium-Term Strategic Plan 2012/13-2015/16 put TVET at the centre of education policy committing the government to improve access to TVET programmes by increasing enrolment in higher technical and vocational training centres; ensuring TVET curricula is relevant to the development needs of the production and service sectors; redesigning TVET curricula to be more geared towards self-employment and entrepreneurship and promoting an environment supportive to investments in science and technology and in higher, technical and vocational education. These developments led to a succession of ETP 1995 by the Education and Training Policy of 2014 (ETP 2014).

ETP 2014 supports the paradigm shift on education and training by supporting entrepreneurship development as an end goal. The ETP 2014 is informed by Tanzania's long-term development vision 2025, its long term perspective plan (2011-2025) and National Employment Creation Strategy and Programme (NECP). The revised training policy framework promotes job creation through private sector development, self-employment, SMEs, agro-processing, decent work, increased local and international trade and investment in key sectors with high potential for growth and employment creation such as agriculture, infrastructure, mining, tourism and manufacturing.

Recognising the importance of youth in the sustainable national development and prosperity, the previous and current National Youth Development policies addressed the issue of youth unemployment

(United Republic of Tanzania, 1996, 2007b). In these policies, education and training have come out strongly as the factors which influence youth employment. For example, one of the four objectives of the revised Youth Development Policy, which was published in 2007, is to ensure that youth acquire relevant skills and competence for employment (United Republic of Tanzania, 2007b). The reason for putting much emphasis on good education, training and skills such as those related to marketing and entrepreneurship is that employers and self-employment require well educated and skilled people (United Republic of Tanzania, 2007b).

Other policies supporting youth employment transition include the Agricultural Sector Development Programmes I & II, the Economic Empowerment Fund established in 2006 with US$ 16 million to support entrepreneurship development and the Youth Development Fund targeting young entrepreneurs. To ensure proper labour market information systems are in place, the government established the Tanzania Employment Services Agency in 1997 to provide the public with human resources development services and collect, analyse and disseminate labour market information.

Recently, Tanzania enacted the National Strategy for Youth Involvement in Agriculture (NSYIA) for proactive engagement of youth in agriculture (United Republic of Tanzania, 2016b). This strategy enables the operationalisation of national plans and policies such as the National Youth Development Policy (United Republic of Tanzania, 2016). In this strategy, the seventh strategic objective calls for improving youth education and skills to make youth employable (United Republic of Tanzania, 2016b).

5.2. THE EVOLUTION OF TVET IN TANZANIA

The history of TVET from 1994 to date is reflective of the commitment by the Tanzania government to use it to create a skilled and entrepreneurial work force capable of contributing to wealth creation and poverty eradication (URT, 2013). The education system immediately after independence was geared towards creating opportunities for trainees to be prepared for both technical and theoretical skills (Komba & Shukia, 2018). In addition to general knowledge based on conventional subjects, primary schools offered practical knowledge which created skills on agriculture, animal husbandry, woodwork and other activities that would enable school leavers to engage in local economic activities in case they did not advance to secondary school level. At secondary school level, there were ordinary secondary schools offering mainstream courses in arts and science and

special technical secondary schools and technical colleges, the former offering certificates and the latter offering diplomas and higher diplomas (Rutayuga, 2014). The courses at the technical secondary school level were for the duration of four years and the diploma courses in technical colleges were for a period of three years for a diploma and another three years for an advanced diploma. The total duration of training in this system was ten years.

The first post-colonial Vocational Training Act was passed in 1974. This was at the time the large-scale sector of the Tanzanian economy was constituted of mainly state-owned enterprises most of which were in the manufacturing of textiles, capital goods, footwear, building materials, foods, and beverages. The Vocational Training Act of 1974 was passed to regulate the provision of technical and vocational education and training by government and private sector institutions. The main objective was to support these institutions to create the necessary skills relevant to the needs of the productive sectors especially in the state-owned industries and agriculture.

Under the 1974 Act the National Vocational Training Division (NVTD) was established under the ministry responsible for employment and labour issues with a mandate to ensure 'adequate supply of properly trained manpower at all industrial levels and to ensure quality and efficiency' (Pfander and Gold, 2000, p.6). A National Vocational Training Council (NTVC) was established to advise the NVTD on the implementation of the Act. The council was tripartite and provided opportunity to the association of employers and organizations of employees. However, according to Pfander and Gold (2006), the National Vocational Training Council did not have the expected influence and impact because the labour unions and employers' organization were not adequately equipped to make substantial inputs in the curriculum and policies of the NVTD. To improve the implementation Trade Advisory Committees were formed which were composed of specialists in technical education and training. They developed guidelines on training in general and apprenticeship in particular. They also set standards for trade tests to ensure the objectives of the act were achieved by creating the necessary skills to meet the needs of the economy.

The implementation of the 1974 Act and framework did not go as smoothly as desired by the government. The main challenge was the failure of state enterprises to provide opportunities for TVET trainees to gain practical

experience through apprenticeship. This in a way was enigmatic because the TVET system was under the leadership of the state, the public enterprises were state owned and the TVET system had been organized to support their needs. Another challenge was that the activities were concentrated in major urban centres. To address this shortcoming, in 1980, the government launched the National Vocational Education and Training Development Plan in which it set itself the goal of establishing Vocational Training Centres in each region and at a later stage in every district. Observers have commented that the programme though well intentioned was supply driven and became inadequate (Pfander and Gold 2006). In addition, it was state centred and while aiming to also address the agriculture sector, it was still focused on large scale enterprises under the control of the state and as indicated before, the appetite on the part of these enterprises to support TVET by providing opportunities for apprenticeship to trainees remained very low.

The re-organization of the state enterprise system through commercialization and privatization in the 1980s called for a new dispensation under which the provision of vocational education and training services had to involve more actors outside the state systems. The advent of a new private sector focused industrialization strategy called for a new orientation of TVET. The government therefore undertook a review of TVET between 1986 and 1990 and in this review, it was noted that:

- The training centres had no systematic links with enterprises they were supposed to serve.
- There was a mismatch between the qualifications and labour market needs.
- The tripartite NVTC was not inclusive as a forum for policy dialogue.
- Instructors were poorly trained and the quality of training they offered was low.
- The TVET system was still too centralized without any significant inputs from the regions.

Following the review, the government decided to pass a new Vocational Education and Training Act of 1994 under which it established the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) as an autonomous

government agency. The major innovations on TVET under the 1994 Act include:

- The establishment of VETA as an autonomous government agency.
- Mandating VETA to set standards, operating training centres, training instructors and providing testing services and certification.
- Emphasis was put more on demand orientation, effectiveness of training and decentralization of services and administration to regions.
- A dual system of training was emphasized with basic training, specialization and practical experience from training and attachment.
- It introduced funding through cost sharing and a skill development levy to which all employers contribute.

The governance system was changed from being tripartite to being multipartite. Therefore, the VETA Board is constituted of representatives from employers' and employees' organization, non-governmental training institutions and ministries in charge of labour, education, industry, and trade. Apart from setting standards Trade Advisory Committees were given responsibility to ensure training programmes comply with standards and satisfy the needs of the labour markets. In the implementation of the provisions of the Act, the VETA Board launched two Strategic Action Plans (SAPs) I and II. The first one was for the period 1996-1999 known as SAP I and contained guidelines the development of governance and management systems at the headquarters of VETA; the establishment of Regional Boards and Regional Vocational Skills Training Centres; establishing systems for testing and certification; and establishing and equipping a National Vocational Teachers Training College in Morogoro.

The second plan SAP II which covered the period 2000-2006 focused more on demand driven and gender-sensitive training. It put emphasis on strengthening organizational management systems, technical support and capacity building together with ensuring demand orientation, effective provision of support to training centres and trainees and financial sustainability. In the implementation of SAP II especially in strengthening demand orientation, in 2000 the VETA Board issued its

policy on entrepreneurship promotion known as the Integrated Training for Entrepreneurship (ITEP). Since the informal sector had not been prominently addressed in previous policies and programmes, INTEP targeted primarily actors in this sector without losing sight of other learners. This programme had two aspects. The first one related to a strong emphasis on Competency Based Education and Training (CBET) for all training courses which were required to focus on the needs of the labour market. The second aspect related to modularized training which allows choice depending on the needs of the employers sponsoring trainees and the trainees themselves but within the approved curriculum framework; and a menu approach for tailor made non-formal training, designed for selected target groups based on demand.

The added value of the INTEP programme arose from its emphasis on developing capacity for trainers who targeted established MSE operators within the informal sector with a special focus on gender balance. It was aimed at tailor made courses for selected groups and the guidelines were that in launching training courses trainers had to take into consideration the labour market and technological situation of the groups; the social, economic, demographic, gender, education, work experience and expectations of the groups; the geographical location, scope and linkages with producers and markets; the existence of support systems such local training institutions and other facilities related to practical training, location, duration, training costs and possible number of trainees.

Within this approach and framework, the pilot programme of INTEP targeted low informal sector entrepreneurs with low levels of education especially girls, women and young men and the courses launched were in the areas of food preservation, storage and processing. In the implementation of other components of INTEP, VETA instructors were given further training focusing on INTEP. Non-VETA training providers were also given training and training modules were developed and shared with training institutions. This laid strong foundations for both competence-based and integrated and inclusive training of potential learners. Details on the whole development of INTEP and CBET have been documented by Ndunguru and Gold (2000).

The new orientation of TVET was further shaped by its Technical Advisory Committee which after the passing of SAP II immediately started the review of curriculum and setting of standards for certification. These activities were aimed at providing frameworks for strengthening the CBET

approach. An example of the main features of CBET is indicated in the background to the VETA Occupational Unit Standards for Information and Communication Technology Levels I-III reproduced in Table 20. It shows the difference between the structure of VET before and after the VETA Act 1994. However, VETA only delivers a sub-component of TVET. In the next section we provide a broader overview of TVET in Tanzania before concentrating on the role of VETA in skill development and assessing its contribution to the transition of youth from training to employment.

Table 21: Old and New System of TVET

Old System	New System
1. Supply driven approach	1. Demand driven approach
2. Ministry driven	2. Autonomous government agency
3. Highly centralized management	3. Decentralized to the regions
4. Government financed	4. User financed plus payroll levy
5. Formal sector based	5. Formal and informal sector based
6. Examination driven	6. Competence driven
7. Fixed entry and exit points	7. Flexible entry and exit points
8. No recognition of prior experience	8. Recognition of prior experience
9. Organized according to subjects	9. Occupational focus
10. Division between education and training	10. Integrated approach
11. Long institutionally based training	11. Both long and short courses approach
12. Civil service culture	12. Market based approach
13. No clear career path	13. Clear career path

Source: VETA, 2000, Occupational unit Standards for Information and Communication Technology Levels I-III on www.redoubt.com/TZICT/VETA-ICT-Standards.pdf (p.4)

5.3. THE LEGAL AND POLICY FRAMEWORK OF TVET

Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Tanzania is divided into Vocational Education and Training (VET) which is coordinated and regulated by the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) established under Act No.1 of 1994 and Technical Education and Training (TET) which is coordinated and regulated by the

National Council for Technical Education (NACTE) established under Act No.9 of 1997. VET is defined as education and training undertaken by students to equip them with *occupational skills* while TET is aimed at equipping students with knowledge and skills required for higher roles and responsibilities in their *areas of technical specialization* including at higher levels of TET capabilities to plan, manage, evaluate and trouble shoot (Government of the URT, 2002). In addition, TET is not confined to only advanced occupational skills but such skills across disciplines and it focuses on technical specializations. Beyond these differences on emphasis, the common goal of both VET and TET is to impart 'practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge related to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life' (Manyanga and Athumani, 2010; ILO 2001)

In Tanzania, VET is offered by a big spectrum of providers including government, the profit-driven private sector, the non-profit private sector, community based, faith based and ordinary civil society organizations. It also includes non-formal VET offered on short term project or activity basis by development partners or companies jointly or severally for their respective staff. From records of up to 2020 there were about 800 VET centres, 34 of which were owned and run by VETA and the remaining 766 were owned and run by non-sate actors (VETA 2020). In addition, there were 215 technical education centres registered as technical institutes, 50 of them registered as TET institutes by NACTE (NACTE 2020). There were 137 technical institutes registered and coordinated by the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (Opendata 2020). At the end of 2019 five universities were registered as universities or colleges of science and technology by the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU 2020). In addition, there are 54 Folk Development Colleges under the Ministry of Education (MoES & T) 2019), 9 training institutes under the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock Development. These constitute the formal TVET system in Tanzania.

The formal TVET system consists of courses on Vocational Education and Training (VET) offered by VETA and other private education service providers and the Technical Education and Training (TET) courses offered by NACTE regulated institutions. The courses offered or regulated by VETA are confined to occupational skills such as masonry, joinery, electrical wiring, motor mechanics, etc. Most of them are offered in accordance with the occupations in demand by learners in various districts. However, they

use the same curricula. Some are offered by private providers, faith-based centres and the 54-community based Folk Development Colleges under the Ministry of Education Science and Technology which offer courses on agriculture, fisheries, beekeeping, and others like those offered by VETA. TET courses are offered at all levels of formal education including at technical secondary schools, regional vocational education and training institutes. In addition, there are specialized vocational and technical education courses hosted by certain ministries as indicated above including the nine institutes run by the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock and the Mineral Research Institute of the Ministry of Minerals. Advanced technical courses at tertiary university level are regulated by the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) and fall outside the TVET system.

VETA and NACTE have very distinct mandates. VETA has mandate to coordinate, finance, regulate, promote, and provide training. It runs regional and district vocational education and training centres and the Vocational Teachers Training College based in Morogoro. Unlike VETA, NACTE does not own or run TET courses. Its mandate is for registration, accreditation, and regulation of public and private TET institutions, coordinating the provision of TET, certifying TET teachers and instructors and establishing and administering the TET Quality Assurance Framework. VETA's funds accrue from assets it inherited from its predecessor, the National Vocational Training Department; sums accruing from the Skills Development Levy to which all employers with four or more staff contribute 6% from their payroll; grants from the government and development and other partners and internally generated funds including fees from students. The skill development funds are collected as levy from employers by the Tanzania Revenue Authority and one third of the collected revenue is paid to VETA. The biggest component of funds for NECTA accrues from government grants supplemented by internal earning and fees from institutions which NECTA regulates.

Apart from vocational education and training courses offered by VETA, there are many state and non-state actors dealing with and looking for solutions to the problem of youth unemployment in general and transition challenges for school graduates in Tanzania. Many initiatives in this category offer short non-formal education and training courses. The Tanzania Government in collaboration with development partners and the Tanzania Private Sector Foundation have noted the gap between skills and jobs and launched short term focused projects to address it. Such efforts

include the UN joint projects, individual development partners and those between development partners and the Government of Tanzania. Examples of UN projects include the Joint Programme on Youth Empowerment funded by the Swedish Embassy and implemented jointly by the ILO, UNIDO, FAO and UN Women covering ten sectors with a focus on increased opportunities for income creation, productivity employment and social and economic inclusion of vulnerable groups mainly youth and women; and the United Nations Development Assistance Plan (UNDAP) launched in January 2015 and ended in June 2016, aimed at supporting the Government in its efforts to address and redress the women and youth employment deficit.

In 2016 the ILO carried out rapid market assessments of essential sectors (horticulture, apiculture and tourism) with the aim of supporting future programming by the government and development partners to address the underlying causes of constraints to women and youth active and rewarding participation on the labour market (ILO, 2016). SNV, MasterCard Foundation and Swiss Agency for Development Cooperation (SDC) have supported these efforts through the Opportunities for Youth Employment (OYE) project in Mozambique, Rwanda and Tanzania focusing on skill development and linking unemployed youth with the job market. By the end of 2017, it had supported over 21,000 youths through training and 650 youths to start their enterprises. 12,500 had been able to enter the job market (SNV 2018a).

Another project implemented by SNV with the support of the USAID is the Youth Economic Empowerment Activity (YEE) which targets youth between 15 and 29 years of age and aims at empowering them through skill formation. It started in 2017 and aimed at supporting 33,000 youths by 2022 through training in business, productivity, and leadership (SNV, 2018b). Other non-formal skill development projects include the TechnoServe and MasterCard project on Strengthening Rural Youth Development (STRYDE) aimed at supporting rural youth through capacity building for trainers of the youth on entrepreneurship and enterprise development; the Pathways to Work project of the International Youth Foundation and USAID, Microsoft and MasterCard Foundation and the Irish Aid supported MOWE programme which promotes women entrepreneurship through the ILO and has helped the number of women-owned enterprises in Tanzania to increase by 35% between 1990 and 2015 (ILO, 2016b). These are just few interventions, but we understand there are other activities in this area

by other development partners.

What is common between most of these initiatives is that they seek to bridge the gap between the job market and skills by offering training to those who cannot access VET or TET courses. Furthermore, they target unemployed youth, most of them either uneducated or educated at primary and secondary school levels. There is no disaggregated data on the level of education of those supported in these programmes. Notwithstanding this data gap, these programmes have made a significant contribution to enabling youth to enter the job market either as employees or entrepreneurs. This has in a way supplemented action by state and non-state actors on the problem through the courses offered by VETA and others. They are the non-formal channels of skill development. In addition, there are non-formal VET training courses offered on short term project basis or by companies seeking to upgrade the technical competencies of their staff through in-service training.

5.4. THE TVET QUALIFICATIONS FRAMEWORK

The TVET National Qualifications Framework was jointly developed by VETA and NACTE. It comprises of ten levels of competence. VETA is mandated to regulate and coordinate Levels 1 to 3 and NACTE Levels 4 to 10. They are all competence-based levels and shown in Table 21.

Table 22: The TVET National Qualifications Framework-A Summary

Level	Competence	
	VETA	
Level 1	• Competence for routine and predictable duties and tasks under supervision	
Level 2	• Competence for a significant range of occupational duties, some non-routine tasks with individual or collective responsibility where teamwork is required	
Level 3	• Competences to undertake a broad range of complex occupational tasks and duties some non-routine in a variety of contexts with considerable responsibility and autonomy, and guidance and supervision where required	
	NACTE	
Level	Qualification/ Award	Description
Level 4	Basic Technician	• Application of skills and knowledge at routine level
Level 5	Technician Certificate	• Application of knowledge and skills to routine and non-routine activities and ability to assume operational responsibility
Level 6	Ordinary Diploma	• Application of knowledge and skills in a broad range of complex technical activities with a high degree of responsibility and some responsibility for work of others.
Level 7	Higher Diploma	• Application of knowledge, skills and understanding on a broad range of complex technical activities and high degree of personal responsibility and some responsibility over work of others.
Level 8	Bachelor's degree	• Application of knowledge, skills and understanding of a wide range of unpredictable context with substantial personal responsibility and over the work of others plus responsibility for allocation of resources, planning, management, execution and evaluation

Level		Competence
Level 9	Masters' Degree	• Display of masterly of complex and specialized area of knowledge and to conduct research or advanced technical or professional activity and able to work autonomously in complex and unpredictable situations
Level 10	Doctor of Philosophy	• Application of knowledge and understanding and capability to do advanced research resulting into significant and original contributions to a specialized field and demonstration of a command of methodological issues and capability to engage in critical dialogue with peers plus ability to work autonomously in complex and unpredictable situations

Source: UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2016, International Centre for Technical and Vocational Education on World TVET Database, Tanzania, February 201

5.5. CAPACITY GAPS EXPECTED TO BE FILLED BY THE TVET SYSTEM

VETA and NACTE have developed a framework within which, if resources are adequately provided, they are strategically positioned to deliver on their mandates and create capacity for its trainees to be easily absorbed by various productive sectors. This, however, has to take into consideration the expectations and projections of skill requirements contained in key TVET development policies. In 2013 the government launched the Technical and Vocational Education and Training Development Programme (TVETDP 2013/2014-2017/2018) which set very high targets in terms of enrolment and increase in the number of instructors. The target was to raise enrolment from 233,795 in 2012/2013 to at least 1,413,916 in 2017/2018; the number of teaching staff from 7,600 to 129,545, technical staff from 7,518 to 30,481 and administrative staff from 1,879 to 7,620 during the same period. In the area of enrolment 30% of the training was expected to be IT based, 30% through full time residential training, 25 % through short courses, 10% on flexible part time teaching, 5% through tailor made demand-oriented teaching and 1% through apprenticeship work-based training.

The Programme spells out major key areas to be taken into consideration in skills i.e. manufacturing, mining, agriculture, tourism, trade, finance,

services, energy, marine transport, railways, road transport, water, sanitation, STI, education, health and welfare among others. It spelt out the skills gaps that the TVET system is expected to fill in the short, medium, and long term as shown in Table 22.

Table 23: Skill Gaps during the Short, Medium, and Long Terms Per the TVETDP 2013/201-2017/2018

Broad field of study	Status 2012/2013	Short-term Target 2015/2016	Medium-term Target 2017/2018	Long-term Target 2020/2025
Engineering, Manufacturing &Construction	552,088	819,700	1,351,000	4,756,700
Science	2,8897	54,400	83,530	185,470
Agriculture	16,357,466	16,072,325	15,593,475	1,2630,024
Health and Welfare	112,135	151,000	233,600	556,500
Social Science, Business & Law	1,468,560	2,035,800	2,692,040	5,993,120
Humanities and Arts	44,057	61,080	80,760	179,800
Education (TVET Facilitators)	20,754	100,344	173,168	593,895
Services	1,382,075	1,695,600	1,976,440	3,155,840
Total	**19,965,648**	**20,940,177**	**22,097,429**	**27,748,888**

Source: URT (2013, p.14)

It has been emphasized in the programme that in filling the gaps implementers have to take into consideration the views of key stakeholders especially employers; the need for flexibility of the programme and recognition of prior learning and experience; balance in the needs for professional, associate professional and skilled workers; increase of competence in order to enable learners to be gainfully employed and a favourable ratio between learners and instructors. In addition, VETA and its associate bodies are supposed to ensure that at least 75% of members of staff are adequately qualified, the number of female teaching staff is increased from 28% to at least 40% and capacity in terms of infrastructure, equipment and teaching and learning materials is optimally increased. In the next chapters, this book examines the extent to which the established framework reviewed

above has supported VETA to deliver on its objectives and mandate. The major focus is on the transition of VETA graduates from training to the world of work. The study results discussed in the subsequent chapters cover only VETA.

CHAPTER 6

FACTORS INFLUENCING SKILL DEVELOPMENT BY VETA

Donald Mmari, Jamal Msami & Cornel Jahari

6.1. KEY CONSIDERATIONS IN EFFECTIVE DELIVERY OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Courses in the TVET system generally seek to address the challenges of mismatch between the skills imparted and those required in the world of work. For any education and training system to be capable to address this core issue, it has to adopt a holistic approach. It may use various tools including labour market surveys and stakeholder consultations to reduce the problems of mismatch between skills and jobs. However, there are many factors which impact on the processes of preparing students for the transition from school to work. Policy is the primary driver of effectiveness. As was shown in the study by Redecker and others (2000) change of policy on funding for example, affected the role of folk development colleges in Tanzania and most of them have remained less effective than they were meant to be. It is essential therefore to examine policies and how they have shaped funding models for VET in Tanzania over time. One key factor in the effectiveness of any education system is funding. Currently, funding for VETA centres depends on allocations from the government, cost sharing and the skills development levy that is raised through contributions by employers. Therefore, resource adequacy is an important factor. This also extends to the financial support available to learners, the conditions under which they study and their capability to meet their transport, accommodation, tuition, and field work costs.

Another important factor is human resources. Trainers, who prepare students for learning that captures cognitive, interpretive, critical, analytical, innovative and soft skills, stand a better chance of producing learners that can quickly and easily fit into the enterprise systems than those that impart only cognitive skills. This chapter covers several inputs that have influenced the capacity of VETA to deliver on its mandate and on the national TVET qualifications framework. These factors cover governance and management of the programmes, infrastructure and materials for teaching, teaching and learning processes, programme development and management especially staff workload in classroom teaching and field work, staff time management and staff development, networking for staff development and students' attachment, resources mobilization and student welfare and counselling. Some of these factors

are shown in Table 23 below. We have organised these inputs into clusters covering student characteristics, teachers' characteristics, delivery through teaching, training through field attachments and factors affecting teaching and learning.

Table 24: Factors that Impact of the Delivery of TVET Course

INPUTS	PROCESSES	OUTCOMES
• Politics • Policy • Governance & General Management • Human Resources • Curriculum • Physical Infrastructure & IT • Programme development • Programme management • Programme monitoring and evaluation • Psycho-social infrastructure • Teaching-Learning facilities • Linkages with the external environment • Financial resources mobilisation	• Institutional management • Teacher professional support processes • Teaching-learning processes • Fellowships • Student and teacher attachment • Partnerships with productive sectors • Learner psycho-social support processes • Labour market information access • Learning by doing • Community support processes • Values and role models • Regular curriculum review • Internal /External quality assurance	• Cognitive learning • Adaptive capabilities • Innovative capacity • Life-coping skills • Technical and technological capabilities • Life-long learning skills • Soft skills • Subject area specialisation • Enhanced potential for positive contribution to society • Self-directed development & self-employment • ULTIMATELY, a self-sustaining educational system and society

Source: Field work data

It is important to note that there is no legal requirement or mandate for VETA to create jobs. Rather, its primary responsibility is to prepare graduates to seamlessly fit into the world of work and meet the expectations of employers. As highlighted in chapter 5, VETA has two leading roles. The principal role is to oversee the Vocational Education and Training system in Tanzania by 'coordinating, regulating, financing and providing Vocational Education and Training in Tanzania'. The second one is to train through 34 vocational training centres and institutes that it owns, and it provides training to vocational teachers through its Vocational Teachers' Training College in Morogoro. In addition to its 34 centres, VETA coordinates and regulates more than 766 VET institutions owned by other VET providers in the country, providing training in the form of long courses, short courses, and tailor-made courses.

VETA also conducts Labour Market Surveys to determine skills demanded by the labour market. In the discharge of these roles, it regulates the provision of vocational education and training in the country through Registration of VET Institutions; Accreditation; Setting Standards; Curriculum Development; Auditing for Compliance; Assessment; and Certification. It also provides education and skills training through its centres. In all its functions it is guided by its core values which are: demand-driven services, performance excellence, transparency, and teamwork. VETA is an operationally autonomous regulator of VET thanks to a 1994 Vocational Education and Training Act, which decoupled VETA from its parent ministry (United Republic of Tanzania, 1994). In addition to establishing an independent VETA, the 1994 Act also introduced a Skills and Development Levy (SDL) which is paid by employers to enhance skills in the labour force (United Republic of Tanzania, 1994). Despite, its regulatory independence, VETA's success depends, among other things, the demographics and quality of students.

Using a case study of 574 current and former students of VET, employers and instructors, the rest of this chapter examines the demand and supply of skills development in 21 VET colleges in Tanzania.

6.2. STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS AND MOTIVATION FOR TRAINING

This section provides information on the demographic characteristics of students interviewed, their educational background, courses they are offered and their preferences. Features of VET students interviewed varied

based on age, education and sex. VET students were relatively youthful with a mean age of 21 years. As Figure 1 depicts, a majority, 9 out of 10, had secondary education. Among those interviewed, female students were 115 while their male counterparts were 95 based on a purposive sample which reflects the fact that female population is made of slightly higher number of people (51%) than their male counterparts - 49% (NBS, 2014).

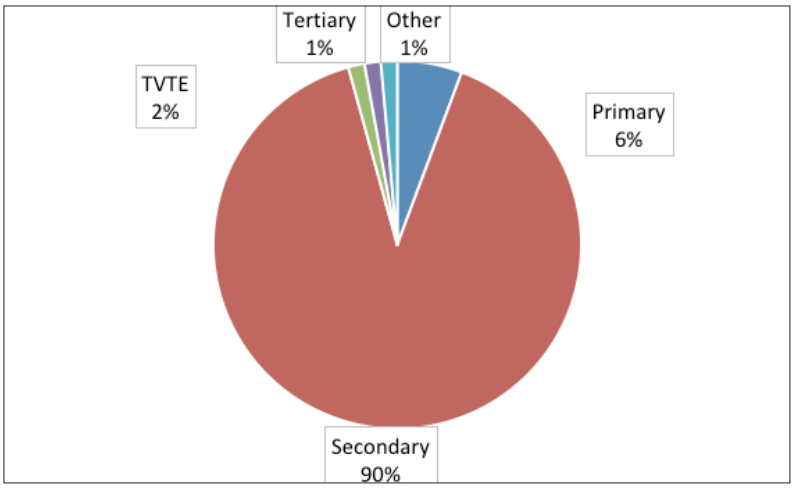

Figure 2 : Educational attainment by TVET students interviewed
Source: Interview with VET graduates

The sample of graduates comprised VETA, non-VETA (private including faith-based organizations) and unemployed (belonging to non-VETA or private institutions) but from VETA regulated training centres. Each sub-sample constituted one-third of the overall sample, Figure 2.

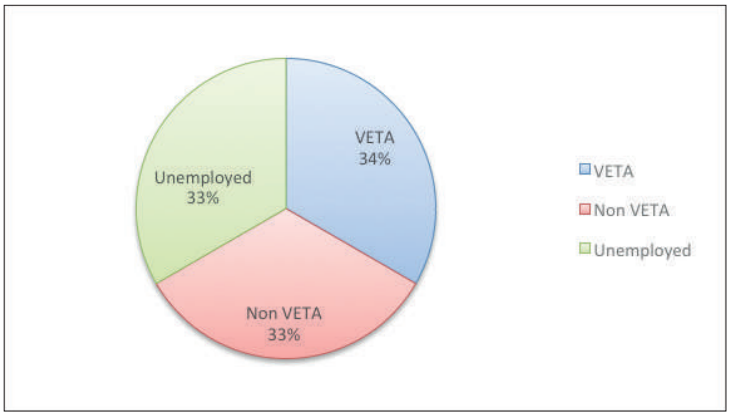

Figure 3: Categories of graduates interviewed
Source: Interview with VET graduates

There were graduates of different age and sex. Some 60% and 40% of the graduate respondents were male and female, respectively, as shown in Figure 3. Furthermore, the majority (43%) ranged between ages 25 and 29, while 34% ranged between ages 19 and 24. The rest (23%) were 30 years of age or above. Given their age characteristics, they belong to the group of youth and the majority are between 19 and 30 years falling within the definition of 'youth' under the National Youth Development Policy 2007.

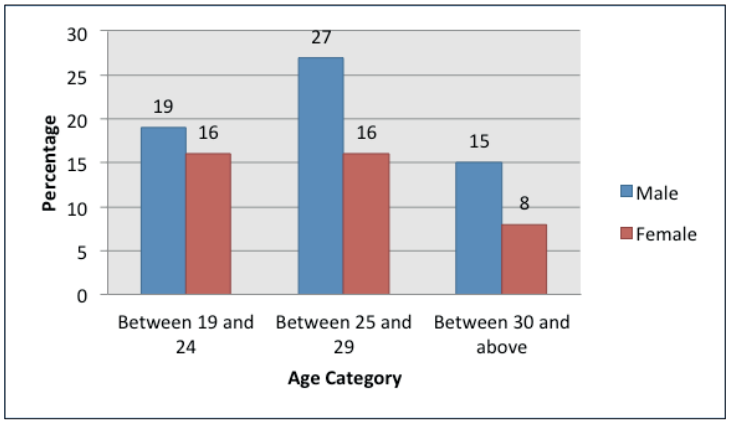

Figure 4: Percentage distribution of VET graduates interviewed by age and sex
Source: Interview with VET graduatesGraduates had also completed different levels of formal education, with more than 3 out of 5 having

completed lower level secondary education (Figure 4).

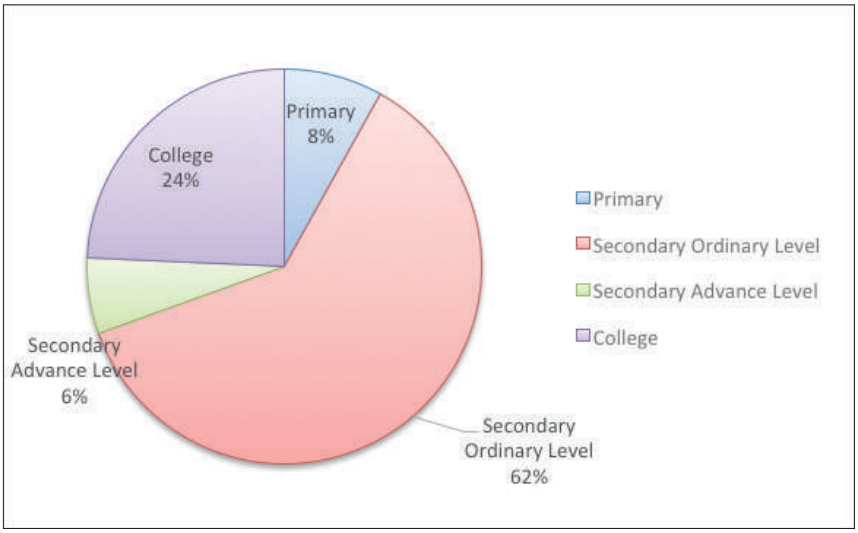

Figure 5: Educational attainment of VET graduates interviewed
Source: Interview with VET graduates

Literature suggests several factors limit the participation of women in TVET and other post-primary training activities of this nature. A study of factors affecting women participation in vocational education and training in Masasi District in Tanzania by Sigisbert (2017) identified several gender-based challenges for women in such courses. They include lack of support systems for counselling female students on courses and protecting them from sexual harassment; a limited number of female instructors that can support them and act as their role models; the limited facilities for training which leads to scramble among students leaving women as losers in such competition for space and facilities; lack of financial support due to parental preference for boys over girls and the timing and duration of courses.

Timing was cited to influence the attendance of some evening-convened courses which most women cannot attend if they have household responsibilities after work and the requirement that courses must be completed by cycle rather than by modules was said to encourage women to drop out. The study also identifies child marriages in Masasi District as a barrier because some parents preferred such marriages to education. Most of these factors apply to many if not all VET centres and regions.

VET specific systemic barriers also contribute, and they include the gendering of courses as some courses have traditionally been the domain of female - the so-called soft trades, a trend which is also common in higher education institutions. This is due to cultural socialization and sex stereotyping promoted in households and communities. Research by Mallya (2008) indicates that VETA courses are male dominated and men specialize in technical courses such as masonry, electrical and technical trades. According to the study of VETA in Morogoro Region by Ntalima (2014), most women look for courses related to secretarial chores and those of interest to some of them such as nursing which are offered in medical schools and not by VETA. Similar findings came out of the study by Juma (2013) of VETA courses at Mkokotoni Vocational Training Centre in Zanzibar. As can be seen from Figure 5, most of the courses offered by VETA are technical and impart hard skills and therefore leave very limited choices for females within this gendered choice of courses and specializations.

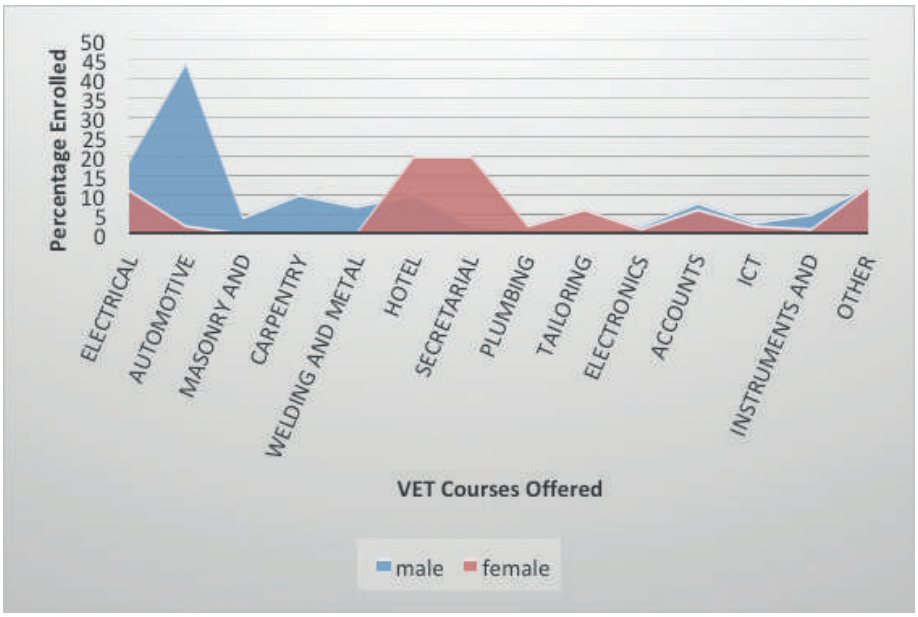

Figure 6: VET course enrolments by sex
Source: VETA records

Notwithstanding this however, female participation in VET courses increased from 20 % in 2004 to 24 % in 2005. The general picture is to the effect that while in 2004 females made up 20% of the total enrolment,

the figure rose to 24 % in the year 2005[1]. This is in respect of the long and short courses for both VETA owned and non-VETA owned training centres. Of the employed respondents, 20 % had completed TVET Level I, 25 % had completed TVET Level II and 26 % had completed TVET Level III (See Table 24 below).

Table 25: Highest level of Technical and Vocational Education and Training Completed

Level	Number	Percentage
Apprenticeship Training	2	1
Level I	42	20
Level II	52	25
Level III	54	26
Other	19	9
Not applicable	41	20
Total	**210**	**100**

Source: Interview with VET graduates

The respondents were also asked about their educational background and most of them indicated they were secondary school leavers as can be seen from Table 25 below.

Table 26: Highest level of education completed by interviewees

Highest level of education completed	Number	Percentage
Primary	17	8
Secondary Ordinary Level	129	61
Secondary Advance Level	13	6
College	51	25
Total	210	100

Source: Interview with VET graduates

It is also very interesting to note that 25% of VET students were also college graduates. This is very important for three reasons. First, until recently most parents and youth considered VET as a less desirable option in education (Kalimasi, 2015) and therefore VET was dominated by low achievers in primary and secondary education who could not make it to higher education. It seems from these figures that VET is increasingly

1 www.veta.go.tz/index.php/en/others?sid=4

attracting college graduates. Second, as we will see later the predominance of primary school leavers in VET training is a big constraint to them and their trainers because materials, manuals and the language of training is English in which most primary school leavers are not proficient. Third, when mixed with those who are more proficient in English those with lower learning capacities drag those who are more capable to their level or slow their pace of learning.

Students followed various courses which led them to different specialisations (see Figure 5). Given that VET provides both theoretical knowledge and technical skills, students have the option to choose across various areas of specialization. Nearly half the VET students (47 %) who were interviewed opted for technical and other related courses, 28 % are enrolled in crafts and trade related courses, 16 % in clerical support and 10 % are in service-related courses. Market demand was cited by a considerable number of students (56 %) as the main reason for choice of specialization. Other students (8 %) alluded to the need to upgrade already acquired basic knowledge, while some (9 %) said their colleges assigned them courses upon admission. Personal interest or passion, and employment opportunities including self-employment were also largely cited.

One student responded by saying:

> *"Most women are afraid to pursue this course not knowing that there are a lot of employment opportunities for women" (Student 21).*

While another student said,

> *"I love to study a course which most people consider challenging especially for women, to discredit the idea that women are incapable" (Student 22)*

The identified student characteristics point to several factors that seem to influence their choice of courses and their motivation for learning. The first is family socialization and background as females seem to be socialized towards certain types of tasks and activities which influence their choice of skills. Together with this is negative culture which socializes girls to look for skills that somehow relate to domestic chores and responsibilities of motherhood as shaped by societal values and practices. The second factor is that although most interviewees mentioned entrepreneurship and

self-employment, their primary goal is to secure employment through recruitment. Third is educational attainment. As seen earlier VET is still dominated by primary and secondary school graduates who have not managed to advance further on the education ladder. This is punctuated by a small number of higher education graduates as some of them begin to realize that VET skills can catapult them into self-employment or contract jobs.

6.3. CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHING STAFF IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING CENTRES

This study assessed VETA and Non-VETA vocational education and training staff capacity to carry out the mandate of providing technical and vocational instruction. This section gives quick overview of the staffing situation within the VET system focusing on staff interviewed. The education profile of VET staff interviewed ranged from primary school to university level. From our selected sample, as indicated in Table 15 about 52 % of VET staff interviewed had moderate education level at college followed by 21 % secondary education level leavers and 14 % were university graduates. This education pattern is the same across the sexes. In relation to their age, 61 % of VET staff were in the adult age category between 35 - 64 years old while staff with age category between 25 - 34 (the youth) were 35 % and one % were in the age category below 25 years old. This raises the possibility of a potential demographic crisis unless handled sooner than later through a systematic and clear succession plan. On a positive side, this could mean that a good number of instructors are experienced and retained over the years.

Table 27: Education Level of VET Teaching Staff, by Sex and Age

Sex/Educational Level		Age Group				Total	%
		15-24 years	25-34 years	35-64 years	65+ years		
Male	Primary	0	0	1	0	1	**1**
	Secondary	0	6	8	0	14	**21**
	TVTE	0	0	7	0	7	**10**
	College	0	12	22	1	35	**52**
	University (undergraduate)	0	4	6	0	10	**15**
	Graduate Level	0	1	0	0	1	**1**
	Total	**0**	**23**	**44**	**1**	**68**	**100**
Female	Primary	0	0	1	0	1	**3**
	Secondary	0	2	5	1	8	**22**
	TVET	0	1	2	0	3	**8**
	College	1	7	12	0	20	**54**
	University (undergraduate)	0	4	1	0	5	**13**
	Graduate Level	0	0	0	0	0	**0**
	Total	**1**	**14**	**21**	**1**	**37**	**100**
Both Sexes	Primary	0	0	2	0	2	**2**
	Secondary	0	8	13	1	22	**21**
	TVET	0	1	9	0	10	**9**
	College	1	19	34	1	55	**52**
	University (undergraduate)	0	8	7	0	15	**14**
	Graduate Level	0	1	0	0	1	**1**
	Total	**1**	**37**	**65**	**2**	**105**	**100**
	Percentage	**1**	**35**	**62**	**2**	**100**	

Source: Computed from survey data

Furthermore, VET staff had different years of experience since they joined VET colleges and centres. While the relationship between experience and performance is complex and depends on factors, such as personnel selection, training, and career development, some studies (see for example, Kinyondo, 2012) suggests that the experience of a worker as positive impact on performance at individual and organizational levels and consequently for the whole economy Without neglecting the influence of other factors on this relationship, we take the view that in general, the experience of VET staff is expected to have direct impact on the quality of delivery which is best described through the employability and performance of VET graduates.

The experience of VET teaching staff was therefore assessed by focusing on the length of time they had worked for the VET centre. It was found that 47 % of staff had been employed by the VET centres for a period of between one and five years, while 30 % had been in employment for between six to ten years (Figure 6). Further, some 13 % of VET instructors had worked for the same employer for between eleven and fifteen years while almost 11 % had worked for the VET **centres** for over 15 years. This same pattern was independent of the sex of the instructor. These statistics have several implications. One, the majority of teaching staff in the sampled VTCs had little to medium work experience. Second, the demography of teaching staff suggests poor organisational retention of staff, with most staff indicating willingness to move jobs once they have accumulated enough experience.

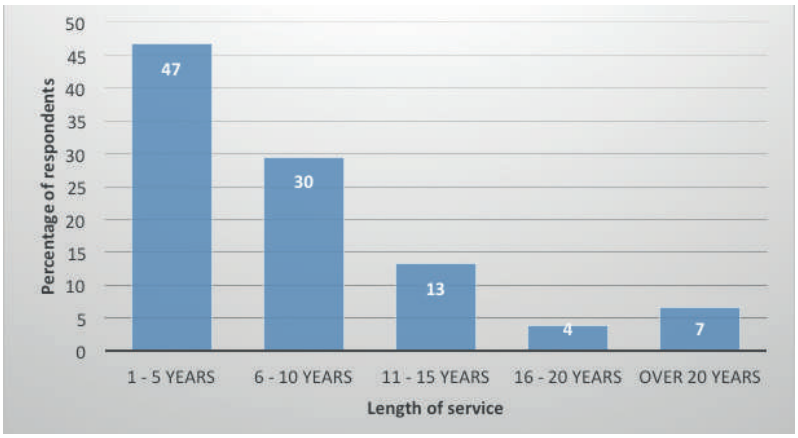

Figure 7: Length for service for VET staff
Source: Calculated from staff survey

6.4. DELIVERY OF COURSES THROUGH TEACHING

The teaching and training processes comprise of various components with different functions aimed at changing the behaviour of students; that is, learning. The aspects of the teaching and training system are teachers, facilities (World Bank, 2018), management (Athumani & Ngowi, 1999), curriculum (Ishumi, 1994; United Republic of Tanzania, 1993), just to mention few. This section will cover content or courses, instructors, teaching-learning approaches, and evaluation techniques.

TVET teachers are trained at the VETA Morogoro Vocational Teachers' Training College. In 2011 the College published its Strategic Development Plan in which it gave projections on its training activities for ten years (2011 to 2021). The College planned to train a total of 34,362 teachers over the period at an average of 3,436 teachers per year (VETA, 2011). The projected numbers are shown on Figure 7.

The projected number of teachers to be trained seems to fall short of the national target set by the Government in the Technical and Vocational Education and Training Development Programme (TVETDP 2013/2014-2017/2018) in which the target was to increase the number of teaching staff from 7,600 to 129,545 by the end of 2018. In the absence of actual figures on the existing staff capacity in the whole TVET system, it is not easy at this point to tell whether the TVETDP 2013/2018 targets were met.

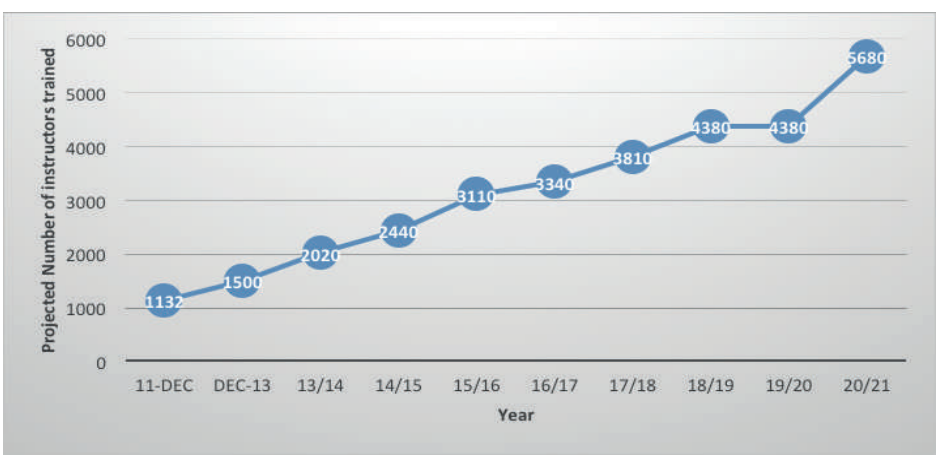

Figure 8: Projected numbers of teachers to be trained by VETA 2011-2021

Source: Extracted from Table 2.2 of the Morogoro Vocational Teachers' Training College Strategic Development Plan *(2011-2021), p.17*

The availability of competent instructors at VTCs is crucial to ensuring quality delivery of VET courses. Sampled institutions revealed that they had a total of approximately 2,951 instructors. Nonetheless, the most important aspect in delivering quality VET education is not the number of instructors, rather the ratio of instructors to students. This ratio measures how easily accessible an instructor is to students. Students need close supervision by the instructor but also instructors need manageable workloads to deliver quality instruction that enhances learning outcomes. Findings indicate that government owned VTCs have high student to instructor ratios compared to their privately owned counterparts.

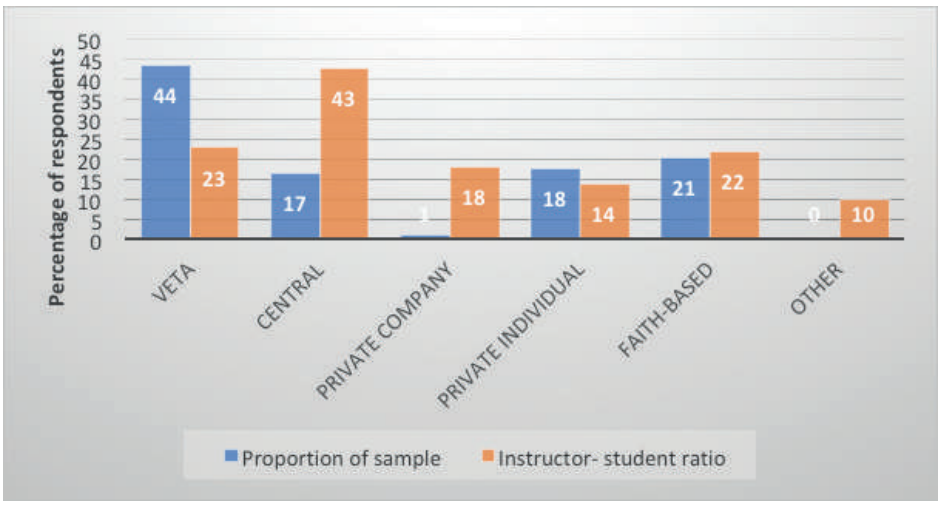

Figure 9: Percentage distribution of instructors and instructor-student ratios in tvet centres, by centre ownership
Source: Computed from survey data

6.5. FACTORS INFLUENCING THE QUALITY OF TEACHING

VET instructors were asked to point out the main factors that affect the quality of teaching. The major factors pointed out by the majority were: the quality of students enrolled in VET; challenges related to teaching infrastructure including classrooms/workshops; equipment, machinery, tools and materials; challenges related to space; financial constraints; the shortage of curriculum specialists and teaching staff.

The first dimension of infrastructural challenge is the lack of enough teaching space particularly workshop buildings, classrooms as compared to the number of students that are enrolled. This makes it difficult for

instructors to attend properly to all students as the majority of students have low theoretical knowledge which affects their performance during field attachment.

> *"The number of students enrolled is very high as compared to available infrastructure which includes classrooms as compared to students" (Staff No.102*).

The other dimension of infrastructural challenge is on availability of materials for practical training, few equipment, and tools necessary for VET students to use. This is among the critical challenges that were mentioned almost by all respondents.

> *"Few working equipment and materials, tools (hammers, saw machines, hoes) equipment (microscopes, drawing sets,) and shortage of practical working areas forcing students to work in shifts" (Staff no.12).*

> *"Lack of tools and materials for students' practical sessions is a big challenge because they are inadequately supplied. This gives a hard time to teachers during practical training sessions" (Staff no.44).*

The other dimension is that equipment in schools are of low quality and outdated as compared to those found in the industry during field attachments. As a result, students fail to match the theoretical skills and practical skills learned in schools and practical required skills in the industry. The outdated equipment not only affect students but also trainers as they fail to constantly impart modern technology available in the industry to their students and prepare them well for the field attachment and world of work after graduation. Staff respondents said:

> *"Unavailability of modern equipment that may help students' understanding and well apprehends teaching, also unavailability of modern equipment makes tutors not to achieve the set targets" (Staff no.92).*

> *"Availability of equipment that are in pace with the changing technology is a big challenge because all of our equipment is old fashioned and not available in the industry" (Staff No.105).*

There was a suggestion by staff that the government should provide subsidies to private TVET (both VET and TET) colleges as it has done for the public ones to enable them to invest in buying relevant equipment and building infrastructure.

The quality of students enrolled in VET centres is another challenge mentioned by majority of staff. The performance of students at any level of education and training depends on the quality of students (inputs) enrolled at that particular level. It is the opinion of VET staff that classroom teaching and field attachment are affected by the poor quality of students enrolled in the VET system who are mostly standard seven leavers and junior secondary school leavers. Such students in VET find it difficult to comprehend what is being taught in class due to the low capacity to absorb what is being taught in class. On the other hand, teaching is largely in English and since all equipment's manuals and instructions are in English it becomes a big challenge for standard seven leavers to cope. This mostly affects the performance both for theory and for field attachments as stated by members of staff:

> *"Some students fail to comprehend what is being taught by the teachers because of their low aptitude and hence end up doing things that are different from what is expected. Also, some students are being forced by their parents or relatives to join technical and vocational training without their consent as such they are not psychologically prepared to capture what is being taught in class" (Staff no. 68).*
>
> *"Having students from different education backgrounds is a big challenge for trainers (standard seven and form four levers). At the end of the story as a trainer you are required to ensure that they all pass on the same rate and even higher than what is expected" (Staff no.104).*
>
> *"The main challenge is language, most of our students have problems of understanding and communicating in English at the same time we use English language for teaching" (Staff no.24).*

Capacity building for teachers and trainers was the third issue raised by staff as a precondition for strengthening attachment programmes in the VET system. Capacity building was mentioned as necessary to ensure that teachers/trainers and or tutors are constantly well equipped with knowledge about the changing technology in the industry and also to keep them abreast of the technology in the world of work. Three staff members stated that:

> *"Trainers should undergo training upgrades so that they could be familiarized with the new technology since at times it happens that*

the students tend to be smarter at technology than their trainers who are stuck with old technology" (Staff no.50).

"Different seminars need to be organized for teachers so that they may cope with science and technological advancements as this is among things that are likely to strengthen field attachments" (Staff no.64).

"Trainers need to be provided with refresher training to update their skills in line with science and technological advancement in the world to produce competent students" (Staff no.66).

Curriculum development was the fourth issue raised by staff. It was emphasized that the right curriculum is needed to ensure graduates from the VET system have the right skills, knowledge and attitudes needed for their transitioning from school to work. As such it is the opinion of staff that in order to impart the right knowledge, skills and attitudes specially to enable students to gain much on field practical training, curriculum needs to be flexible, in line with entry level of students and accommodative of emerging technologies. The following are some of the observations made by some staff:

"*We should develop curricula which are in line with the education level of students" (Staff no.22).*

"Curricula are frequently changed which is challenging. There must be a time frame for revising curricula". (Staff no.21).

"Teaching Curriculum should not be so restrictive. It needs to provide wider choice for students to learn many things" (Staff no.40).

"*The curriculum in each discipline needs to be flexible enough to accommodate those who are enrolled from different backgrounds, as all who are enrolled from standard seven and form four are compelled to use the same curriculum and those who are directly from standard seven get a lot of challenges to cope with the situation." (Staff no.70).*

On the other hand, there is a reasonable number of VET staff who while agreeing with their colleagues on curriculum development, have a different perspective over what should be done. These strictly suggest that VET minimum requirements for enrolment should be restricted to form four leavers and exclude standard seven leavers in order to ensure that students

keep pace with rapidly changing technology and can follow courses and read books and manuals in English. Below are some of the main arguments from this side:

> *"Students to be enrolled in vocational education and training colleges should be form four leavers and above and not standard seven leavers" (Staff no.83).*

> *"Improve entry qualifications for students we receive at least starting from form four because they can easily catch up with our teaching curriculum" (Staff no.101).*

> *"Let us put much emphasis on enrolment procedures for students for these colleges otherwise we are enrolling students who are not trainable and hence jeopardizing the quality of training" (Staff no.102).*

Table 27: Summarizes the Challenges Identified by Staff in the Area of Teaching.

Table 28: Staff Views on How to Improve the VET Programmes

Measures to improve TVET programmes	% Proportion of respondents
Admission should take into consideration ability of student to undergo the course	6.8
All VET Centres use the same syllabus	3.4
Examination should meet TVET standards	2.8
Government may provide grants to private TVET Centres	9.7
Increase the ratio of tutor per students	4.5
Increase time allocated for practical training	10.8
Increase working tools and materials	14.2
Provide short course training to tutors on new emerging technology	6.3
Strengthen existing working tools	11.4
Give incentive to tutors	11.9
Update syllabus to meet skills demanded in the labour market	9.7

Measures to improve TVET programmes	% Proportion of respondents
Others	8.5
Total	**100.0**

Source: calculated from students' survey

Already in 2019, the Minister of Education, Science and Technology announced in her 2019/2020 Budget Speech that curriculum offered in folk development colleges which are the lowest level of TVET will be offered in Kiswahili and will be revised to cover areas relevant to rural development especially, agriculture, forestry, fisheries and beekeeping. These measures will handle some of the challenges expressed by VET teachers.

6. 6. PRACTICAL TRAINING THROUGH FIELD ATTACHMENTS AND INTERNSHIPS

In delivering courses, TVET institutions at all levels are expected to use a combination of theoretical, practical courses and fieldwork. On balancing theoretical and practical approaches, half the VET students felt that there was a good balance between theory and practical training. However, 1 out of 5 (20 %) felt the training was too practical and about a third said they were too theoretical. Having half the group feel that the courses are either too practical or too theoretical may suggest a need to carry out a more comprehensive assessment of VET programs offered in the country. Practical training could be provided both in class and in places of work such as farms and firms.

However, placement for field attachment is another challenge expressed in different dimensions. Availability of space is among those dimensions. It was said that places for field attachment for VET students are very much limited as compared to the number of students. Hence some students do not get field practical attachment at all due to lack of places in the industry. This is because there are few enterprises ready to offer places for TVET students' field attachments while the majority of enterprises do not consider it necessary to take them up. This is a problem for both VET and TET institutions. Furthermore, since VET students are responsible field attachments costs, the distance from where they live or where the college is located and the respective industry for undertaking field attachment is very important. The further these industries are from the college or

centre, the more difficult it becomes for students to attend such field attachments. This is also a challenge for supervisors who are supposed to visit students during field attachments. When students are scattered during field attachments and very far from the college it becomes difficult for supervisors to visit and monitor their progress effectively. According to some members of staff:

> *"The distance from where students or the instructors live and the place where there are spaces for field practical contribute highly to poor attendance and performance of students in field practical". (Staff no.60).*

> *"The places where students are going for field practical are very far as such, they fail to meet the cost for travelling. This affects their attendance". (Staff no.4).*

These challenges lead to weaknesses within the system which reduce its capability to meet the minimum requirements of its teaching curriculum and the TVET qualifications framework. The national qualification framework presented earlier requires both VET and TET institutions to combine theoretical and practical training. In response, in the new strategy of VETA, it was specifically mentioned that through competence-based training, there will be a balance between practical and theoretical skills. Therefore, the key question was: how is the balance between theoretical and practical training maintained? During the study the VET staff interviewed indicated curriculum to be one of the challenges that are affecting the performance of students during field attachments. Time allocated for field practical training was not enough, and also the curriculum was out-dated as some of the issues being taught are of no use today in most industries.

Workload for staff and staff capacity of teachers to handle massive numbers of students enrolled in VET centres is another dimension of these challenges. As supported by the quantitative survey, the situation is particularly acute in Government owned VTCs where on average an instructor manages over 40 students at a time. This was corroborated in interviews that lamented the adverse effects of the uneven workload:

> *"Some teachers teach both theory and practical courses because of lack of technicians in our colleges. Hence it becomes difficult for teachers to assess these students" (Staff no.17).*

Financing is also a key challenge mentioned affecting both students and

teachers. Most students are unable to cover the costs associated with field practical training. The majority of teachers are unable to attend to all students during field attachment because of limited financial resources. One instructor said,

> *"There is lack of funds to enable staff to visit students while on field attachments such that students accomplish their field training without being visited by their instructors" (Staff no.23).*

And yet another said,

> *"The youth are challenged in meeting the required costs during field attachments because they are not paid, nor do they get any allowance such that they undergo a very difficult learning environment during field attachment and hence their progress drawback" (Staff no.3).*

The VET instructors were asked to give their opinions on what should be done to strengthen field attachments in the system. Most of them emphasized that teaching materials, tools, equipment and machinery are part and parcel of the system and therefore need to be provided to ensure VET graduates enter into the labour market with the right knowledge, skills and attitudes. Second, they expressed the need for aligning of tools, materials equipment and technology in the training system to those available and applicable in the world of work. This was underlined by a member of staff who said,

> *"There should be modern equipment which is in line with the current technology" (Staff no.21).*

Another one said that:

> *"Of all there should be enough equipment because this is the backbone of vocational and technical skills and what we have here are not enough, neither in line with the current technology. Also teaching materials need to be increased as what we have are not enough as well" (Staff no.14).*

And another one added that,

> *"Increasing the teaching equipment is very important, but something else is needed. For instance, in my department we have many computers, but all are out-dated such that you cannot install new applications. These computers are good for nothing" (Staff no.42).*

It is also advised that since technological advances have outpaced most of TVET colleges and centres especially private ones which might not have the financial resources to update their equipment all the time, there should be a way of facilitating collaboration between the VET centres and universities within the TET system. It was also advised to give government subsidies to privately owned TVET centres and colleges. This was expressed clearly thus,

> *"The majority of technical and vocational training colleges especially the privately-owned ones are small and lack tools, equipment and relevant machinery for practical training. However, there is a lot of equipment in universities and public TVET colleges. Students may be allowed to use them for practical trainings" (Staff no.4).*

In relation to time allocation, the proportion of time allocated by instructors for practical training as compared to time allocated for theoretical training may have significant effect on the quality of training and course delivery in general. Analysis shows that TVET centres generally spend more time on practical instructions than theory (Figure 9, below). Only 23 % of instructors use over 50 % of their teaching time for theoretical training while 78 % of instructors use less than 50 % of their teaching time for theoretical training.

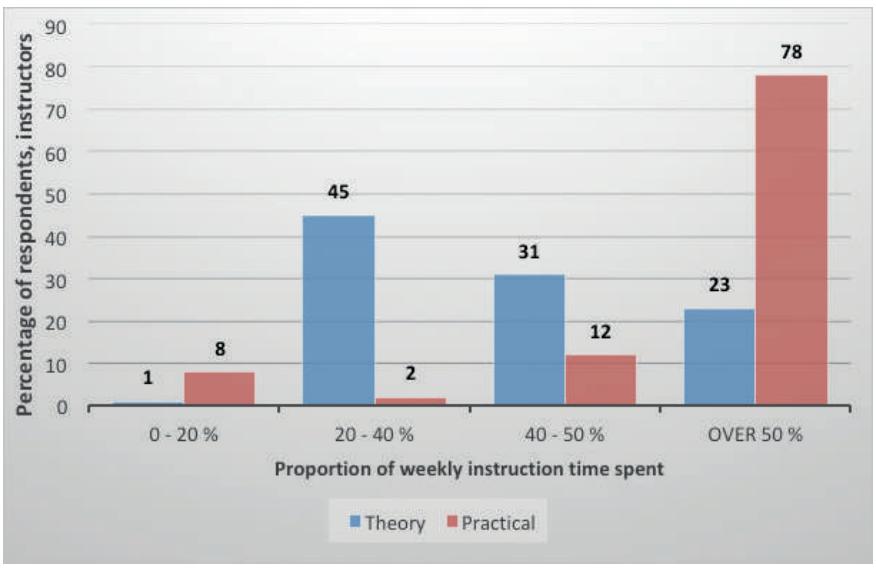

Figure 10: Proportion of time allocated as a percentage of total instruction time
Source: Computed from survey data

Another factor is the time spent by staff on core official activities and its direct impact on the quality of education and training delivery, performance of students, labour market competitiveness of VET graduates and their performance in place of work. During this study, assessment of staff allocation of their official working time between core activities of teaching, supervising, practical training, marking assessment and other activities was undertaken. The result shows that, generally members of staff work for an average of 7.6 hours daily for the five days of the week making an average of 38 hours a week (Table 28 below). This excludes work they perform on activities outside their centres such as preparation for classes. On the other hand, the distribution of time for key activities, the result shows that throughout the five working days of a week supervising practical activities is allocated more time by members of staff as compared to other activities.

On average, time spent for supervising practical activities is 2.4 hours a day which is 32 % of time spent per day followed by teaching 2.2 hours (29 %), other activities 1.9 hours (25 %) and marking students' assignments which takes on average 1.1 hours a day which is 14 % of all time. Allocation of more time for practical activities by staff is an indication of the importance of practical training for VET. Putting much emphasis on practical training increases the probability of graduate employability by facilitating a smooth transition from training to work provided of course the practical training is relevant to what is applicable in the world of work.

Table 29: Average Working Hours Spent at Work by Activity and Days in a Week

Activity	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Total	Average	%
Teaching	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.0	1.9	11.0	2.2	29
Supervising practical activities	2.3	2.2	2.5	2.6	2.4	12.1	2.4	32
Marking & assessments	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.2	5.3	1.1	14
Others	2.0	1.9	1.7	2.3	1.7	9.5	1.9	25
Total	**7.5**	**7.5**	**7.7**	**8.0**	**7.2**	**37.9**	**7.6**	**100**

Source: Computed from survey data

Fieldwork is one of the important aspects for TVET system. Its high degree

of alignment to industrial skills requirements such as field attachment becomes an important aspect of teaching and learning. More than a half of the employers (57 %) offer attachment to VET students while 43 % of employers do not provide attachment at all (see Figure 10). Most of the employers that have VET graduates on attachment specified that it is in their company employment policy to provide attachment to students while a few of them said VETA must pay the company for their students to be attached.

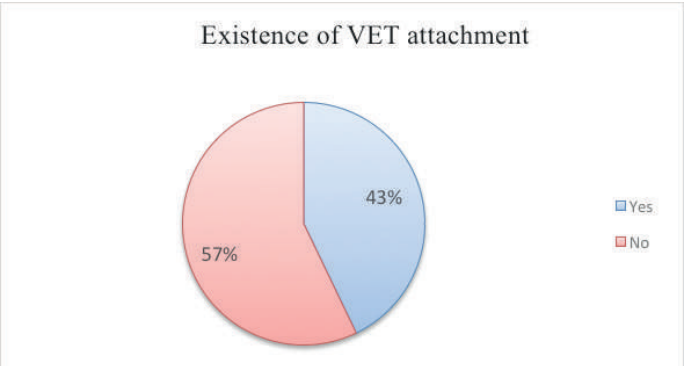

Figure 11: Existence of VET students' attachment
Source: Fieldwork data, 2018

The number of years that surveyed companies have been in existence ranged from less than one to eighty-two years. Of relevance to this study, is the fact that the age of a company is positively associated with the employment capacity of the company (see also Lauglo, 1990) as well as existence of TVET attachment which in general reflects the demand for labour by a company. Indeed, the relationship between the age of company and the number of employees seem to be positive albeit moderate such that, as the years of existence increase, the number of employees moderately increases as well (Figure 11, below). Perhaps this could be the result of an increase in activities as the companies expand year after year.

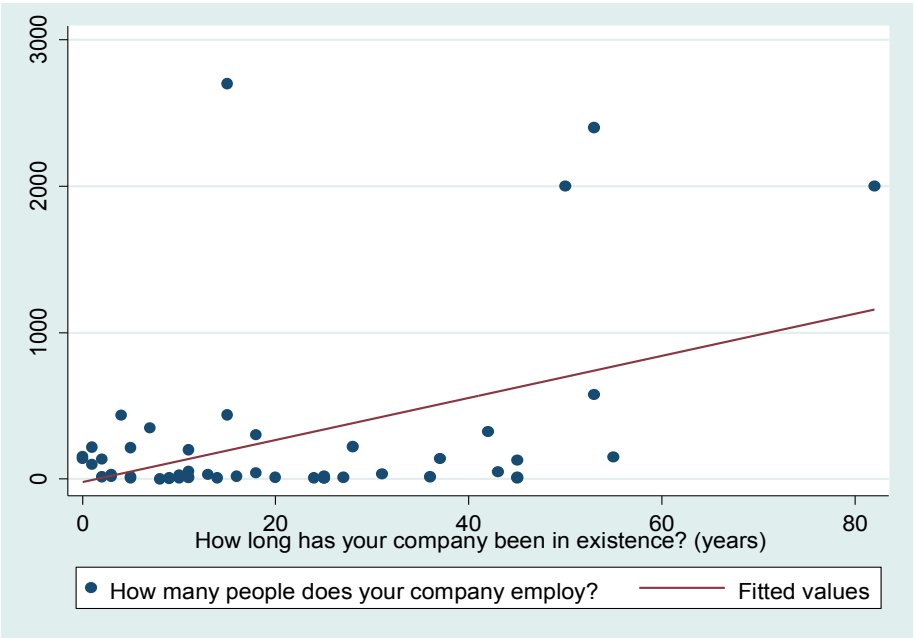

Figure 12: Link between company years of existence and human RESOURCE CAPACITY

Source: Fieldwork data, 2018

It was also noted that the type of employer has a bearing on the probability that a company can invest in employees' Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes (KSAs). There are two types of employers that were identified in this study namely: state-owned and private enterprises. Our sample had 10 (20 %) enterprises owned by the state and 39 (80 %) private companies (sole proprietors, partnerships, corporations and limited liability companies). Correlation analysis reveals a positive and significant association between the type of ownership and the existence of VET attachment such that, VET students are slightly more likely to find attachment in privately owned companies in absolute numbers, but more private companies shun away from VET students (Figure 12). The results could be explained by the fact that 80 % of sampled companies are private and thus having more attachments (in absolute terms) than state-owned companies should not come as a surprise.

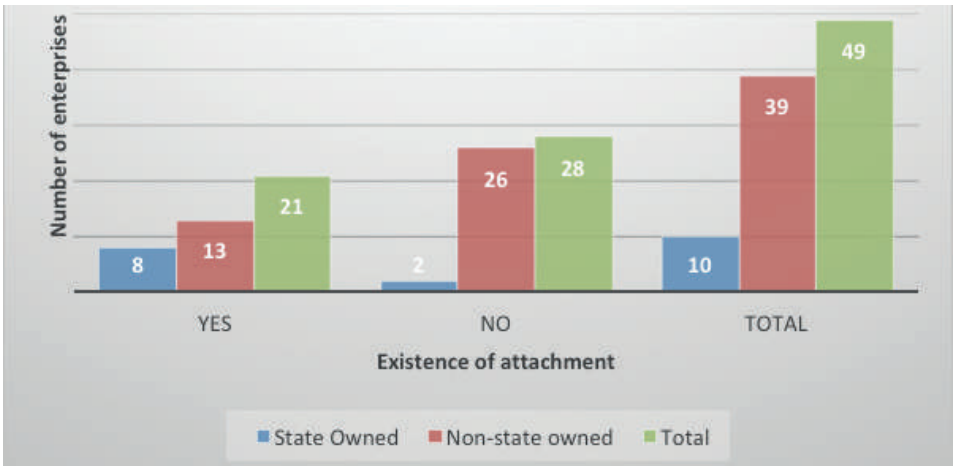

Figure 13: Type of ownership and existence of VET attachments

Source: Fieldwork data, 2018

Further analysis using a Generalised Least Squares (GLS) logistic regression model was employed to investigate factors that determine existence of TVET attachment in different companies. To do so, we applied a logit such that:

The dependent variable for this particular analysis is the existence of attachment that is, whether there exist VET attachment or otherwise;

$$Prob[Y_i=1] = F$$

Where;

$\mathbf{Y_i}$ is the dependent variable which is the probability that TVET attachment exists in organization i ($Y_i = 1$ if students are attached, otherwise $Y_i = 0$),

F is the logistic cumulative distribution function,

$\mathbf{X_i}$ represents the vector of explanatory variables included in the equation. These are the age of a company, number of employees, linkage/support from the government, quality of VET graduates, education qualifications and type of ownership. β represents the vector of coefficients.

The results are depicted in Table 29.

Table 30: Existence of Attachment and Its Determining Factors

VARIABLES	Existence of attachment
Length of existence	0.0707
	(0.0467)
Number of employees	-0.00469
	(0.0231)
VET quality	-0.743
	(1.694)
University qualifications	-0.0188
	(0.0300)
VET qualifications	0.0851*
	(0.0442)
FDC qualifications	0.114
	(0.401)
Other qualifications	0.00514
	(0.0232)
Government support	0.0553
	(1.708)
Type of ownership	-2.030
	(1.794)
Constant	-1.536
	(2.267)

Standard errors in parentheses

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1, N = 49

Source: Fieldwork data, 2018

This analysis indicated that of all the four types of education qualifications, only VET education qualifications have shown a significant effect in determining whether students may be attached or not. In other words, possessing VET qualifications increase the possibility of being attached in the companies as compared to other types of education.

Furthermore, the number of employees has a negative effect on the probability of finding an attachment in an organization such that, for every increase in the number of employees there is low likelihood of VET graduates to be attached in an organization and this effect is not significant. This could be due to the reason that employers may already have enough contracted employees that can take up the activities in the company and find no necessity to VET students to supplement their existing employees.

In relation to type of ownership, the type of ownership has revealed a negative effect in determining the probability of finding an attachment in different companies, which means that there is a low probability of finding an attachment in non-state owned relatively to state owned companies. This incident holds true as most of the enterprises that have VET students on attachment are state owned as compared to non-state owned.

The age of a company was also one of the tested factors, the results revealed that as the age of a company increases, the probability of VET graduates to find an attachment also increases by 0.07 but then again, this effect is not statistically significant. About quality of VET graduates, a unit increase (from low to high) in the quality of graduates from VET decreases the likelihood of being attached in the companies by 0.743. This effect is not statistically significant. The survey also covered the aspects of supervision of students on attachment by staff.

Further observation raised a few other issues for which there was no direct evidence. Willingness of public and private enterprise officials to accept interns or apprentices is limited because of secrecy within organizations. Most institutions have their own internal practices and cultures and in order for them to allow outsiders to access them there is need for trust. Trust cannot be established over a short period of time. If attachments were being organized systematically with the same students being attached to the same organizations over the whole period of learning, we believe organizations whether private or public would be more open to accept or train interns. The way attachments are organized employers have no choice over which students to admit and train and they have no certainty that these students can be trusted with official secrets because they see them as outsiders.

6. 7. SUPERVISION AND ASSESSMENT OF STUDENTS DURING FIELD ATTACHMENT

VET instructors visit students who are doing fieldwork attachments to monitor and assess their learning progress. This is part and parcel of staff activities and training curriculum. Visiting students during field practical attachment enables the instructors to physically assess whether students can translate theory learned in class into the real products or services at workplaces. During a typical visit, the supervisor looks for certain attributes from students that testify whether they have gained the required KSAs. Supervisors look for ability of students to do their work; quality of work done; cooperation between students and their field supervisors and between students themselves.

Other issues mentioned include looking at the attendance register; students' creativities; logbooks; new ideas and technology learned; attitudes of students on safety at work and how attentive they are in doing their work. It also shows the closeness between staff/instructors and students while attending field attachment.

This study also assessed the frequency of visits by VET staff to their students during field practical attachments. The results show that almost 31 % of staff visit their students during field attachment once a week, while 29 % do visit their students once a month (Figure 13). It is however surprising that a considerable number (4 %) of staff never visited their students when they were on field attachment.

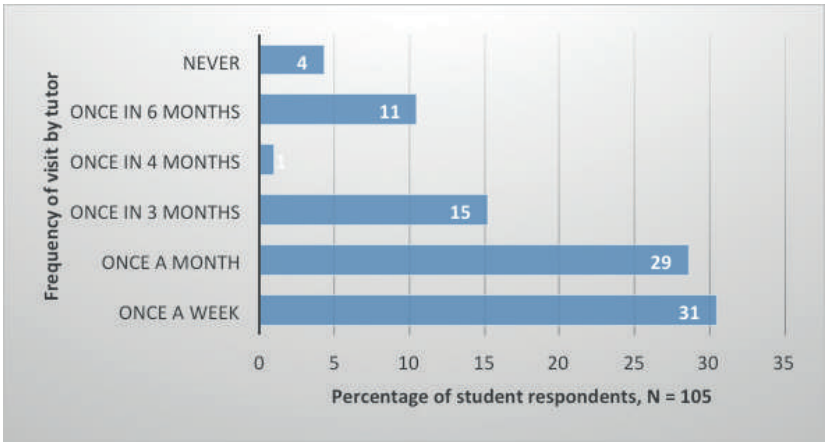

Figure 14: Incidence of Field Attachment Student Visits by VET Staff
Source: Fieldwork data, 2018

While on filed attachment, students are assessed on their ability to apply skills acquired both in class and during the attachment and whether they are gaining the right knowledge, skills and attitudes to enhance the required labour market competence. According to one trainer the assessment is on,

> *"The ability to do the respective job task, how quickly the student understands and performs the job, getting along with others in the place of work, handling of equipment for field works provided, job discipline' (Staff No.55).*

> *"I look at how he/she performs tasks using equipment found in the workplace" (Staff No.16).*

How a student gets along with others including supervisors and fellow students in the workplace is very important and it is assessed by the supervisors during their typical visits. It measures whether this individual has the right attitude and work ethics to undertake a given task in a team. Teamwork is very important in the performance of an individual and the organization

> *"We look at student's cooperation with fellow students and their supervisors." (Staff no.45)*

Monitoring what students undertake during field attachment is an important task for staff. The key Knowledge, Skills and Attitude (KSA) indicators used by instructors to assess field attachments is indicated in Table 30. There are different ways which staffs use to monitor what students learn during field attachments. The most important ways used include assigning practical work to students after completing field attachment; asking questions to each individual student; getting feedback from field attachment supervisors; looking at field attachment reports; looking at the logbooks and monitoring students' discipline when undertaking field attachments.

Table 31: Areas of Focus During Fieldwork Attachment Visits

Areas assessed during field visits	Percentage
• Ability of doing work	13
• Attendance register	8
• Challenge faced and ways of tackling	9
• Cooperation between students themselves/ students and their supervisor/staff	11

Areas assessed during field visits	Percentage
• Creativity of student	8
• Logbook	6
• New ideas/technology learned	8
• Safety at workplace	8
• Student attitude	10
• Quality of work performed by student	13
• Level of attention to details by student	7
Total	**100**

Source: Fieldwork data, 2018

The instructors emphasized that assigning practical work to students after completing field attachment is the most important way used by VET staff to assess what students learned. This is generally done after students have completed their field attachments. Instructors design and distribute practical assignments to groups which comprise of a given number of students. This is because the number of instructors is limited in terms of numbers making it difficult for them to visit all students during practical attachment. Thus, distributing students into groups becomes an important procedure to assess what they have learned during field attachment. Some instructors said,

> *"I have to distribute them in groups, starting with bigger groups, which I keep on making smaller and smaller, and then I give assignments and assess the performance of each individual in the group" (Staff No 20).*

> *"I distribute the students into small groups and then I give some examples and then ask them to do it in their groups, thereafter I pass through to assess whether they have understood" (Staff No.4).*

Assigning practical work is also done to individual students as a means of strengthening the capacity, understanding and comprehension of what each individual learned during field attachment though this is done only when there are few students and tools and materials for field practical are sufficient.

> *"For my subject, I am obliged to visit every single student one after the other, we sit together and see what each one is doing, to instruct them on how to do it better. But also, occasionally I divide them into*

small groups, wherever it is not possible to visit each student, as a way to give them an opportunity to assist each other" (Staff No.47).

"I give each student a practical assignment so that I can know his/her strength and weakness" (Staff No.99).

"I give them assignments; I visit every student to assist when there is a problem" (Staff No.103).

These are measures aimed at ensuring instructors get a proper view of what students learnt from the field attachment.

The instructors were also requested to give their opinions on any challenges they know that face students during field attachments. Three main challenges were mentioned by most of members of staff in different ways. The first is related to high technological differences between the industry where students attend field attachment and those available in training system. To the large extent whatever is taught ought to have direct linkage with the industry or it must enhance employability of graduates. However, the technological disparity between machinery and technology used by VETA centres in training and those used in the industry and labour was identified by staff as a challenge. One member of staff observed that:

"We found a very big difference between machines we use in our centres and those found in the industry to the extent that even tutors need to be oriented to the use of such machines and equipment" (Staff No.70).

It was also mentioned that, some of the students become reluctant in learning new technologies while attending field trainings.

Another challenge mentioned by the staff that affects students in their field attachment is the shortage of equipment and tools in some workplaces where students are attached. This makes students unable to learn any new skills and as such field attachment becomes of limited value to them. The third challenge mentioned by many staff that hinders performance and or attendance of students is unavailability of subsistence allowance to students, which makes it difficult for majority of them to engage fully and or concentrate on their work during field attachment.

Other challenges mentioned by staff include some students having low capacity to comprehend English language, and the syllabus not providing enough time for fieldwork. Table 31 indicates major challenges to the

achievement of competence-based training with filed attachment as an important component.

Interviewed staff outlined some way forward to address the aforementioned challenges and strengthen field training attachment activities for VET students and subsequently enhance alignment of VET education with the requirements of the labour market. The majority of staff proposed the following points as way forward towards improving field attachment:

(i) Improving tools, equipment and machinery used for practical training in VET centres so as to be in line with those available in the industry. VET centres need to align their technology with the industry;
(ii) Ensuring that sponsors of students include in their package a sum to be provided as subsistence allowance to students during field work to ensure that they fully participate in field attachments.
(iii) Mobilizing all workplaces to offer opportunities for VET students to undertake field attachment in their premises; and
(iv) Ensuring all VET centres use the same syllabus.

Table 32: Challenges facing VETA centres in transferring knowledge, skills and attitudes (KSAs)

Challenge	Percentage of respondents
• Absenteeism	4
• English language barrier	8
• High technology machine/working tools compared to those practiced at VETA Centres	11
• Late submission of application for field attachment letters	3
• Long distance from their resident to workplace	5
• Poverty among students/ Unavailability of subsistence allowance	10
• Safety policy does not practice at workplace	5
• Sex harassment to females	4
• Shortage of working tools and materials	15

Challenge	Percentage of respondents
• Some students are reluctant to learn new technology/ideas	8
• Some students have low capacity of understand	8
• Syllabus do not provide enough time for field; it is too short	9
• Unavailability of workplace for field	5
• Others	7
Total	**100**

Source: Fieldwork data, 2018

6. 8. LESSONS FROM VIEWS OF STUDENTS AND TRAINERS ON TEACHING AND LEARNING EFFECTIVENESS

As mentioned earlier the Skills and Development Levy (SDL) is one of the sources of funds. The contributions of employers are collected by the Tanzania Revenue Authority (TRA) (Tanzania Revenue Authority, 2018; United Republic of Tanzania, 1994, 2006). This is one of the efforts of the government to ensure that trainees have the right and relevant skills in the fast-changing labour market. However, despite these reforms, there is still general agreement that the policies and laws passed lack tangible incentives for employers to recruit and train youths that lack experience and face transition challenges (Mihyo 2015). It is also felt that there are no explicit education and training policies focused on increasing employable skills including transferable and soft skills (Semboja, 2007) and that new labour regulatory institutions are targeting employers such as investors but have not been oriented towards creating conditions for skills as a source of comparative and competitive advantage (Haji, 2015). The new legal and policy frameworks seem to have attracted more investors in the extractives industry where most employment opportunities have been in low skill jobs. In the banking sector for example, new investors have expressed difficulties getting young professionals with the appropriate skills (Kijaji 2014, p.204).

Transition challenges seem to continue to date with the majority of them taking more than three years before securing decent jobs related to their qualifications, and over 48% of university graduates have been found to work as volunteers or interns in the hope of securing jobs which have

remained elusive (Massawe 2014). This is compounded by the lack of awareness about existing policies among graduates. The study by Massawe further assertss that 52.5% of graduates interviewed were unaware of the existence of the Youth Employment Creation Programme (Massawe 2014, pp. 174-5). It is due to these reasons that our study was undertaken with a primary objective of finding out what factors influence the capacity of VET institutions to equip their graduates in general and the youth in particular to acquire competencies and skills that enable them to overcome the challenges of their transition from training to work. Despite all these efforts by the government to improve skills it remains to be seen whether the VET has reduced the mismatch between skills the youth possess and skills the employers demand in the labour market within Tanzania. It is in this context that this study set out to stimulate some basic discussions examining the role of VET in reducing the mismatch between graduates' skills and skills needed by employers. The next chapter goes deeper into other factors apart from teaching and learning which influence the transition of VET graduates from training to work.

CHAPTER 7
FACTORS INFLUENCING THE TRANSITION OF YOUTH FROM TRAINING TO EMPLOYMENT

Jamal Msami, Donald Mmari & Joseph Nganga

7.1 ASPIRATIONS OF YOUTH AFTER TRAINING

It is not uncommon for graduates of all levels of education to experience a long transition period between completions of their studies and securing the job, be it self-employment or wage employment. Young people pursue education and training to help realise their ambitions and life goals (Datzberger, 2018; World Bank, 2018). It is important to note that while knowledge and skills are necessary for creating human capital, they alone are not sufficient. Therefore, preparing the youth to have the right attitude or mindsets towards employment and successful career development is equally important. In chapter 3 we alluded to the culture shock that youth experience after spending a lot of time in learning institutions that are somehow disconnected with their surrouding communities. They tend to develop aspirations that are not in line with the realities in their future world of work or life in general. This is partly reflected by what the interviewed youth aspire for in life. One-third of the VET students interviewed (34 %) said that their most important goal in their life is being successful at work; 17 % want to contribute to society, 14 % hope to build their self-esteem and confidence, respectively, as the most important goal in their life (Figure 14). From this breakdown it is clear that success in life, self-esteem and confidence ranked highly in their expectations. This arises from what they see as indicators of success or esteem when as we saw earlier, they compare themselves with those already successful in society.

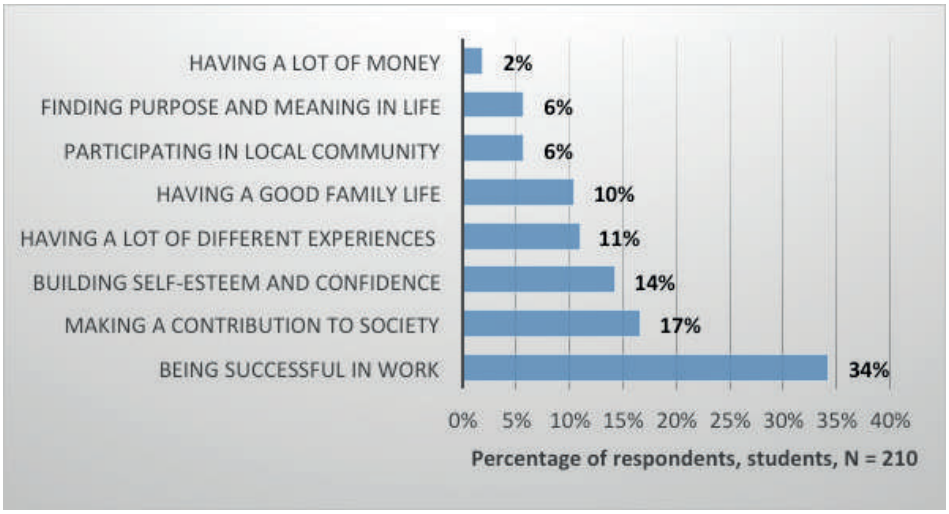

Figure 15: Factors Spelt Out As Most Important In the VET Graduates' Lives
Source: Fieldwork data, 2018

Most young people perceive employment in the private sector to offer better prospects for future success and self – esteem (Chari *et al.*, 2017; Loprest *et al.*, 2019). In chapter 4 it was shown that the welfare benefits such as rations are higher in the private sector than in the public sector. In addition, private sector activities are more dynamic because it plays host to two of the fastest growing sectors of the economy, manufacturing, and IT. Therefore, it provides more challenging tasks and opportunities for learning to the youth. It is also noticeable that some of the youth view self-employment as a probable avenue to success and self-esteem given the incomes in the main sectors of formal employment. As observed by Fox (2016) and Haji and Morisset (2017), the unequeal sharing of benefits from Tanzania's recent economic growth have increased the cost of being unemployed and lowered the entry costs of informality. This has gravitated the youth towards valuing self-employment including working in the informal sector especially in activities outside 'traditional' agriculture as unemployment remains a "luxury" (Fox, 2016, p. i3) they can ill afford. This is in spite of the fact that wages in that sector are lower than in the public sector as was shown in Chapter 4.

When asked *what type of work would you prefer after completing school?* 42 % of our respondents said they wanted to start their own business, 23 % wanted to work for a multinational corporation, private company or a non-government organization, and 28 % preferred to work for the government

(Figure 8). The aspirations of the youth confirm the findings by researchers such as Mike Dockery (2010) discussed earlier in chapter 3 that through the education system, most youth develop expectations for high incomes and decent lifestyles. Given the comparatively low levels of wages in both the private and public sectors that we saw in chapter 4, most youth aspire to start their own businesses because self-employment is seen to have better prospects for higher income than wage employment. With the growing drive of the youth to start up their own business, it is important that the knowledge and skills they receive from our learning institutions including the VET centres are tailored towards building entrepreneurial skills.

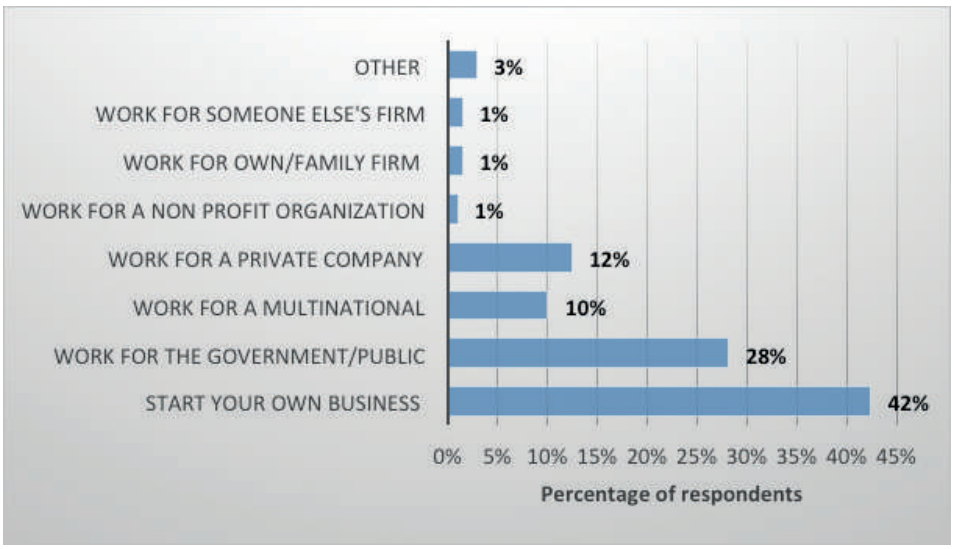

Figure 16: Type of Work Preferred After Completing Current Education
Source: Fieldwork data, 2018

The length of learning periods also impacts on the expectations of learners as was argued in chapter 3. The longer students take in their courses, the higher their expectations become. Therefore, those who continue to further their education after compulsory schooling tend to develop a feeling that they must necessarily get a relatively higher advantage in the competitive job market. According to the human capital theory education is a key determinant in enhancing a person's skills for higher productivity in the workplace, which in turn will bring a higher wage to the person. However, there is the factor of over–education which crops in as they go higher especially if they fall into the trap of horizontal mismatch which as we saw earlier in the work of Caroleo and Pastore (2015). This arises when the level of schooling may be right, but the type of schooling is not. Many

trainers and job seekers are not necessarily aware of this possibility and when graduates are looking for jobs, they are guided more by their own expectations rather than any possible considerations related to vertical or horizontal mismatches. Some students believe that the employers recognize the strength of courses offered by national institutions be they universities or TVET institutions such as VETA irrespective of the relevance of their courses. For example, in a study by Mulongo, Kitururu and Irira (2013) in which VETA graduates were interviewed in Arusha, Dar Es Salaam and Mwanza, most of them indicated that they opted for VETA courses because they were recognized by government and other employers. They also said they believed VETA offered courses that open up opportunities for employment and entrepreneurship and such opportunities have a high potential for good income. Those unemployed believed it was because there were not enough enterprises or jobs although the skills were right.

One of the unemployed graduates interviewed said:

> *''The government should create employment opportunities for youth and invest for their benefit by encouraging the existence of enough industries that will create more employment opportunities for young people and eliminate unemployment in Tanzania. Notwithstanding, investors should also be given support to invest in the country and monitored to employ qualified Tanzanians" (Graduate no 67).*

Such perceptions create expectations which affect choice of jobs by VETA jobseekers. Nevertheless, due to a high rate of youth unemployment, most of them accept jobs offered but some refuse to take jobs offered and opt to keep on searching for those which meet their expectations. Thus, in the survey results in Figure 16, out of 210 graduate respondents, an overwhelming 88 % have not refused a job offer, while 12 % had refused a job offered to them, and of them, 42 % refused a job because the wages offered were too low while 58 % had other reasons. However, the high rate of acceptance of jobs offered may be due to the scarcity of jobs on the labour market or it may be evidence that VETA skills help job seekers to get jobs that meet their expectations.

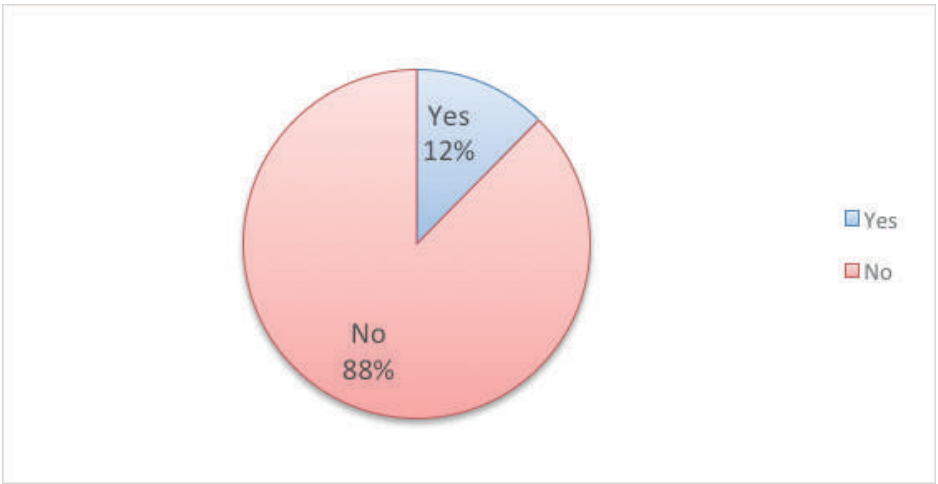

Figure 17: If refused a job offer
Source: Fieldwork data, 2018, students survey, N = 210

As shown in Figure 16 among the small group of those who had refused employment offers, the majority indicated that the wages offered did not meet their expectations (42 %) while another 15 % indicated the jobs offered were not interesting, meaning again they did not meet their expectations. A good percentage indicated other reasons. More than two fifths of the graduate respondents (42 %) said that they would be more likely to accept a job only if it is stable, well paying and appropriate to their level of qualification. This may suggest that job stability, decent pay and the suitability of the position are the main determinants for graduate job seekers. The responses also confirm the arguments made in chapter 3 that while undergoing training the trainees develop their own perceptions of what they deserve as wages and benefits given their level of education. These expectations do not match what is available in the job market given levels of productivity and other costs employers take into consideration when recruiting new employees. The responses to the questions on what factors VET graduates would consider in accepting a job offered are shown in Figure 17.

Findings suggest that 2 out of 5 TVET students (42 %) are more likely to accept a job only if it is stable, well paid, and appropriate (Figure 17).

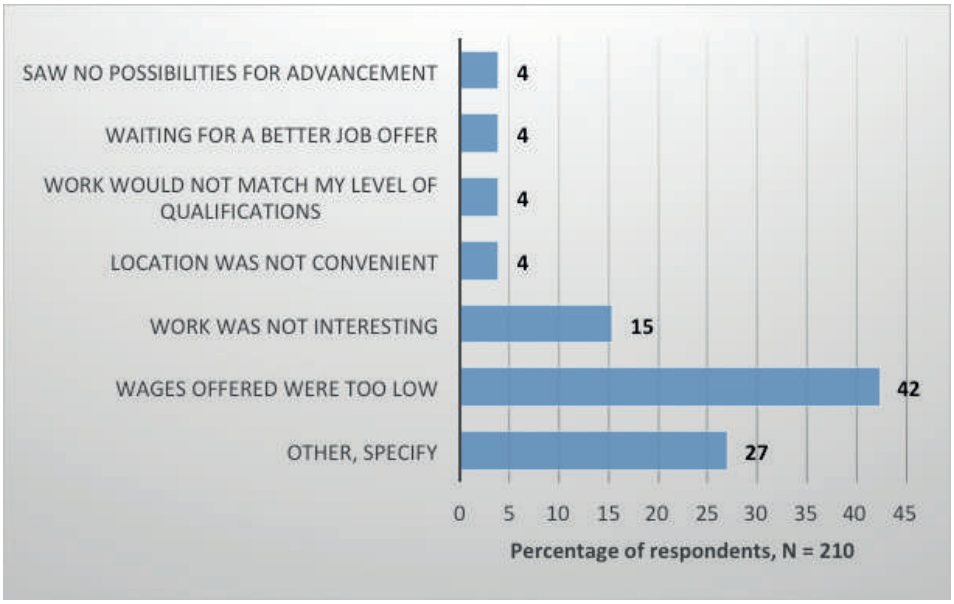

Figure 18: Reason for Refusing a Job Offer
Source: *Fieldwork data, 2018, students survey, N = 210*

Overall, job stability, decent pay and the suitability of the position are the main considerations for most graduate job seekers. This in a way confirms the arguments made in chapter 3 that those who pick and choose which jobs to accept or not accept either have fall-back positions based on the extended family welfare systems or are victims of the expectations created by systems of education which prepare them for higher wages than those available in the labour market. It is also possible that they are victims of family and community expectations which link certain levels of education with higher wages and higher status in society. It could be also because of lack of proper counselling for students while on training about the real situation in the labour market.

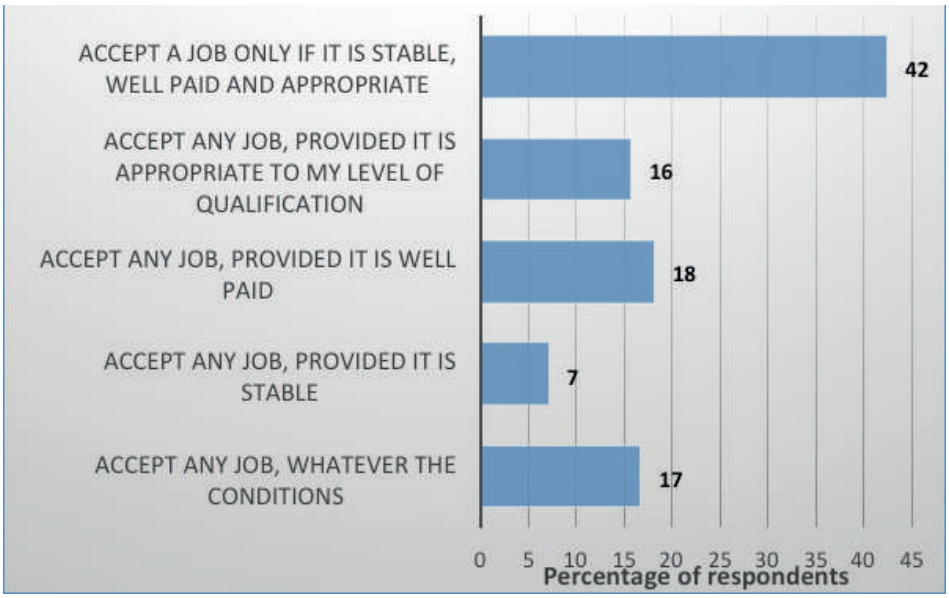

Figure 19: Summary of Factors Shaping Choice of Jobs by VET Graduates
Source: Fieldwork data, 2018, students survey, N = 210

7.2. JOB SEARCH AND DURATION OF THE TRANSITION

The period of transition from school to work is not a phenomenon on which to draw any quick generalizations. Data on Table 32 shows that on average male graduates are three times as likely as their female counterparts to secure a job within a month of graduating. At the other end of the scale, male graduates are also four times as likely as female graduates to remain unemployed for a period exceeding two years of graduation.

Table 33: Time Taken by TVET Graduates to Secure Jobs After Graduation

Time taken to secure job	Male %	Female %	Total %
Less than a month	21	7	29
Less than a year	21	17	38
Between 1 and 2 Years	11	8	19
More than 2 years	9	2	11
Other, specify	1	1	3
Total	**64**	**36**	**100**

Source: Fieldwork data, 2018, students survey, N = 210

Overall, many VET graduates reported experiencing a relatively prolonged job search before securing a job. These findings show that among those currently employed, over half (52 %) were unemployed before their current employment status, supporting the argument that youth transition to employment after graduation is still a challenge to most of graduates including those from VET centres.

The employability of VET graduates depends on many factors apart from their competencies and skills. One of them is labour market information systems which indicate institutions requiring certain levels of skills are very important. For many graduates located in rural areas this could be a challenge because not all jobs are advertised in the media. Similarly, entry into self-employment depends on location. Those in urban areas can easily set up their own enterprises in informal sector complexes utilizing economies of scale. A recent assessment of the employment patterns of VCT graduates indicates that an equal number of VETA graduates are in employment and self-employment with most of those self-employed located in urban and sub-urban areas (Ntalima, 2014).

The survey as shown in Table 33 indicated that about 67 % of graduate respondents were employed, while 33 % were not employed. Of those employed, over half (52 %) were unemployed before their current employment status. The data tallies with the VETA tracer study of 2018 which indicated that over 65 % of the graduates were getting employed (VETA, 2018).

Table 34: Percentage of VET Graduates Employed by Sex

Employment Status	Male	Female	Total
Yes	43	24	67
No	18	16	33
Total	61	40	100

Source: Fieldwork data, 2018, graduates survey, N = 210

Higher unemployment among female VET graduates can be explained by the adverse influence of culture on household decisions when it comes to whether to invest in the education of boys or girls and the preference for boys (Ntalima, 2014). Marital status has also been noted because it influences decisions of female job seekers and their spouses as to whether a married woman should be employed, where and in what type of jobs. Furthermore, according to Ntalima (2014) some employers prefer younger

workers generally and single girls or married young women without children. This may be reflective of stereotypes based on assumptions that married women may tend to be more committed to household activities than to employer's activities.

As indicated earlier, we need to go beyond the conventional discourse about mismatch between employment and skills and extend it to mismatch between expectations of employers and those of job seekers. In some cases, prolonged job search occurs not because of a mismatch between skills and available jobs but a mismatch between what job seekers expect in terms of compensation and packages offered by employers. In the next sub-section compensation and incentives are assessed as possible factors causing this mismatch.

7.3. COMPENSATION PACKAGES AND INCENTIVES FOR VET GRADUATES

Most graduates in employment have contractual agreements with their employers. The analysis indicated that most of them worked based on written contracts (74 %) while 25 % of them were on short term or unwritten contracts (Table 34).

Table 35: Type of Employment Agreement Offered to VET Graduates

Type of employment agreement	Percentage
Written, indefinite contract & permanent	35
Type of employment agreement	**Percentage**
Written contract; accepts work daily/weekly/monthly	39
Only for this work assignment	1
Special contr1act as an apprentice	2
Verbal agreement	22
Unwritten contract	1
Total	**100**

***Source**:* Fieldwork data, 2018, graduates survey, N = 140

In the contract, the job compensation and benefits are stated. When asked about their monthly salary range, four fifths of the employed respondents (80 %) indicated they earn a monthly salary of TZS 500,000 or less, which they **consider** not adequate for their basic needs. Their responses are summarized in Table 35.

Table 36: Salary Range of Interviewed Graduates by Sex

What is your monthly salary range?	Percentage		
	Male	**Female**	**Both sexes**
Less than 100,000	4	2	6
Between 100,001 - 150,000	9	4	13
Between 150,001 - 200,000	14	12	26
Between 200,001 - 500,000	28	8	36
Between 500,001-1000,000	9	9	18
More than 1000,001	1	1	1
Total	**64**	**36**	**100**

Source: Field survey data

As we saw in Chapter 4, wages of most employees in the private sector fall within this range of below TZS 500,000. Among low-paying jobs, there is a big discrepancy between salaries of male graduates and those of females although this should also be related to the number of employees in each category. But as can be seen from Table 35 in the income brackets of Tanzanian shillings 500,000 and 1,000,000 and above, there is parity and equality. This is more reflective of reward system which pays more for more skills.

In response to the question whether their posts correspond to their qualifications half of the employed respondents said they do not believe that their positions and salaries fairly reflect their qualifications. A further analysis was carried out to illustrate whether there was a pay gap between VET and non-VET graduates. Employers revealed that VET graduates are paid low wages, which suggests that the level of vocational education and training is viewed as being low. This may be due to the negative public perceptions of VET and lack of knowledge about the content of its courses. It is not refutable that due to lack of clarity and proper marketing, the majority in Tanzania's society still perceive VET qualifications as of low professional status and this also contributes to the low evaluation of VET graduates as less professional and allocating them lower salaries. But it may also be a real reflection of the vertical and horizontal mismatches discussed in chapter 4. Some employers believe that even VET graduates themselves regard their qualifications as inferior to those of graduates from TET institutions or universities in general. This was reflected in the views of one employer who claimed that VET graduates:

> *"Perceive themselves to be inferior to university graduates even in areas they are more competent than those degree holders" (Employer No.01).*

Since VET graduates are part of the society, they also regard the status of VET qualification as low compared to other qualifications, but they are more skilful than non-VET graduates. One employer concretized this argument by stressing the need:

> *"To sensitize parents to send their children to vocational education and training programmes to enhance their talents. The parents still struggle to send their children to general education programmes while they know their children have a certain talent/ interest, but they still do not prefer VET programmes" (Employer No.24).*

The view that VET qualifications are of low professional status poses a challenge of improving human capital as people pursue some studies against their wishes and preferences. In addition, it raises the issue of horizontal mismatch between skills and job requirements which according to Caroleo and Pastore (2015) discussed in chapter 4, occurs when the level of schooling is appropriate, but the type is not.

VET within the national TVET Qualification Framework covers levels 1 to 3 which is acceptable to employers and the government. However, the assessment by some employers as shown above is that the skill content falls below the requirements of the jobs in the market. Therefore, this horizontal mismatch is something to recognize and it simply arises from what we have referred to as curriculum capture. We define 'curriculum capture' as a state in which teaching, and learning are shackled by curriculum that remains unchanged for some time failing to accommodate technical and technological changes taking place in the world of work. It appears that the quality of VET curriculum and corresponding facilities also influences the quality of VET graduates as was pointed out by teachers who were interviewed.

Furthermore, work incentives are important to motivate employees to deliver quality outputs. More detailed questions on benefits accruing to them indicated that only 29 % had entitlement to housing allowance and only 24% were entitled to sick pay while 48 % did not have medical insurance (Table 36). Denial of sick pay and lack of health insurance are in contravention of the labour laws. However, labour market liberalization has

been mistaken by some employers to mean total relaxation of regulations related to social security, health and safety which is not the case. While, it was not the intention of the study to pry into the causes of these violations, we found the acceptance of unprotected work as evidence of readiness by those unemployed and lacking support from alternative social systems to accept vulnerable jobs even in the formal sector. These findings further highlight the scale of lax supervision of labour laws in the country that creates perverse incentives for some employers (ILO, 2010; Vuckovic *et al.*, 2017).

Table 37: Responses of Employed VET Graduates on Their Employment Benefits

Type of benefit reported by interviewees	Percentage of graduate respondents	
	No	**Yes**
Housing allowance	71	29
Medical insurance	52	48
Sick pay	76	24
Meals pay	44	56
Educational assistance	86	14
Annual leave with pay	67	33
Use of company car	74	26
Maternity/paternity leave	61	39
Medical benefit for retired employees	76	24
Extra time worked	56	44
Other Payment	84	16

Source: Fieldwork data, 2018, graduates survey, N = 140

Other fringe benefits that some respondents mentioned include incentives in a form of goods, protective gears for workers, holiday allowance, performance bonuses as they reach targets, short term training, communication allowance, responsibility allowance and transport allowance. These are some of the welfare benefits common in the private sector which attract the youth in spite of the lower average wages in that sector as seen in Chapter 4.

As job satisfaction is critical for good productivity, the findings suggest that most graduates of VET who are employed are happy or satisfied with their jobs. The assumption arising from this is that the jobs are related to their skills and they get job satisfaction out of them. The results indicated that almost three quarters (73 %) of the respondents are either "truly happy or satisfied" with their jobs (Figure 19).

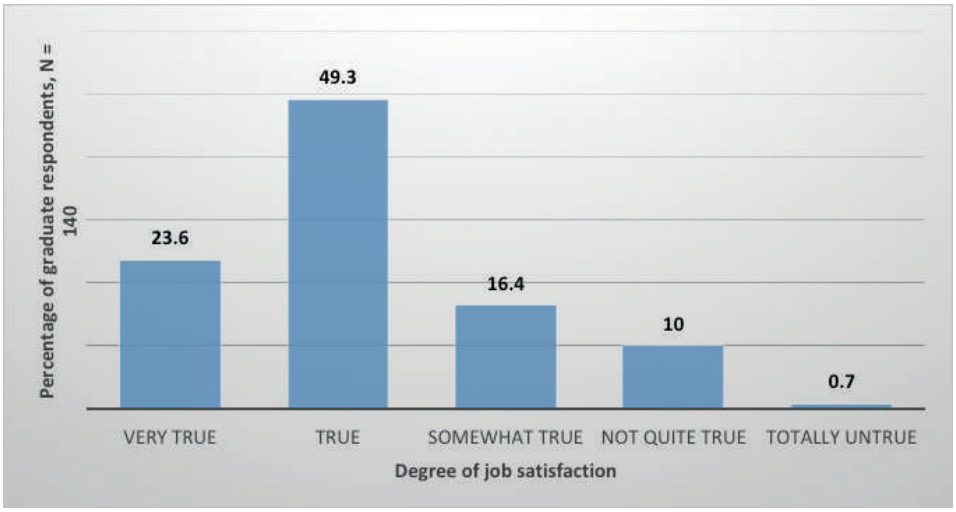

Figure 20: Degree of Job Satisfaction Among Employed VET Graduates
Source: Fieldwork data, 2018, graduates survey, N = 140

On the question of whether the salaries they were earning were adequate to meet their needs, over half of them (53 %) said their salaries met their basic needs "somewhat" or "a lot". However almost half (47 %) said their salaries were able to meet their basic needs only "a little bit" or "not at all". There was no further inquiry into which salary category they belonged. But from further informal conversations with some who were positive about their salaries, it became clear they were earning above the average of TZS 500,000. On the whole however, the findings imply that there is still a challenge of having salaries that meet basic needs or their salary expectations in general. Their responses are shown in detail in Figure 20 below.

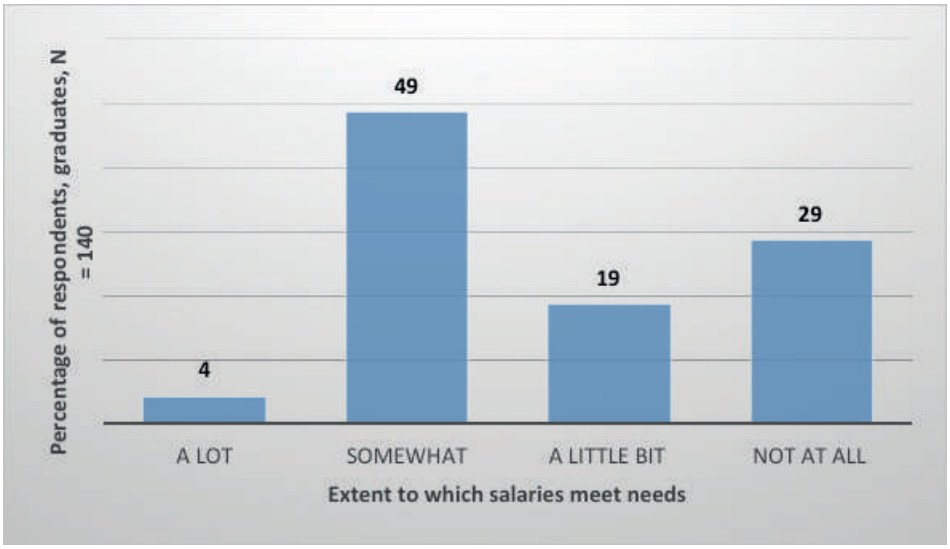

Figure 21: Perceptions of VET Graduates on the Extent to Which Their Salaries Meet Their Needs

***Source**:* Fieldwork data, 2018, graduates survey, N = 140

The findings show that there are many considerations that graduate job seekers take into account when deciding to accept or reject job offers. However, even after securing and accepting jobs, there are many other conditions and factors which determine their possibility of remaining satisfied on those jobs. Some of these are indicated in Table 36. In chapter 3 a distinction was made between satisfactory jobs and job satisfaction. The argument made was that pegging the end of transition to the securing of a 'satisfactory job' as was used by Matsumito and Elder (2010), was not practical because very few people find their jobs satisfactory after settling into them. Labour relations revolve around two main factors: the so-called psychological contract and the social exchange theory.

Literature on the psychological contract is not very robust but the major arguments are that apart from the written contract it is the employer and employee expectations that make the written contract stick or break down. The psychological expectations of the employee are normally that there will be fair treatment, fair pay, fair play and fair access to advancement opportunities; direct, open and transparent communication and opportunities to be directed and to learn how to perform better. The employer expects loyalty and commitment; honesty, creativity, and transparency; self-drive, adherence to rules and a fair days' work for a day's wage. Job satisfaction

for the employee develops with the degree to which their expectations are met. Similarly, interviews are conditions for employer satisfaction with qualifications and aptitudes. Satisfaction with the employee's performance develops gradually. Therefore, when the expectations of both are met and the psychological unwritten contract is sealed, then the written contract can stick. They get satisfied on accepting a job, but such satisfaction is not necessarily continuous. Lu and Adler (2009) have argued that training institutions even in trade-specific courses rarely expose students to the expectations of their targeted industry or profession.

The social exchange theory (SET) is very well entrenched in the sociology of work (Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) and in leadership and politics (Erdogan and Bauer 2015, Redmond 2015). SET posits that in employment trust, loyalty and commitment evolve over a period of time resulting from mutual respect, acceptance, support, and feelings of belonging. Therefore, once employees get into organizations, their satisfaction with the job increases or decreases on the basis of what they get in exchange for their work. In Table 37 interviewees indicated factors that they thought to be very important for job satisfaction. Wages were considered very important but recognition, respect, job security and safety were also considered very important.

Table 38: Major Career Concerns of TVET Graduates

Major Concerns	**Percentage**
Safety on the job	7
Health & hygiene	7
Lack of respect from management	3
Low wages	51
Job security	3
Trade Union representation	2
No opportunities to learn & gain experience	1
No opportunities for promotion	6
Major Concerns	**Percentage**
None	18
Other, specify	2
Total	**100**

Source: Fieldwork data, 2018, graduates survey, N = 14

CHAPTER 8

MAKING VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND EDUCATION MORE SUPPORTIVE OF YOUTH TRANSITION

Paschal B. Mihyo & Donald E. Mmari

As we saw in Chapter 4.5 the national TVET coordinating institutions, VETA and NACTE have put in place qualification framework and guidelines that have positioned TVET instutions to deliver on their mandates and objecties. However there is always room for improvement and some of the best policies need to be supported by improvement in resources which can greatly enhance the capacity of these institutions to implement continental, regional and national policies. At continental level the Strategy to Revitalize Technical and Vocational Training in Africa passed by the African Council of Ministers of Education in 2007 (COMEDAF II of 29-31 May 2007) had put emphasis on coordination and harmonization of TVET in Africa; the positioning of TVET institutuions as vehicles for regional cooperation, technological and socio-economic transformation and mobilizing resources for cooperation and harmonization. At that time it was noted that TVET in Africa was seriously constrained by weak national economies, high population growth rates; shrinking or stagnant wage employment; poor education systems; uncoordinated, poorly regulated and fragmented delvery systems; gender inequalities and low public perceptions of TVET. As was seen in the previous chapters some of these weaknesses still persist.

However some of the interventions proposed in that strategy include the introduction of competence based education and training (CBET) which has been fully embraced and is being implemented; training for employability and imparting demand oriented skills; linking TVET with other education systems; popularizing TVET and introducing lifelong TVET education to facitlitate continuous upgrading of skills. COMEDAF V which took place 23-27 April, 2012 received a report on the implementation fo the startegy in which it was indicated that in almost all countries national qualifications frameworks had been established and were being implemented; some pilot collaborative projects had been intitited at subregional level including partnerships with UNESCO, UNDP, ILO, ADEA and the AfDB. Tanzania is not lagging behind in these areas but there are a few measures which if taken could give more momentum to continental and regional policy frameworks.

8.1. STRENGTHENING QUALITY ASSURANCE

From the analysis of the study informing this book, it was very clear that both NACTE and VETA have established expert committeees that monitor and evaluate the implementation of the National TVET Qualifications Framework. The study indicated that there is still room for improvement. There are four areas that may be considered in the search for innovation. The first is engagement of students, potential employers and communities of practice in the quality assurance systems. Second is ensuring that the teaching imparts knowledge about international and national standards for products relevant to the areas of students' specialization. Third is improving networking and support systems to facilitate field attachment, internships and apprenticeship training. Fourth is governance, including programme development, management and monitoring of progress and implementation.

Student engagement is built within the system of assessing course delivery. However, it is constrained by several factors such as heavy workloads for staff, inadequate support for field supervision and indequate time for meaningful engagement. It was noted that in most of the VETA centres, workloads of staff and the conditions under which students learn do not provide enough time for proper evaluation of teaching and learning. This was more in the case of student engagement. Effective technical training is more easily achievable if there are adequate systems for student engagement. Coates (2009) has urgued that students have to be given opportunity to assess the quality of delivery, competence and personal development and this is best done where this assessment is institutionalized and continuous. In interviews with staff it was indicated that some members of staff had problems explaining what the main elements of competency based training (CBT) were. Similarly some of the students interviewed exhibited limited awareness of the various competency dimensions of the curriculum. In such situations, it is difficult to fruitfully engage stundents in measuring the impact of training especially if they are not aware of the content of the comeptencies they are supposed to acquaire.

Engagement with local industry is also not as robust as optimally expected. As mentioned earlier, the centres were located close to industrial areas and SME complexes in most of the municipalities visited. However, many of the surveyed local industries in those localities indicated little regular or institutional interaction with the centres. In some cases, local firms reported no awareness of the centres' existence in their locality. Given the

importance of engagement with local industry or other productiion and service entities on issues of relevance and applicabilibility of knowledge acquired through training, it would strengthen quality and quality assurance if such linkages were established and institutionalized. Current practices confine enagement with industry to occasional consultations about the relevance of already developed courses to the needs of industry. This kind of engagement becomes very akin to research through which experts go into communities with tools and instruments to collect information according to already set indicators and variables. Engaging employers and producers needs to go beyond occasional interactions. It needs to be built on institutional collaboration in the design, development and innovation of modules to ensure that the theory in class and practice in production and services are related to and complementing each other. If engaging producers and service providers is strictly bound within predetermined curriculum, any views given will have little impact because of possible 'curriculum capture'.

Quality can easily be negatively affected by curriculum capture. It was observed earlier that teachers and students expressed feelings that the curriculum they were using was not regularly updated in order to link it to technical and technological changes that are taking place daily at a rapid pace. It was also clear that teachers and trainers were obliged by the centres and regulatory bodies to abide by the provided curricula. This has created a problem of curriculum capture resulting into a conflict between quality assurance and quality control. Sometimes it is the overemphasis on quality control that reduces the need to accommodate changes taking place in industry and this undermines quality assurance. As Misko (2015) has counselled, regulatory bodies need to allow a favourable balance between assuring quality and regulating it. This balance is best achieved if potential employers and employers' associations get a regular channel for influencing curriculum thereby shaping competencies and capabilities of learners.

Enagagement therefore is a process that requires institutional mechanisms such as a curriculum innovation unit that works with partner instutions to innovate upon and adjust the curriculum. It requires moblization of interest within producer and service communities to get involved continuously in assessing quality. It should target all actors along the knowledge value chain mainly students, employers and communities of practice. For students they would like to get knowledge for employability, relevance

to communities and for their own personal development. Therefore their engagement should enable them to express their views on whether they think the courses are preparing them for responsible and competitive entry into the labour market. Employers have an interest in getting graduates who are very well equipped with standards relevant to their specilaizations and who will be readily deployable for work without prolonged further training on the job. Communities would like to express opinions of the relevance of the courses offered to their needs and capability of such knowledge to address their local development needs, problems and challenges. The areas of interests of these three groups are summarized in Figure 21.

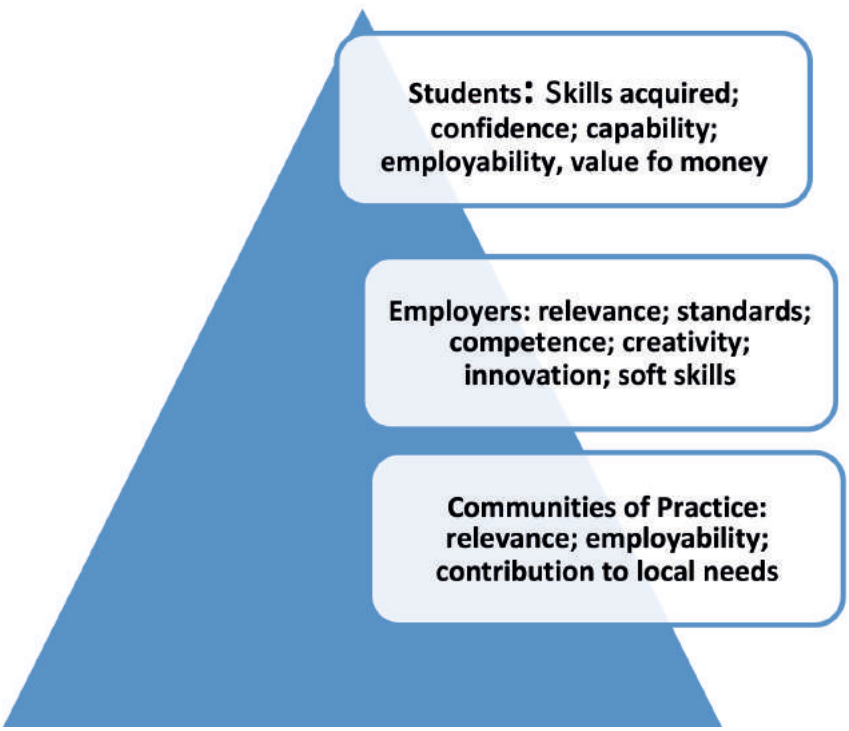

Figure 22: Areas of Interest For Various Stakeholders
Source: Interviews with various stake-holders

The primary aim of enagement of employers and communities of practice (producer associations, professional associations and standards organizations) shoud be to give views on applicability of knowledge imparted, its relevance to existing systems of production and service and potential for adaptation by learners to the existing systems. This also goes with the assessment of capacity for creativity and innovation. One politician

adressing students of Tambaza Secondary School in Dar Es Salaam on the 10th February, 2020 asked them if any of the students knew of a performing artist who had graduated fom the University of Dar Es Salaam. Nobody seemed to have one in mind. Then he asked if the University of Dar es Salaam had courses on art and performance arts and the answer was not only positive but that these courses have been on offer for decades. Then he suggested that the universities should develop courses that relate to the needs of consumers of products of that knowledge and this can only be achieved if consumers are engaged and involved in the development and regular innovation of these courses. Therefore relevance can best be measured by assessing customer satisfaction (students), customer expectations (employers) and potentail consumers of products produced with the knowledge imparted (communities of practice).

In order for students, employers and communities of practice to make fair and value added assessment of curriculum and its delivery, they have to know about stadards applicable in the various trades they are dealing with. National quality stadards for example are specified by the Tanzania Bureau of Standards and the Tanzania Food and Drug Authrority. In a study on the cashew nut value chain, for example, it was found that small processors were unaware of the national standards that need to be complied with in cashew nut processing. They were even not aware of international quality standards applicable to nuts which can qualify their products to be imported on the North American and European markets (Mihyo et. al, 2019). In addition there are international technical standards for various products and services within the specializations relevant to the courses being offered. Knowledge and capbility to apply the imparted knowledge to ensure compliance with technical and other standards is very crucial for employability, creativity and innovation espcially for enterprises which are trying to enter the export markets as we move towards a middle income industrial economy. Without thorough knowledge of these standards neither students, nor employers and communities of practice can effectively assess quality and competences imparted through training.

Networking capacity and institutional mechanisms for building partnerships between VETA institutions and partner organizations in the public and private sectors would help to improve quality assurance. Locating VET centres in easily accessible neighbourhoods is curcial for students and also for small and micro enterprise operators to link up with the centres. If the industrial complexes are far it would be useful to establish a presence

through a liaison office with the key areas where students will be regularly attached. This also requires engaging local enterprises and communities in order to make them aware of the courses and the skills being delivered by the centres. Enclosing centres of techology learning scares away small and micro enterprise operators who would like to service their machinery and equipment in the workshops of these centres. In some cities such as Nairobi some centres such as ApproTech are located in the most affluent areas which cannot be accessed by small entrepreneurs because of security measures applicable in such areas. The same applies to centres of innovation located in several universities which are in enclosures and heavily guarded.

Support systems can also be strengthened by extending student loans to VET students. Employers who contribute to the Skill Development Levy Fund contribute the money believing it is going to support development of vocational and technical skills but access has been extended to other non-TVET students. Some employers interviewed are not conmfortable with some of these funds going to the University Loan Fund thereby becoming availble to students in other pathways of educational development other than vocational and technical education. Some employers interviewed were of the opinion that they should have a bigger say on how the funds from the skill development levy is used and thought all and only TVET students should be allowed access to student loans from the fund.

In the area of governance it would help if VETA as a regulatory authority could provide guidelines to all centres to develop strategic plans based on the needs and demands of the sectors and localities in which they are situatated. In this vein each centre should define its mission and vision based on the local economy. Those focusing on agriculture should be more specific in their mission e.g. to raise agricultural production and agroprocessing standards. Those in livestock areas could focus on raising the standards and quality of livestock products etc. Leadership needs to be provided within the framework of the VETA Act to ensure the composition of Boards of these centres is refelctive of the complexion of the local economy. In the management there could be policy development, implementation and evaluation units as well as quality assurance departments. Each centre could have a clear system of data collection, processing and reporting. They could be required to have operational plans covering teaching, resources and equipment acquisition, staffing and staff improvement, placement and technical assessment of students and

monitoring, evaluation and reporting on student attachments and teaching and learning effectiveness.

Financial management could be more streamlined and they should be required to have clear financial plans including how they will raise resources from various stakeholders. They could spell out how resources will be used and accounted for. Stakeholder mapping and networking should be part of financial planning. As part of resource moblization and management each centre can be required to have a registry of equipment and materials and regular assessment of materials in place and those fruther required in the short, medium and long term. Each needs plans for infrastructure development incluuding facilities for physically and visually challenged students.

To facilitate effective learning and teaching IT resources need to be strengthened and since in the contemporary world technology based work is essentially IT driven, all centres could be required to use IT as much as possible in teaching and all training activities. Therefore they should be required to develop IT preparedness, IT usage policies and to organize regular referesher courses for students and staff on IT use. The other support system needed is for libraries. Hard copies cannot be avoided in technical training but centres could be encouraged to develop digital libraries and provide students with shared points where they can access digital reources.

Human resources planning and development is also essential for quality assurance and improvement. Health and safety is crucial especially given the workloads for satff. There is also a need for systems to handle gender issues including sexaul harassment and counselling of staff and students who feel they need pychological support. More broadly there is need to put in place support systems for staff couselling, gender issues support including balancing home and workplace chores; career development; disability support; leadership succession planning and preparation for retirement.

Student support systems could be further strengthened by developing codes of conduct governing inter-student relations and student and staff relations; grievance procedures; gender issues support; disability support; career counselling and job centres and increased institutional links with industry to faiciliate attachments, internships, apprenticeship training and career couselling by people from industry and services. It would also help students if teaching was modularized and students allowed to attend

courses by modules to accommodate their work and other routines and for purposes of lifelong learning. This requires some flexibility within the existing national qualifications framework. Further measures that centres could be asked to take include clarification to all stakeholders on what competencies are expected and their relevance to the local economies; increase in the time allocated to pratical trainning; inviting guest trainers form industry and services to interact with and assess students and to organize study tours to enterprises relevant to courses being offered.

Furthermore, in the aftermath of the UNESCO Conference held in Mahe Seychelles in March 2019 ushering in what has now come to be known as the Mahe Process, there is a need to build into the national quality assurance system with the six princples underlying that process mainly: total quality asurance; quality training for teachers; strong entrepreneurship courses; facilitating transition to self–employment; strengthening public–private partnerships and laying solid foundations for youth enterprises start-ups. Since Tanzania is one of the Eastern African beneficiaries of the Better Education for Africa's Rise (BEAR Phase II) which also is linked to the Mahe Process and UNESCO's drive to strengthen quality assurance in TVET, there is an urgent need to use these initiatives and the support they entail, to take TVET a step futher in strengthening quality assurance. The regulatory authorities may want to adopt a holistic approach which will incorporate additional quailty assurance indicators suggested by Morris (2012:133) i.e. covering improvement of governance, financing and financial management, access, participation, equity and inclusion, quality of teaching and learning and responsiveness to the needs of the labour market.

8.2. FURTHER AREAS FOR POLICY CONSIDERATION FOR IMPROVING TEACHING AND LEARNING

The policy and national qualifications frameworks for TVET are very clear and if effectively implemented could enable TVET institutions to equip students with employable skills thereby shortening their transition from school to work. However from the research results obtained and presented on teaching, learning and field attachment, it is clear that VET is still far away from reaching its goal. Public policy has yet to show that vocational education and training (VET) is as important in creating capacity for employablity as its technical education and training counterpart offered by tertiary education. Budgetary allocations to VET institutions do not come closer to those allocated to higher education institutions including those

offering TET courses. Public attitudes generally and those of the youth in particular still reflect the assumed inferiority of VET when compared to university education of any kind. As we saw in previous chapters, the number of unversity graduates opting to VET is still very small. It seems as if VET is still a field to be pursued by those who have lost out in the race for higher education. This will continue being the perception as long as funding for VET is also very low.

Institutionally it seems from recent history that VET keeps on being tossed from one ministry to another whenever ministrerial structures are changed. This turns it into some sort of a 'foster child' but essentially without any profund linkages with ministry of industry, commerce and trade on which it depends for attachment of students and also which is the main catchment area for its graduates. A stable base in a ministry which depends on improved quality of technical education to attract investments would strengthen partnership between TVET generally and VETA in particular. Keeping it within the ministry in charge of education reduces its significance as it becomes sandwitched between lower and higher levels of education. If possible a different host where it is not competing for resources with many other subsectors with more political clout, can give it the security and recognition it needs away from the politics and economics of education.

Issues of governance and leadership also deserve closer examnation. For VET insitutions including faith based, privately owned and folk development colleges, VETA sets quality standards and regulates them. But institutionally these are independent bodies actually competing with VETA for the same clientele when it comes to own cost students. While we did not find any evidence of conflict of interest on the part of VETA as a regulator and service provider at the same time, this conflict can easily arise when and if government decides to extend resources to private VET institutions to support students and make VETA the adminstrator of such student loans or other resources. Related to this is the issue of self-regulation by VETA as a service provider. Although it has a Board and committeees that are in charge of quality assurance, the fact that it regulates VET services for all providers and at the same time it regulates general provision of these services can easily undermine its effectiveness when it comes to its own services. In addition while VETA has the overall mandate for VET programmes and activities, it is probably already overwhelmed and cannot keep a tab on all the over seven hundred VETcentres which vary in sizes, scope, focus, ownershoip and capacity. It would therefore

increase VETA's effectiveness if it was regulated more rigourously by another institution outside its own system.

It has been a serious bone of contention between employers and VETA whether the latter has adequate demand orientation. As cited earlier this has been a sensitive issue on the part of VETA and it undertakes tracer studies the results of which in 2018 indicated that 65% of its graduates end up getting jobs. VETA has several specialized committees dealing with curriculm evaluation and innovation and they consult extensively. While this is the case, it would be important to take employers' perceptions and evaluation of VETA graduates more seriously and address some of the mismatches pointed out by trainers for example between courses and practices in the world of work or between equipment and technology used in the training centers and those used in the production and service sectors. Another area worth considering is the capacity of some teaching staff. By the admission of some of them during our interviews, they lack knowledge about and exposure to some systems, equipment and machines used in industry and services which are directly related to their areas of expertise and specialization.

It was remarked by some staff that curriculum used in training is a bit removed from what happens in production or services. This could be addressed if it is recognized that knowledge creation is not an exclusive domain of training and accreditation institutions but a joint mandate of these institutions and their relevant communities of practice. Links with these communities of practice will be more beneficial if they are more regular and curriculum review and innovation more frequent. The changes in technological processes at the levels of production and services are so rapid that if left to occasional consultation and if locked into 'curriculum mandates' that remain unchanged for long periods, TVET in general and VET in particular will continue producing gradutes who will have to be trained on the job after getting employed.

The location of some VET centres seems to influence delivery of training especially when engaging in practical training through field attachment. We saw in the previous chapters that distance from centres to places where students are being attached is a serious challenge to both staff and students. For purposes of future planning it would be useful to select cites in which most industries are located and then setting up a presence there in form of a liaison office. For example the VETA centre in Dar Es Salaam is located in the neighbourhood of the Chang'ombe industrial complex for small,

medium and large scale firms and the Gerezani industrial complex for small enterprises and the informal sector. If well planned and with proper consultation most of the students can get attached within these complexes and the costs of travel for staff and students would be greatly reduced. Almost every municipality and town has such a complex. With proper planning and counseling for students, field attachment should not be as problematic as was presented to be by staff and students interviewed in the study.

8.3. IMPLEMENTING THE NATIONAL APPRENTICESHIP STRATEGY MORE EFFECTIVELY

The problem of graduate unemployment cuts across all sub-sectors of education from primary, secondary to tertiary level. However, a system of apprenticeship training in vocational education based on skill formation to meet existing and envisaged needs on the labour market can help absorb more youth and reduce problems of youth unemployment. Studies by researchers such as Nguyen and Taylor (2003) have proved that such training reduces the time to the first job. Similarly, the study by Bratberg and Nilsen (2000) has revealed that apprenticeship reduces job search periods in comparison with general education.

The Tanzania Private Sector Foundation has continued to express concern that the curriculum of most courses needs to be aligned more closely with labour market needs. An earlier study of Folk Development Colleges by Redecker, Wihstutz and Mwinuka (2000) had noted a few limitations of vocational training some of which possibly have persisted to date. They include:

- Reduced government investment and spending on VET has forced VET institutions to trim their courses to a few manageable niches.
- The reduction in funding has forced most folk development colleges to spend more on staff costs to retain capacity.
- Training capacity was found to be underutilised ranging from zero to 40-50%, and due to lack of funds, most clients were failing to pay for training.
- Most of the trainees were from government agencies, and reduced funding by the government led to a sharp decrease in training activities.
- There was a shift from long-term training to short courses of a general nature.

- The training courses had little indication of link with labour market needs.
- The more competitive the market became, the more commercialised the training programmes became.
- There were common problems related to programme, structure, equipment, competence and communication.

Although this study was conducted in the year 2000, its findings are significant because Folk

Development Colleges are grassroots training institutions which were formed to stimulate technical and technological change in rural areas. They were expected to focus on agricultural and other rural production activities in their localities and contribute to rural transformation. It is such institutions that could be used to combine informal and formal apprenticeship training building on community systems of skill formation.

VETA indicated that it recognises those challenges, and invariably tries to address them. For instance, it indicated that it has always taken into account the needs of employers in curriculum design which is preceded by labour market surveys followed by data analysis and consultations with employers who have a deep understanding of labour market needs. VETA officials also pointed out that VETA had Trade Advisory Committees-TACs which prepare Stakeholders Forums. They also have joint programmes with employers for Dual Apprenticeship Training and every five years they organise tracer studies on their trainees, and the 2018 report indicated that 66.1% of their graduates got jobs within six months of graduation and 50% had created their own employment (VETA, 2018).

For TVET courses at all levels (VET and TET) to play the role of reducing youth unemployment, they need to be organised in such a way that they become job-specific and consequently more attractive than some general or generic courses offered by higher education institutions which have no direct links with existing or emerging jobs. Employers will find it easier to accept graduates with some relevant skills on which they can further build through on the job training. Many of them believe that graduates of any level who have been equipped with job-specific skills are easy to train on the job for higher skills in line with those they already possess and have a high potential for being more productive that those without relevant skills (Ahlgren et al., 2010).

Therefore, for a system of TVET to be attractive and practical, it must be comparable in status and more competitive on employable skills with institutions of higher education. The outcome of this approach is realized in East and South East Asian countries where TVET courses become attractive to students who want to acquire skills that can ensure them stable jobs. The governments of countries such as China, Japan and South Korea have invested heavily in vocational training and managed to create a critical mass of technically competent skilled workers who are the core of their industrial transformation (Ahlgren et al., 2010). These investments have reduced the number of students vying for entry into mainstream higher education and increased demand for vocational training among the youth.

Apprenticeship holds the key to TVET playing a dynamic role in creating job related skills that can increase productivity, competitiveness, integration of trainees into the economic system. It can build capacity for the trainees to engage in well-paying decent jobs (Bennell, 2000; Budría & Telhado-Pereira, 2009). This is indeed a more practical pathway for Tanzania to stem the growing tide of what Morriset *et al.* (2013) refer to as the "growing uneducated labour". The integration of trainees into the economic system requires preparing the youth for the world of work which requires both technical (hard) and soft skills. In the absence of job-linked training TVET curricula remain disconnected from labour market needs and this increases the potential for delayed or prolonged transition. Chronic graduate unemployment which is threatening to become a serious economic and social havoc in East Africa, stems from endemic rigidity and unresponsiveness of the curriculum used, inadequate methods of training and development need assessment (T&DNA), lack of stakeholder involvement in curriculum design, inadequate numbers of specialised trainers, old tools and insufficient equipment and most important lack of serious apprenticeships in all TVET programmes including at higher education level (Ngure 2013; Ndyali, 2016)

In order to effectively implement the provisions of the National Apprenticeship Policy, both the private and public sector have to be mobilized to recognize the importance of apprenticeships and give it support by committing a number of places per enterprises capable of supporting trainees to receive, train and supervise them with the view to taking some of them on completion of their training. Not all enterprises are capable or will be interested in hosting apprenticeship trainees. Therefore, through the Association of Tanzania Employers (ATE), the government

could look for partners with which to run the programme. After this the government must organize fundraising activities on annual basis from local and international partners for the apprenticeship programme building it within the national investment plans.

Many enterprises would like to target students who are doing well and showing the prospects of being productive and innovative employees. To identify these the selected partner enterprises, have to be involved in assessing students' performance and occasionally getting involved in teaching at the centres through their staff. Apprenticeships should be targeted at existing jobs and apprentices trained further to be proficient in tasks related to those jobs. Therefore, not all students could be entitled to be involved in the apprenticeship programmes. The beneficiaries could be selected on the basis of competence and the selective process should be competitive involving VETA instructors and enterprise trainers. This is to avoid training apprentices for jobs that do not exist and ensuring the apprenticeship training is directly linked with existing standards and practices in industry.

CHAPTER 9

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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In Africa in general and Tanzania in particular, unemployment is not only limited to the youth. It also affects them proportionally more than adults because they graduate in big numbers every year only to compete for a few limited jobs. As they enter into the labour market, they find in place adults who, having gone through challenges of transition during their early years after graduation have already gathered experience and are stable in their jobs. Some of these adults were trained by the same TVET institutions under the same curriculum. For some, VETA was not yet in place during their training and they did not benefit from the new system of VETA which has embraced among other things, competence-based training.

The National Skills Development Strategy 2016/17 – 2025/26 seeks to produce an internationally-compliant skills mix ratio of 1:5:25 for professionals, technicians and artisans respectively by 2020/21 (URT, 2016). However, a recent performance audit of TVET by the Controller and Auditor General found year-on-year growing deficits in enrolment for artisanal training that are hampering efforts to bridge existing skill gaps among low skilled occupations (URT, 2020). This suggests that, transition challenges for the youth may continue alongside challenges of stabilization for workers already in employment due to changing operating conditions, rapid technological changes and the challenges of globalization characterised by stiff completion driven by skills and information technology. This chapter provides a summary of findings across the chapters, conclusions and recommendations on how to make policy and training more conducive to fast transition for the youth.

9.1. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

After the theoretical framework, Chapter three started by examining youth employment based on recruitment figures for the period 2015 and 2016. This period is by no means representative of long-term trends, but the data was used to compare the absorption of youth in both the private and public sectors compared to recruitment of adults. The 2016 figures showed that the private sector employed more than twice as many adults

as it employe young people. In the public sector adults recruited were 25 % more than young people. It was also clear from the figures of that year that the private sector employed more people of all eligible working age than the public sector. In terms of gender balance, it was clear that more males with university tertiary education, teachers' education and higher secondary education were recruited than females and it was only in the area of vocational and technical education qualifications that more females were recruited.

It was also noted that a good number of graduates with qualifications from teachers' education institutions opted for jobs in retail trade as shop attendants. This raised as a concern due to existing high teacher–pupil ratios in some schools in many districts in the country. These findings lead us to conclude that gender balance is achievable especially when it comes to graduates with higher secondary education, university education and vocational education and training qualifications. As regards graduates with teachers' education qualifications we conclude that although the demand for teachers is high the conditions in the education sector especially at primary and secondary school levels may not be competitive enough to attract more graduates to take up the teaching vocation.

Regarding wages, it was found that they were generally modest especially in the private sector which is the biggest employer. However, it was noted that apart from monetary benefits, the private sector provided more welfare benefits which made its wage bill higher than that of the public sector. It was opined that given the expectations of youth during their training, the prevalence of modest wages in both sectors could be a factor behind prolonged search for jobs in most cases. It was felt that this is exacerbated by lack of or limited contact between youth and the real world of work during their training or schooling. Our conclusion is that more exposure of students to enterprises through longer and more frequent attachments of short duration during their schooling or training may enable them to understand better the terms and conditions of service in various sectors and enterprises. Also effective delivery of employment services particularly career and vocational counselling and guidance, labour market information regarding trends in the demand of skills, terms and conditions of service and labour absorption capacity in the job market are equally important to enable students/prospective labour market entrants understand the terms of services in various sectors.

The informal sector was found to be a big potential employer for the youth both for employment and self-employment. For VET graduates with specialized skills it could be a dynamic sector not only for self-employment but also for innovation. It currently employs a good number of youth and adults, absorbing about 75% of the national labour force. However, for most graduates at postsecondary school level, it is still considered as a distress sector dominated by underpaid, unprotected, highly volatile vulnerable jobs. Our conclusion was that most graduates with postsecondary education qualifications consider it as a last resort sector and in order to make it attractive, VETA may have to consider establishing stronger links with selected dynamic actors in the informal sector and even draw some of its students from the sector in order to contribute to its transformation and to make its graduates see the value in its transformation.

Apart from the informal sector as a potential absorbent of VET graduates, the agriculture sector was also given attention. It was noted that some centres had courses on agriculture but some of the courses were not aimed at producing subject matter specialists. It was further noted that the powerful policy commitments made by leaders on the continent regarding the need to support youth to engage in agriculture were not taken further at national and regional levels. Such commitments include land reforms aimed at increasing access to land for all including youth and women, agricultural credit schemes, favourable tax regimes and protection of agricultural products from highly subsidized agricultural systems that lead to unfair competition. Our conclusion is that ownership of productive resources, if realized for all, will benefit most of the unemployed youth, women and men alike. Furthermore, become more attractive to the youth, agriculture needs to be transformed through commercialization and mechanization so that those who cannot become farmers can get decent and dignified jobs on farms. It is important to note that not every person wants to become or is capable of becoming a farmer.

Chapter three winds up with an examination of other factors that impact on learning, trainability and subsequent employability. Literacy and numeracy are still low both in rural and urban areas but more pronounced in rural areas and more among females than males in both sectors. Ownership of productive resources such as land, and credit facilities were skewed more in favour of adults and among adults more among males. The overall assessment in chapter three is that youth participation in the labour market is low and transition from school to work slow. Limited access to labour

market information; geographical location both in rural and urban areas; mismatch between skills and job requirements; inadequate entrepreneurial orientation; and prolonged schooling which creates higher expectations and lack of clear information about the wage structure in various sectors are among many factors that lead to prolonged transition for many graduates in rural and urban areas.

Our conclusion is that mismatches between skills and jobs and needs of enterprises and training can best be addressed through strategic linkages between VETA and selected enterprises which are ready to become partners in skill development and can provide facilities for collaborative training of students through regular attachments and apprenticeship. We also conclude that occasional consultations between VETA committees with employers on skills are not enough to achieve the bridging of gaps between jobs and skills. Such consultations, good as they may be, do not create a feeling of joint ownership of VET courses.

Chapter four provided an overview of the policy framework covering measures put in place to enhance employment creation and employability among the youth. The coordination and regulation of vocational education and training is reserved for VETA, while NECTA regulates and coordinates technical education and training by non-university institutions. The Tanzania Commission of Universities (TCU) regulates technical education and training at higher education level. It was noted that while the three deal with technical and vocational skills, the links between them are weak and a holistic approach which links the three would increase the effectiveness of skill development, collaborative training and student and staff exchange. It was further noted that VETA has a big potential for conflict of interest because it plays the dual roles of regulation and service provision, thus competing with other providers of vocational education and training.

It was further observed that while the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology has overall responsibility for TVET, there are other ministries such as those dealing with trade, industry, agriculture, tourism, employment and youth which have a stake in the development of skills but they do not feature prominently in any of the institutions charged with skill development or evaluation of training outcomes. In addition, there are other non-formal providers of technical and vocational education and training, some of which are based in ministries and independent projects but seem to be uncoordinated by either VETA, NACTE or TCU. The chapter ends with a quick reference to the Technical and Vocational Education and

Training Development Programme (TVETDP) 2013/14-2017/2018 which had set very focused and ambitious goals for the number of graduates, teachers, infrastructure, gender parity and the skills gaps that TVET had to fill within the period. It was noted, however, that the resources required to achieve its goals were not adequately mobilized and most of the targets were yet to be met.

On the link between the TVET regulatory bodies our conclusion is that in order to strengthen TVET and give it the importance, recognition and respect it deserves, clear pathways need to be created so that VET graduates can advance to TET and courses in engineering and technology offered by universities and at the same time graduates of universities can also be attached to TET and VET centres for sharpening of their vocational and technical skills. In addition, we conclude that if all the demand sectors with a stake in vocational and technical skills such as ministries and enterprises which depend on skills generated by the TVET systems were involved through a broader national skills development council the relevance of the TVET courses would be greatly advanced.

Chapter five focused on factors that influence skill development efforts by VETA. It was acknowledged that VETA has initiated and implemented institutional and curriculum reforms that aim at strengthening competences among its graduates. In our assessment these efforts could lead to more results if funding improved. The main challenges noted include limited number of trainers and instructors; lack of up-to-date equipment and materials; limited infrastructure in terms of classrooms, laboratories and materials; mismatch between technology used in training and that used by many enterprises; and lack of financial resources to effectively fund supervision of students during attachments.

It was also found that student characteristics affect the outcomes of training by VETA centres. Many students are young junior secondary school leavers, weak on numeracy and with limited knowledge of English as the language of instruction. The percentage of college graduates enrolled at the time of study was 24 %. It was clear that VET courses are still regarded by parents and even students themselves as inferior to those of TET or higher education. The number of females enrolling for hard technical skills was still low reflecting the prevalence of stereotypes about the gendering of skills within the society and among students. Our conclusion was that public perceptions shape the view of students about vocational education in general and about gender specializations during training.

The study on the characteristics of teaching staff indicates that 52% of those interviewed had moderate college level education, 21% had secondary education and only 14 % had university degrees. Only 9% of them had TVET qualifications. Demographically, about 61 % of them were between 35 and 64 years of age and we noted a potential demographic crisis in case that group reaches retirement without a significant middle group being developed for leadership succession. In terms of length of service 77% of the interviewees had served between one and ten years. When asked about competence-based training all interviewed staff said they applied it but 78% of them had difficulties explaining what it entails. This does not in any way mean they do not understand it, but it was clear there were problems of communication among that group.

Teacher training falls short of the national target under the TVETDP 2013/14-2017/18 and also under the 2011 Strategic Plan of the VETA Teachers Training College located in Morogoro. This may explain the shortage of teachers which was found to be chronic with negative impact on student-teacher ratios, teaching staff workloads, capacity of staff to adequately attend to individual needs of student during training and supervision during attachment. On factors that influence the quality of teaching at VETA centres several factors were underlined by teachers interviewed. Mixing primary, secondary and other school leavers was identified as causing problems because students were not at the same level. The quality of students was said to be low because of poor language and numeracy skills. Materials and equipment for training were said to be both in short supply and falling below the standards applicable in industry. Student attendance was said to be erratic because some had to work while most of them lived far from the centres. Staff development was said not to be systematic as a result of which staff were not being continuously upgraded to match technical and technological changes in the economy. Staff expressed a common view about the rigidity of curriculum which they thought did not adequately accommodate the needs of students or their communities. Our conclusion was that funding is the key to all these challenges and if it were increased most of these challenges could have been addressed.

On field attachments and practical training, it was acknowledged that VETA requires a mandatory combination of theory and practical training. Half of the students interviewed were of the view that there was a fair balance between theory and practical training. They opined, however, that

practical training outside the centres was hampered by several factors. Few enterprises including those owned by the state were ready to offer places for attachment and those offering them had limited capacity and resources for supervising students. About 57% of employers interviewed did not provide opportunities for student attachments. The private sector was found to be more receptive to trainees than the public sector. Most students were failing to meet the requirements because they had to meet the cost of their field training in terms of transport and other needs. VETA staff finds it difficult to visit each and every student as regularly as appropriate because of funding and workload challenges. General findings on attachments indicate that: VET students are more attractive to private enterprises for attachment; enterprises with staff shortages are keen to take in more students on attachment; attachment does not guarantee future employment to students as the latter depends on availability of opportunities and enterprises that have existed for more than ten years are more open to trainees than new ones. We have concluded that attachments require joint investments by government, VETA and targeted enterprises because for VETA and the enterprises they require paid time and training space, equipment, and materials. Second, as not all students can afford the costs of field training especially transport and meals, support for their attachment would increase their rate of attendance and concentration. Third, increased funding for VETA would support it to strengthen capacity for supervision during student attachments.

Chapter seven focuses on factors that influence transition from school to work. Building on the theoretical framework in Chapter three, findings have confirmed the link between the expectations of students arising out of their perceived status and what they expect to earn once they get employed. The findings show that in some cases prolonged job search was due to unrealistic expectations of high wages which were not easily available in the labour market. Perceptions of entitlement to higher wages are also related to the duration of training because the longer they stay in the school system the more qualified the students think they are. This, however, could mean over-schooling rather than increased skilling. This was also a factor in the motivation of students for training which results show was more for employment rather than self-employment. This was also exacerbated by low entrepreneurial orientation. Our conclusion from these findings is that during training, most graduates who have had no previous working experience do not get enough information about the applicable wages and conditions of employment on the labour market.

The last part of chapter seven focuses on the employability and prolonged transition on the part of VETA graduates. Almost all graduates interviewed believed VETA equipped them with relevant skills and that most of them got jobs within the first two years of their graduation. This confirms the data provided by VETA in 2018 that 65% of their graduates were getting employed within reasonable time. In our sample the percentage was 68. Our findings point to other factors that influence transition beyond competences. Weak labour market information systems affect access of information for rural and urban youth, leaving most of the job seekers to rely on informal networks for information on vacancies. Employers' rigid insistence on previous work experience also leaves many job seekers out of employment opportunities. In most cases such employers are not ready to take inexperienced employees and train them on the job. For females' cultural values on the gendering of jobs, household responsibilities and location of enterprises far from home or in insecure locations affect their choice of jobs. Overall, while the mismatch between skills and jobs is not totally ruled out, the mismatch between the expectations of job seekers and those of potential employers also play a very significant role in hastening or delaying TVET in general and training by VETA could be made more supportive of fast transition to employment for its trainees.

It is suggested that if all regional and national policies adopted to make TVET more responsive to employability of trainees were fully implemented, a lot of progress was possible on this front. The second suggestion was that a comprehensive quality assurance system was needed to take TVET forward, and to achieve this all, continuous engagement of students and employers was necessary. It was also suggested that total quality assurance needs to cover all aspects of teaching, learning and governance. In the area of teaching, staff development and welfare need to be upgraded. In the area of learning, adequate resources including workshops, classrooms, materials, equipment, library resources and student support systems need to be upgraded. On governance, leadership programme development, programme management, monitoring and evaluation and institutionalized networking with potential employers and trainers for apprentices need to be strengthened and adequately resourced. Our conclusion was that VETA was achieving most of its goals but improvement in the outcomes of its work can best be achieved by making TVET and VET better funded.

9.2. RECOMMENDATIONS

This book ends by providing a set recommendation to strengthen TVET and its contribution to the employability of the youth. These recommendations are made with view to informing the medium and long-term planning by the government and VETA and are therefore outlined in two groups. For the government of Tanzania, in partnership with employers and development its partners, the following recommendations are made. First, is to revise and revitalize the capacity of VETA to deliver on the objectives of the Technical and Vocational Education Training Development Programme (TVETDP) 2013/2014-2017/2018 which achieved a lot but left much to be accomplished.

Second, to support VETA to increase its capacity to enable the Morogoro Vocational Teacher's Training College (MVTTC) to reposition itself to deliver on the objectives and targets of the medium and long-term targets regarding the number of teachers expected by 2025 under the Technical and Vocational Education Training Development Programme (TVETDP) 2013/2014-2017/2018.

Third, to strengthen Folk Development Colleges by increasing funding for them and re-aligning courses they offer with the needs of the communities in which they are located in. This could include a decision to design curriculum and training materials for folk development courses in Kiswahili with specializations in location specific activities and products relevant to communities in which they are based in order to produce a cadre of subject specialists who will be immediately relevant to their communities and do not have to leave in search of employment elsewhere.

Fourth, promote linkages between VETA and other TVET service providers with colleges of science, technology and innovation for resources sharing and leveraging.

Fifth, facilitate linkages between TVET centres and local government authorities (LGAs) to create room for the later to have a role in the design, monitoring and innovation of TVET courses and their delivery. This may also serve to create strategic linkages between TVET centres and enterprises through LGA efforts in promoting local economic development (LED).

Sixth, to undertake an assessment of gender-based barriers to optimal female participation in and completion of TVET courses and develop interventions that can enhance gender equality and parity in enrolment and learning processes of TVET.

Seventh, to invest more resources in infrastructure, equipment, materials and other resources in public and private TVET centres to ensure they are properly equipped to contribute to appropriate skill development within the new vision of 'Tanzania ya Viwanda' (An Industrialized Tanzania).

Finally, to extend student loans to TVET students to cover costs of tuition and field attachment to enable them to learn and complete their courses.

For VETA, we recommend the following. First, to undertake a comprehensive capacity needs assessment and make recommendations to the government on how capacity gaps identified can be overcome to enable it to deliver on the long-term targets of Technical and Vocational Education Training Development Programme (TVETDP) 2013/2014-2017/2018 by 2025 and beyond.

Second, to intensify and regularize multipartite activities for curriculum review and innovation to increase link between technologies used in training and those applied in various productive sectors. This could include a study of what soft skills are required to support employability of TVET graduates and include them in curricula.

Third, to undertake regular staff audits in TEVT centres in order to identify capacity needs and demographic trends. This will enable them to prepare adequately for demographic transition and leadership succession planning.

Fourth to establish staff exchange programmes with sister institutions with which agreements of cooperation have been signed to ensure upgrade of staff capacity and familiarization of instructors and technicians with advanced methods of course delivery especially in competence-based training.

Fifth, to facilitate the establishment of links between TVET institutes and selected strategic enterprises and sectors in order to facilitate cooperation for staff and student attachment.

Sixth to work towards increasing the number of instructors and technicians and attaining a student staff ratio that is conducive to effective transfer of knowledge and skills from trainers and technicians to students.

Seventh to review admission procedures to create separate streams for primary school and secondary school leavers to enable each stream to follow courses at the level appropriate to their level of education, comprehension and ability to follow courses in languages with which they are conversant.

Eighth, to establish counselling facilities at TVET centres to help students to cope with learning challenges and for women to handle gender-based challenges in centres of learning and attachment.

Ninth, to review fees to include tuition and field attachment costs for students and staff in order to ensure students participate fully and instructors supervise them adequately.

Tenth to engage the government and employers on how to operationalize public private partnerships under the Apprenticeship Regulations of 2016.

Finally, to explore the possibility of entering into resources and facilities sharing agreements with technical colleges and other research institutions in areas where TVET centres are located to alleviate shortages of space, equipment and staff skills.

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