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Determinants of Research Productivity in Higher Education: With Reference to Practices in Adama Science and Technology University, By: Endalew Fufa (PhD)¹

Abstract
This research focused on productivity of research in higher education with respect to status of stakeholders’ participation, communication of key stakeholders through research, and usability of research findings for innovative purpose. The purpose of the study is, then, to identify the extent of staff involvement in research, to underline the nature of communication among the existing staff through research (academic and administrative), and mark the extent to which research serves the transformative vision vested in the Ethiopian universities, in line with the higher education proclamation 650/2009. A descriptive survey design was used in the research since the study focused on status analysis regarding research productivity. For the materialization of the research, data were collected from 30 teachers and 4 top administrative officials of Adama science and Technology University who were concerned with research matters sample teachers were selected through stratified random sampling whereas those among top officials were selected purposively on the grounds of their experiences. Instruments of data collection for the respondent teachers were a double-format questionnaire holding open and closed-ended questions, and a semi-structured interview scheduled to one hour for each one of the participants. Data were collected from teachers first, and then from officials. The findings denoted that, though the staff had enormous research skills and considerable long years of services, they did not produce research,

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largely, due to lack of initiation, heavy task-load to some extent, and lack of
good incentive at most.

Key Terms: Personal, institutional, determinants, research productivity,
higher education

1. The Problem and its Approach

1.1 Background of the Research

Higher education institutions are centres of academia, research and community
services. While academia and social services can be dealt with on the bases of
clearly set and directly implemented plans and performance strategies, research
needs special attention since it needs to be based on objective data, responsible
handling and wise use of results (Lertputtarak, 2008). The Higher Education
Proclamation of Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2009), in its
deliberations of the objectives of higher education (Article 4:2-3), briefs also
that, higher education institutions need to promote and enhance research
focusing on knowledge and technology-transfer consistent with the country’s
priority needs. The five-year (2011/12-2015/16) strategic plan of Adama
Science and Technology University stipulates the need to promote research
through the engagement of the staff, students and partners, and disseminate the
findings to end-users through seminars, publications and other appropriate
means.

From the above proclamation and preset strategic destinies, universities need to
undertake research with the in-depth involvement of key stakeholders. Besides
being based on correct formats and data which guide valid interpretation,
research must have application aspects related to social, economic and
ideological breakthrough to accelerate the race to achieve growth and
transformation. Such an application may help either to enrich institutional self-
fulfilment or outreach provisions. The above premise also goes with Gibb’s (2009) assertion that states “All countries have had to review and reorganise their capacities to access and benefit from the high-level knowledge that today shapes social change.” By implication, this idea underlines the necessity to enrich research if academic development is to prove true.

In spite of the burning need to use research as the pillar for academic and social progress, there are certain determinants seeking uttermost attention when undertaking research for development. The determinants could be individual or institutional. They could also be related to leadership situation. Hence, this research looked into determinants of research productivity in higher education in order to improve performance [academic and administrative], based on objectively studied findings.

To operationalize, the very concept “research productivity” is presented as indicator of research works produced in a certain context (Abramo & D’Angelo, 2014). In that, the degree to which researches are held, the value of research as a pillar for innovation and change [in academia and further research], and the cross-disciplinary and cross-institutional exchange realms [with schools, the community and industry] were assessed. The rationale behind such a study is that, a university cannot stand as an-all-providing and omnipotent body without giving-and-taking, and making its footings on the reality of changes in the society, since education is a means; not an end in itself.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Ethiopian higher educational institutions are working towards achieving productivity and excellence in research as they state in their strategic directions. They do so for the longstanding aim of developing productivity through research by working on technology generation and adaptation (Bahrdar
University, 2014). Adaptation of technology can have both physical prototype and mental. Adama Science and Technology University also has the strategy to dispose and dispense academic activities in various fields, especially in the realms of Science, Technology, Engineering and Applied Research. It also hosts research works of various standards. In line with this, its dispensation strategy for activities to lapse from 2011-2016 reads as follows:

ASTU is committed to excellence in research, identifying and supporting areas and projects which allow for the undertaking of internationally competitive research and research training. The University invests its resources in areas of proven and potential strength. Such areas provide particular depth of academic and research capability to offer quality research and research training opportunities to staff, students and communities, including partners in industry. In recognising the complexity and multi-disciplinary nature of issues confronting society, ASTU is committed to supporting collaborative and interdisciplinary research (http://www.astu.edu.et, 2011). Besides that, the university has a vibrant initiative to promote research through the engagement of staff, students and partners, and disseminate findings to end-users through seminars, publications and other appropriate means. It also works to enhance exchange channels with national and international universities, research institutions, industries and the private sector to address quality of education, good governance, and crosscutting issues (ASTU Strategic Plan, 2012).

To clarify a bit further, the university’s research strategy takes excellence as its head-issue and then proceeds with development of projects of international standards on the platform of research-holding and training. Areas of due concern, in this respect, are academic and others [related or not] proven [unknown as who proves] and potential strength. Multidisciplinariness is also the feature of research in the university.
The beneficiaries are also indicated to be from the staff [administrative and academic], students [regular and otherwise] and communities [multifarious in styles and standards] including those from industries. Collaborative and multidisciplinary researches, which may help handle issues of complex and comprehensive nature, are also a part of the long-range intents. As a university seeing its future under the spectacles of wider expectations, taking *excellence* as the primary motto is quite rewarding. Planned attempts to handle issues related with academic and social [both internal and external] are also partly comprehensive. On the part pertaining to [collaborative and interdisciplinary] research and use of results for the development leading to excellence, however, the university seems to lack good footing, yet to be verified through concerned research.

Besides boosting practices across its schools, to meet the GTP (Growth and Transformation Plan) requirements and pigeonholing the day-to-day concerns of the national policy, the university, as a centre of excellence, must work on the prospective matters such as research. So, it is essential to underscore the personal and institutional attributes of research productivity in Adama Science and Technology University, since the issue is of critical value for both the university and faculty staffs that need to work for innovation and promotion thereof. In the context of the research, the following analytic framework was used to guide the study.

![Diagram](5)

**Individual Determinants** → **Production**
Based on this analytical framework the study dealt with individual determinants [one of the independent variables] in terms of research skills and commitment, workload, and scholarly exchanges at national and international levels. Institutional determinants [the other independent variable] also included identification and communication of thematic areas, arrangement and disposal of facilities and logistics, and organization for publication and dispensation of results. Then production and dissemination of research were looked into as the process factors leading to research productivity, which is seen as dependent variable.

Both individual and institutional variables were interconnected by a two-way arrow denoting the interplay between the two variables. There is also a two-way arrow interconnecting research production and dissemination. Whereas individual determinants are interconnected with production and the institutional determinant is interconnected with dissemination. Research productivity, as the dependent variable, is interconnected with production and dissemination.

In that, the study sought objective answers for the following key problem questions:

**Basic Question:** what are the key determinants of research production and dissemination in Adama Science and Technology University?
Specific Questions

- How participatory is research in the university?
- How are researches used in the university with respect to innovatory undertakings?
- How do internal and external partners (stakeholders) exchange research experiences to meet the transformative purpose?
- What factors affect successful use of research in the institutional development?

1.3. Objectives of the Research

This study deals with the succeeding intents which mark the overall attainments. In that, the study is carried out to:

- Identify the very participatory and inclusive nature of research in the university in order to clarify the focus of attention with regard to academia, administration and innovations.
- Earmark means of curbing factors affecting research-based exchange clearly;
- Explicate the nature and process of communication used in the process of designing research programs and working out of findings.
- Make out the extent to which research served the purpose in problem-solving, innovation and enriching further actions towards development.

1.4. Significance of the Research
Beneficiaries from this research will be institutions of the university [schools], various supportive offices [the administrative wing], industries and the local community. Schools will be benefitted in terms of identifying their roles and playing their part in research and use the latter in trying to improve their provisions. They may develop centres for action-oriented and reflective research even without waiting for the drips and drops from the centre, thereby ensuring the possibility of basing research on grass-root contributions. Administrative workers of good wit can base their undertakings on research instead of lying over the laps of routines tempting them at the crossroads of flexibility. Rather than heralding the paternoster of inert routines, the can make local adjustments of rules for due accomplishments of tasks [but with good reason of holding changes in place]. The research can also be of value to the industries since they may use it as a pointer of roles where they should contribute for the university as partners and where, otherwise, they can tilt to the university to support them. Moreover, with its concern on factors on usability of research, the study can have a very wide implication for the university community to share their co-workers and partners in other institutions.

2. Review of Related Literature

This part deals with both theoretical and empirical underpinnings that have been meant to enrich the study. The focal points are basics, key components and factors related to research productivity.

2.1 Basics of Research and Research Productivity

2.1.1 Basics of Research

Research is defined differently by different scholars. Since the aim of this study is to demystify determinants of the effectiveness of research in higher education
in terms of staff participation and application of major findings, reference is made to definitions of practical nature. There is conviction that, research in higher education has very wide implications and practical dimensions. According to Goodall, McDowell and Singell (2014), research comprises of creative work undertaken on a systematic basis in order to increase the stock of knowledge, including knowledge of people, cultures and societies, and the use of this stock of knowledge to devise new applications. Research aims at producing new and better goods and services and developing new and better ways of offering or distributing them. It also results in efficient use of present resources and waste products.

2.1.2 Research Productivity

Meek, Teichler and Kearney (2009:14), for instance, state the place of research in international development as follows:

Demand for research is rising across vastly different political, socio-economic and cultural contexts, each with their own capacity to respond. It has also given new importance to national knowledge-oriented institutions, and often necessitates urgent efforts to renew systems and structures of higher education in order that countries take their place in knowledge-based societies which are both competitive and volatile.

From the above assertion, it could be made plain that though research has wider publicity, each nation takes its own pace and strategic scheme to make use of. To take stand for the use of research findings, renewal of higher education systems and structures is also inevitable; in that, there are consistent competitions and conditions of being volatile in the process. Volatility, in this accord, signifies the inevitability of getting out of the cascades of rigid routines.
and policy bottlenecks, and working for diverge and developmental findings. For such progressive actions to be realized, knowledge should, first, be developed on the pace of development-oriented policies and be aligned with good practices in order to be communicated to the vast array of users.

Kotrlik et al (2002) underline research productivity to be one of the most highly valued aspects of a faculty member’s careers, especially when university promotion and tenure, faculty evaluation, and university goals are considered. Bay and Clerigo (2009) state also that, research in higher education has as vast roles as the institute itself with wider and much inevitable demands on the part of academia and society. Hine (2013) relates the importance of research to human resource development through critical inquiries focusing on the actualization of the quantity and quality of such a resource. Vessuri (2008) asserts also that, with the rising demand for changes and responses to the challenges of globalization, societies all over the world need to use workable researches which go far beyond formats and orthodox theories.

2.2. Factors Affecting Research Productivity in Higher Education

Alongside the relevance of research in higher education, there are certain factors having attributes on its effectiveness. Dundar and Lewis (1998), for instance, assert individual and institutional factors to have attributes on the research productivity. To elaborate, individual factors enclose innate ability and personal environmental influences such as quality and culture of graduates’ training and culture of employing department. Abu-Zidan and Risk (2005) underline certain factors which stand as determinants on research productivity in developing countries such being lack of research education and training, lack of research appreciation (valuing), shortage of funding and resources, lack of ethics and standards, limited access to informatics, individualism and inability
to work within groups. Lertputtarak (2008), in the research on low research productivity of academic lecturers in a public university in Thailand, identified five factors which have determinant effects such being environmental, institutional, personal career development factors, social contingency factors, and demographic factors.

Iqbal and Mahmood (2011) and Okiki (2013), in their research factors related to low research productivity at higher education level, came up with findings which affected research productivity such being extra teaching load, performance of administrative duties along with academic duties, lack of funds, non-existence of research leave, and negative attitude of the faculty staff towards research, lack of research skills, non-existence of latest books, absence of professionals journals and less number of university own journals. Bland, et al (2005) and McGill and Seatle (2012) assert also that, individual, institutional and leadership predict faculty research productivity details of which relate to existence of research orientation, highest terminal degree, early publication habits, and communication with colleagues, journal subscriptions, and allotment of sufficient time for research.

There are also institutional and departmental attributes pertaining to structure and leadership, size of program and faculty, amount of university revenues, availability of technology and computing facilities, and number of books and journals in the library. Departmental culture with respect to working policies, availability of leaves, funds and travel for research, number supportive staff, and availability of government and non-government research fund is also the other determinant.

Gonzalez-Brambila and Veloso (2005) earmark also that, being able to estimate expected productivity of researches, taking into account individual
characteristics, past history, and institutional variables can help design policies to enhance productivity, or can plan for a balance in groups to compensate for the potential existence of age, cohort or other effects. Kotrlik et al (2002) assert also that, number of publications, the extent of higher level advisory services and institutional supports in the faculty environment such as giving time for faculty-based research are very important for research productivity among others. Jung (2012) examined faculty research productivity in Hong Kong academics, and came up with the finding that, research productivity was influenced by factors such as personal characteristics, workload, differences in research styles, and institutional characteristics.

To wind up the overview, determinants of research productivity in higher education are related to individual attributes of the researcher, institutional organization of the faculties and resource centres underlying the university.

3. Research Methodology

This research dealt with the productivity of research in higher education by taking Adama Science and Technology University (ASTU) as a target focus of attention. The descriptive survey design of cross-sectional form was used to help the researcher to look into determinants of research in higher education by taking Adama Science and Technology as an exemplum with its overall standards, focus, and communication system. Being descriptive, the research was also based on quantitative data to the largest extent with selectively lesser qualitative assertions.

Data were collected from selected teachers of different academic standards in the form of experiential self-report. Stratified random sampling was used to select respondents from the diverse staff members of the schools of engineering, humanities and law and education where 30 teachers had parts. Instruments of
data collection were open-ended questionnaire and semi-structured interview. For objective treatment of data, focus was also be made on experiences and activities done at the respective levels.

Techniques of data collection were such that, first questionnaire were prepared, edited for possible errors and then distributed to the concerned sites. Upon distribution, due orientation was given for respondents to give responses as much objectively as possible. Then, interview consent was formed with the purposively selected group, and interview data were collected. The collected data was finally analyzed, and interpretations were given with the support of statistical and interpretive techniques based on which summary of major findings, conclusions and important recommendations were given.

**4. Presentation and Analysis of Data**

4.1 Introduction

Under this part of the research data organization and analysis has been set. First, the collected data were organized and set in table; and then, due interpretation and implications were given. In the initial case, respondents’ demographic characteristics were presented for the purpose of denoting inclusiveness of data provision. Then, questions for the research proper were presented and analyzed.

**4.2 Individual Determinants on Holding Research**

Under this part of the presentation, data related to individual determinants of research were looked into. These included research skills, number of publications across levels, and terminal visits and presentations at national and international levels.

**4.2.1 Respondents’ Experience**
Table 4.2.1 Respondents’ Overall Experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One To Five</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six To Ten</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eleven To Fifteen</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>71.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixteen To Twenty</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>77.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twenty-One And Above</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>31</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in 4.2.1, 10 of the respondents (32.3%) were in the range of 11 to 15 years of experience, and 7 (22.6%) of them had work experience of six to ten years. An equal number of respondents (7, 22.6%) also had the experience range above 21 years, and 5 (16.1%) had work experience of one to five years. The least number of respondents was in the range of services between sixteen and twenty (2, 6.5%). The point in view was that, though years of stay in an institute may not represent rich dose of experience, experience gained over time enhances the knowledge, skills and productivity of workers (Rice, 2010; Jensen, 2009).

4.2.2 Staff In-service Research

Table 4.2.2: Have you held any in-service research since you got graduated?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

14
As indicated in Table 4.2, majority of the respondents (21, 70%) affirmed their holding research. Only 8 (26.7%) of the respondents denoted not doing any in-service research. One respondent (3.3%) abstained; that is, s/he did not give any response.

From the data presented above, most of the sample teachers had research experiences. But from the related data on the number of research works made at the different levels of study was very less at Bachelor’s Degree level and after PhD. Hine (2013) states that, on-the-job research is the pathway for extensive promotion in teaching and professional development which has the collective effect of bringing progress to the entire staff as well as individual practitioners. Mizell (2010), underlining the importance of professional development for individual and institutional progress, earmarks that, the high rate of investment in research and other forms of staff capacity enhancement is worth its cost since it effects in due changes in activities and procedures followed.

4.2.3 Research across Levels

Table 4.2. 3 How many researchers have you held across levels you have attained?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid No.</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>73.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid BA/BSc</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
While most of the staff denoted their doing research as indicated under Table 4.2.3, the number of research works held across levels indicates that, most of the researches were held at MA /MSc levels (53.3%). Whereas 4 respondents (13.3%) indicated their doing research after PhD level, 3 of the respondents (10%) indicated their doing research at BA/BSc level. The implication is that, at the two extreme levels, the rate of research was very low. Experience-wise, there was no any definite concordance between years of service and number of researches held.

### 4.2.4 Identification of Thematic Areas

**Table 4.2.4** Did you have access institutional research thematic areas for your research?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not sure</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding institutional contribution to identify research thematic areas, most of the respondents denoted that they did not get any institutional notification
(13, 43.3%), whereas 12 (40%) indicated their lack of surety, and 5 (16.7%) denoted their getting in touch with research thematic areas. From the data, it could be inferred, therefore, that the staff did not have similar cognizance of the research thematic areas announced in the university.

### 4.2.5 Staff Perception of their Research Skill

**Table 4.2.5 How Do You Weigh Your Research Skill?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vali</td>
<td>Rich</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vali</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vali</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The other point of concern to which responses were sought on the part of sample teachers was their perceptions of individual research skill to which 20 (66.7%) denoted having very rich skill, whereas 10 (33.3%) denoted their not having so. From the data and subsequent reflection, it could be noted that, the sample teachers’ research skills were variant in a sense that, they did not have equal standards of skills in holding research. Rice (2010) stresses factors such as teaching skills, professional characteristics and classroom climate to be essential for teacher development and institutional progress. Such progresses cannot just happen; rather they need to be cultivated through practice. So, the teachers’ research skill perception was an essential part of the issue in question, perhaps found to be in a good state as denoted in most of the responses given. However, there was also a noticeable gap in skills which could be made up through training. Besides the teachers’ individual traits, institutional determinants of research were also looked into as under.
4.3 Institutional Factors

In researching institutional determinants of research productivity, a checklist with 10 points and three response options was administered to the teachers. Parallel to the teachers’ reactions, top-officials’ reflections on the different provisions were looked into. Then, overall implications were given to both the teachers’ and officers’ responses as stated in the line below:

### 4.3.1 Institutional Allotment of Research Budget

Table 4.3.1 The institute allots me sufficient financial support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>93.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not sure to agree or disagree.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the data presented in table 4.3.1, it is evident that, the responses on institutional financial support were not with strong base. This is manifest in line with the respondents’ reactions where only 6(20%) affirmed their getting
sufficient financial support; 2 (6.7%) indicated their not being so sure about even the very existence of support, and, the majority (22, 73.3%) affirmed their never getting any support.

It still remains a question whether researchers’ failure to get financial support is their own lack of readiness as the institute requests to entertain or the institute’s stringency.

Contrary to the above, data from top officials collected through semi-structured interview indicated the following:

As far as research works appeared with valid proposals, the university has full potential to support. But, what seeks due attention, in the first place, is the nature of proposed research. Some of the proposed works do not look like a research since they never follow the proper format. Others are proposed too ambitiously and fail to see a good end (P₁, May 26, 2015).

From the qualitative data presented above, it is evident that, the proposed researches lacked due methodological format and feasibility effect in meeting the demands of the proposed work and satiating the overall institutional need.

It could be ascertained further that, there was a very wide gap between how teachers perceived their experiences and the institutional expectation. The other aspect of the research pitfall was on too much ambition borne by practitioners where plan and disposal did not match. Regarding this, in their study on institutional research productivity, David (2014) asserts that, staff qualification [research experience] affects the research output. Yet, as indicated in the response given to personal experience in holding research, majority of the respondents indicated their having rich experience in research. The gap could,
then, be between what the practitioners ascertain to be rich and what the institution consider insufficient.

4.3.2 Arrangement of per-diem and Incentives

4.3.2 The institute arranges per diem and incentives in time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.66%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>76.67%</td>
<td>76.67%</td>
<td>93.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not sure.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.67%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Besides allotting grant money for research work, there may be conditions where researchers need support in terms of per diem and incentives since grant money for research may not lapse longer than the age of research activity. In response to the question whether they got some supports in terms of per diem and incentives, majority (23, 76.67%) of the respondents disagreed; and, only 5(16.66%) agreed.

Perhaps, the percent of responses which showed lack of surety was very small (2, 6.67%). To the contrary, responses from top officials through interview denote the following:

Research works are subsidized on planned bases. The university arranges for researchers to defend their works before undergoing the research proper. The surprise is that, both the researchers and their respective departments do not sieve through the clarity and validity of the research to be done. They seldom make due follow-up on the wherefore of started research as well. Departments and schools simply send
proposals to the top university administration. It is hard to facilitate the expenses when researches held do not have direction, since it, partly, senses like unwarranted expense. (P2, May 17, 2015)

It is evident from the above response that, the university arranges financial resources on the bases of its holdings. Yet, the different units concerned with arranging preconditions that can help facilitation of the different expenses lack due concern. That type of indifference leads to trivialized processing. The overall point is that, the unanimity between top-level expectation and the grassroots processing is not well-adjusted. Some of the responses indicated that, failure to organize research level may have been related with lack of well-built research tradition on the one hand and in-staff inclination to share research remuneration for personal use on the other. By and large, research was not dealt with in the way it could solve problems in the realms of teaching and learning but rather focused on self-will and personal grudge to earn money.

4.3.3 Arrangement of Office and Furniture

Table 4.3.3 The university arranges office and furniture for researchers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not sure.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above holds data on the respondents’ reflections on the arrangement of office and furniture for researchers. By the term “office”, the sense was also
inclusive of space and related complements, and the term “furniture” had references to computers, stationery materials, chairs and tables. In response to the question, majority of the data providers indicated their not getting due support (20, 66.7%). Some of the responses agreed to the idea that, offices and facilities were arranged in due form (6, 20%) while there were also others who did not have any awareness about such facilities (4, 13.3%). The response to the same question on the part of the university top-management denoted the following:

Facilities such as computers and stationery materials are fully organized whether it is for academia or research. What I have reservation on is that, there are no offices separately organized for researchers. This is due to two main reasons. In the first place, it is hard to know who can definitely be made out as a researcher. In the second, the tradition is not well-built up to now. Perhaps, we are arranging for the upcoming sessions. (P3, May 29, 2015)

As evidenced in the above data, there are distinctions on the facility issues. Some of the facilities such as computers (Desktop or Laptop) are settled for teachers by virtue of their being staff. Other facilities (such as offices), as the data above denotes, need verification on who uses them in holding research.

So, the personal aspect lacked clarity for the facility issue to be dealt with. On the top of personal non-identification, there was also lack of well-built research tradition whereupon facilities could be organized for researchers to act on readily available resources.

4.3.4 Opportunity for Advisory Support and Experiential Exchange
Table 4.3.4 There is opportunity for researchers to get advisory support and experiential exchange.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not sure</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding arrangement of advisory supports due researchers, the responses were more to the negative (73.3%), and only limited percentage of responses affirmed (16.7%). It is clear from the data that, the institution had gaps in arranging advisory supports which could help researchers in their endeavour both as complementary and backup provision.

The response from top-officials also denoted lack of well-organized supports excepting those arranged for PhD candidates. One of the top-officials had to say this:

> *In-staff exchange of experiences is expected to be the best means of getting heed on research techniques and pivots. We mostly offer support on graduate research such as Master’s Degree and PhD candidates on the bases of their approved proposals. Otherwise, we leave the in-service research advisory services to the staff overall. There is no experiential exchange subsidized by the university but, at times, university-focused research visits are funded on the conviction that, the in-service research has relevance for the institutional need.* (P1, May 22, 2015).
From the above condensed data, it could be stated that, advisory services for institution-based in-service research were not set to practice. Heggen, Kareth and Kyvik (2010) assert for instance that, the staff in higher education need research for different purposes for which they need guidance and supervision such being research-based teaching, research-based learning, professional practices boosted by research, and improvement of knowledge base. Bulteman-Bos (2008) also asserts that, the relevance in education research is transforming skills of practitioners from simple instructors to researchers thorough skills-exchange and advisory guides. Yet, in the research case underway, there were rare such practices by far.

4.3.5 Reduction of Task-load for Teacher Researchers

Table 4.3.5 The institute reduces task-load for those who hold research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not sure.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One of the challenging points teachers raise as setback on co-curricular activities is heavy workload. Actually, where teachers hold heavy instructional logs, it would be hard to expect them to hold research works of any sort. The question related to workload reduction at institution level was, then, raised to make clear if there were
breakthroughs to let teachers free in order for them to have ample time for research. In that, majority of the respondents disagreed (22, 73.3%) whereas only three respondents (10%) affirmed their getting such a backup. Somewhat considerable was also the response given as not being sure (16.7%). From the above data, it could be evidenced that, teachers were caught up by overworking, and apparently, got short of time for research.

Hence, time-constraint could, somehow, be one of the determinants on teachers’ research endeavors. In the actual sense, however, there were schools without heavy task-load where very few researches were held, like in the School of Education Sciences. Contrary to the data provided above, the non-existence of research endeavors even where there are no heavy task-logs denotes that, other factors than time-constraints could be more determinant on research endeavors by the staff.

4.3.6 Identification and Publicity of Research Thematic Areas

**Table 4.3.6 The university identifies and publicizes research thematic areas on a timely basis.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>63.3</td>
<td>63.3</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not sure.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Though most of the respondents disagreed on the likely provision by the university of research thematic areas (63.3%), a relatively higher rate of response (23.4%) showed agreement on the institutional provision in terms of identifying research thematic areas. Perhaps, there were also respondents who
underlined their not having any heed on research thematic area at all (13.3%). Implications could be derived. While the response on the part of teachers is more to thematic non-identification, the reaction on the part of the university officials takes a different form, as under:

The university organized multi-group teams who identified thematic areas of research at different times. The thematic areas were developed into a document and were sent to respective schools. It is a point of dubiety if or not schools, through their departments, have communicated the thematic areas in order for the staff to develop research scheme. (P₄, May 21, 2015).

From the data above, it could be inferred that, though the university worked on identification of key research focuses through its concerted teams, it was uncertain whether the developed thematic concern reached the staff who could convert the thematic area to research.

4.3.7 Support for Reliable Publishing

4.3.7 The university supports researchers to get reliable publishing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
<th>Valid Percent (%)</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>73.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not sure.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Most of the responses in the above table denote that, there was no provision in terms of supporting publication (50%). Perhaps, some of the responses indicated the contrary, expressing that, there was publication-based support (25.8%) whereas others denoted their having no evidence to claim agreement or disagreement (26.7%). Taking the majority idea to view, the institutional response to interview senses similar to the assertion given above as it states:

We lack university-based research journal to support our research staff. Actually, there are online provisions in indicating which journal they should follow as per their areas, in line with institutions with which Adama Science and Technology has ties. The point to the major is that, the researches held so far do not qualify the standard for international publication, to be sure! (P1, May 26, 2015).

It is clear from the qualitative assertion that, three thematic concerns could be made out. The first thematic concern is one referring to lack of journal on the part of the university. The second thematic concern is that, there is heavy dependence on international journals having ties with the respective university. The third thematic concern goes to the idea that researches held so far lacking due standard and quality. Thus far, the ideal mismatch between what the staff raise as pitfall and the projection on the part of the university officials expressing non-standard in the quality of researches being held indicates that, there is institutional overshadowing over the progresses through research.

4.3.8 Safety of Research Storage

Table 4.3.8 The university gives emphasis to completed works to be stored safely and used as references.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>76.6</td>
<td>76.6</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not sure</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The staff respondents had the impression that, they have never seen research works being given attention in the university repositories, including the highly-paid-for PhD research documents. This is evident from the responses provided in the table and additional remarks the researcher collected from the staff which ran as under:

Though there are initiatives on the part of the staff to hold research both for promotion and institutional development, the rate of facilitation falls far below the required status. Even when you hold research on your own and ask for publicity, no one pays attention to your endeavour. (P1a, Staff Interviewee, May 26, 2015).

From the quoted response, it could be stated that, the research initiatives of the staff are not appreciated and given any space by the university officials, to the level of declining storage and publicity. As denoted in the above lines, the university officials attribute less attention given to research to three basic elements such being institutional hacked tradition which does not allow smooth handling of research, experiential gap on the part of the staff to produce research works that meet the expected quality standard, and lack of commitment on the part of the staff to workout quality research.
4.3.9 Support for Domestic and International Participation in Research

Table 4.3.9. The university supports participation on domestic and international research symposia.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>56.7</td>
<td>56.7</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not sure.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table depicts the fact that, the data to the most inclined to disagreement to institutional support for researchers to participate on national and international symposia (56.7%), and only 8 respondents (26.6%) agreed to the idea that there was support for participating on national and international symposia, and the lowest rate of responses was to lack of surety (16.7%). Here, the top-officials’ responses to interview had a different reflection:

The university supports teachers who have research initiatives. For instance, besides covering full or a part of the accommodation for international symposia, it arranges for incentives where the researches have relevance to academic and practical for the university’s goals. (P1, May 26, 2015).

From the above qualitative explication, it is evident that, the university has some way of helping researchers when they get chances for international symposia. But, there appears to be some kind of reservation on the initiatives with regard
to fitness of the research for the university’s goals. Where the university sticks to nurturing technological experiences, and all goals shine over applied research, science and technology, and engineering, it is hard to imagine a comprehensive view of research across all fields. The initiatives as set across goals are, therefore, prone to a single institution-Engineering, which is termed sin qua non for the progresses sought to come at large.

5. **Summary of Major Findings, Conclusions and Implications**

5.1 Summary of Major Findings

In line with the key questions raised in the onset of the research, major findings were presented as under:

- Though teachers reflected their having efforts and experiences to workout research, wide-scale participation was not witnessed both on the part of the teachers and officers. The findings denoted absence clear guide on the part of the university officers and lack of system-based communication of research pivots on the part of departments and faculties.

- Teachers’ participation on national and international research symposia was not strong basically owing to lack of well-developed research tradition and lack of focus on the part of the practitioners.

- While teachers notified not getting research thematic areas to hold research of innovative values, the university top-officials remarked lack of commitment on the part of teachers even where funded were allotted so far.

- From the data analyzed and discussion so far made, it could be asserted that, both individual and institutional determinants were observed as bottlenecks on research productivity which could be related to production and dissemination of findings for use. With regard
production of research findings, the individual determinants are failure to keep research skills up-to-date, failure to work with immediate departments to get thematic research focus, and giving priority to research-based incentives could stated as the major ones. Institutional determinants include rarity of opportunity for publication and dissemination of research, very tight condition of work and lack of offices and facilities.

5.2 Conclusions

In relation to the above findings, it could be concluded that, research in the target university was not well-handled both at individual and institutional levels, in a sense that, though majority of the teachers affirmed their having dependable research skills; there were no visibly produced works. The top officials’ assertions denoted staff research endeavours to be below standards but there have not been any attempts made to develop teachers’ skills. Exchange of research experiences at national and international levels was also of very rare nature with regard to comprehensiveness, consistency and depth of workability. Moreover, the correlation between years of service (so far termed experience) and number of research works produced was very low(r=0.079).

5.3 Implications

Taken research as the crucial instrument of development, it is essential for teachers to hold research for their own very promotion and improvement of practices. In line with this reality, it is essential for teachers in Adama Science and Technology University to update their research skills both at individual and team levels. The host institutions (respective schools and departments) should also adjust conditions for staff research by identifying and communicating thematic areas and paving ways for their communication in a workable manner.
The university, overall, needs to develop a wider realm of exchange for its staff besides the university-industry linkage widely heralded so far, since learning and research are for human development. The university should also see to research from the wider perspective of using research for knowledge development besides immediate consumption.

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Revenue Generation Strategies from Educational Services in Sub-Saharan African Universities

By: Fisseha Mamo (PhD)

Abstract
This paper aims to explore revenue generation strategies from educational services in Sub-Saharan African (SSA) Universities. It is premised in the argument that almost all higher education systems in Sub-Saharan African countries are increasingly under pressure due to rising student populations and mounting costs of teaching and research activities. The paper attempts to analyse the enablers for and barriers to revenue generation from educational services within SSA universities. A resource dependence theory and a neo-institutional theory were used as a theoretical lens to understand revenue generation from educational services in Sub-Saharan African universities. These theories promote that any action of the focal organization is aimed at acquiring resources from its environment. In the organizational environment one can detect the key external stakeholders that are capable of influencing the behavior of a resource recipient university. University may implement various strategies either to comply with the environmental demands in ways close to their individual mission, to avoid and/or alter these demands.

The research model derived from these theories enables me to examine how universities have shaped the relationships with their environment in the process

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of acquiring resources essential for their survival. A case study method grounded in a qualitative research approach was employed in this study. Four universities in three African countries (Ethiopia, Kenya, and South Africa) were selected using purposive sampling technique. Two of the four universities are from Ethiopia (Haramaya University and Adama Science and Technology University), one is from Kenya (Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology) and another from South Africa (Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University). The case studies are based on interview checklist with open-ended questions and desk review. A content analysis, an analysis at the individual case study university, and a comparative analysis across the case study universities were employed as techniques for data analysis. Based on a rich set of data from almost 70 interviews held with university staff (from senior university leadership to frontline actors) and an analysis of documents relating to the universities’ tasks and their regulatory environment, I categorized the various revenue generation initiatives undertaken by universities. The study has shown that with varying levels of success, the case study universities have all diversified their revenue structure by formulating adaptation and altering strategies. The proportion of external revenues in the Kenyan and South African universities even exceeds the recurrent budget from their respective national governments. Student tuition fees were uniformly the largest source of revenue across all case study universities. In particular, one can observe a diversification in the courses offered both horizontally and vertically (to limited extent); the most popular new courses established were in social sciences, business, and management, because these had relatively limited investment requirements and were also greatly in demand from students.

In order to link up with outside organizations and groups, a number of academic units (e.g. academic departments, institutes, centers, continuing education offices) were set up. The case study universities have also
implemented procedures, incentives and professional approaches towards revenue generation in order to deal flexibly with the demands from (potential) stakeholders. The four universities also formed strategic alliances with other educational organizations to create additional capabilities that pragmatically increased their range of viable responses to diverse types of students who wish to use their educational services. This study identified a number of factors that enable for and erect barriers to revenue generation by universities. The findings of the study further revealed that the types and nature of stakeholders, the regulatory framework, funding and incentive schemes linked to the external environments of universities influence the capacity of universities to generate revenue from educational services. In particular, the limited degrees of financial and staffing autonomy granted to the universities negatively affect revenue generation efforts. Although the organizational environments of the case study universities offer much opportunity to generate additional revenue from postgraduate education, these opportunities were not fully exploited by the Ethiopian and Kenyan universities due to university specific conditions. Internally, leadership commitment to revenue generation, internal governance and management processes, absence of sufficiently qualified and motivated academic staff and professional managers, and inadequate non-human resources of the universities influence revenue generation. Big obstacles are the lack of sufficiently qualified personnel and research infrastructure. With the exception of the South African case study university, I must conclude that the case study universities have not yet diversified their revenue base to a level of ensuring financial sustainability. Finally, this study provides some policy recommendations that will help universities in Sub-Saharan Africa improve their revenue generation abilities and increase their financial sustainability. The findings of the study will enable policy makers (lawmakers) to revise laws, award better institutional autonomy and improve resource allocation
mechanisms. At the university level, it will have implications on the overall operations of the university in order to better manage resource dependencies.

1. Background

Financial sustainability is one of the key challenges for public universities in both developed and developing countries (Fisseha Mamo, 2015). Economic, social, political, and technological changes in the higher education context across the globe have been creating challenges for financing universities (Clark, 2004; Jongbloed, 2004; Massy, 2003; Fisseha Mamo, 2015). Having studied the current financial challenges including how national governments’ capacity for financing higher education systems has fallen significantly, several authors generally concluded that there are poor prospects for public funding catching up with ever-increasing higher education expenditures (see Clark, 1998, 2004; Massy, 2003; Johnstone, 1998; Jongbloed, 2004; OECD, 2008; World Bank, 2010). Specific to the Africa context, the current modest expansion in higher education enrolment has made higher education financing more complex and challenging in many Sub Saharan African countries (Fisseha Mamo, 2015; Ouma, 2007).

Nowadays, financing higher education in Africa is increasingly becoming an important topic in higher education policy debates when rapidly rising social demands for higher education have to be met in the context of constrained resources. Many researchers suggest that one of the organizational adaptation strategies for universities is to raise more and more of their own revenues to ensure their financial sustainability (see Clark, 1998; Fisseha Mamo, 2015). A need to diversify resources implies that universities are required to undertake a variety of revenue generating activities (Shatlock, 2003; Jongbloed, 2003; Leslie & Slaughter, 1997; EUA, 2011; Hearn, 2003); viz., academic and non-academic activities.
One of the revenue generation activities for public universities is acquiring resources from diverse stakeholders in exchanges for educational services including its short-term training. Although the financial challenges for public universities have many similarities between countries, it is not clear how these issues should be addressed in different socio-economic and political contexts. A review of the existing empirical studies also indicates that revenue generation strategies in higher education organizations in the Sub-Saharan African context are rarely addressed (see Fisseha Mamo, 2015). Strategies for overcoming the financial challenge and the implications of the chosen strategies in the African socio-economic and political context are also understudied. Our understanding of revenue generation from educational services and the forces that erect barriers to it is still very limited. This suggests that the analysis of revenue generation strategies from educational services in the context of Sub-Saharan African countries is an area of much interest for empirical study.

2. Statement of the Problem
As has been indicated in the background of this paper, financial sustainability has been the topic of many recent policy debates on the African higher education landscape. Revenue generation has consequently been given greater attention as a strategy for financial sustainability. While universities can earn money in exchanges for their academic and non-academic services and products, we are here very much interested with the strategies that sub-Saharan universities have formulated for generating revenues from their educational services. The purpose of this study is thus to contribute to our understanding of how Sub-Saharan African public universities can improve their financial sustainability by diversifying their resources through educational services while continuing to accommodate growth in higher education enrolment. Thus, the central research question of this paper may be stated as: what are the key
strategies formulated by Sub-Saharan African universities to generate revenues from their educational services?

This fundamental research problem is further broken down into three basic research questions:

i. What is the actual practice of revenue generation from educational services in Sub-Saharan African universities? What strategies are devised for revenue generation?

This question will be addressed through a review of the literature on education performance of universities in Sub-Saharan African countries. In addition, empirical data on the current practices of research performance from four case study Sub-Saharan African public universities (i.e. Ethiopia, Kenya, and South Africa) will contribute to answering the first research question.

ii. What are the enablers for and barriers to revenue generation from education services in Sub-Saharan African public universities?

Theoretically, this question will be approached through resource dependence theory and Neo Institutional theory. Empirically, the case study universities contribute for identifying enablers for and barriers to research performance in Sub-Saharan African public universities.

iii. Given what we know from theory and international practice, how can barriers be overcome and enablers be introduced for better revenue generation from educational services in Sub-Saharan African universities?

3. Theories and Research Model

A conceptual lens derived from resource dependence theory (RDT) and neo-institutional theory (NIT) guides this research. As Sub-Saharan African
countries have a complex variety of legacies stemming from colonization by various European countries, these historical differences have shaped the specific higher education systems and organizations in certain ways. In this study, NIT is concerned with the compliance of universities to their institutional environment and the mimicking of other organizations in the organizational field. Universities do so by adhering to the rules, taken-for-granted assumptions, myths, and routines about what constitutes appropriate or legitimate organizational forms and behavior (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). In neo-institutional theory, legitimacy is seen as a dominant factor guaranteeing survival and security. In order to gain legitimacy, universities must find ways to convince other internal and external actors of their functioning so that others show ‘confidence and good faith’. The application of NIT in this paper will enable us to understand how norms, rules, values, routines, and taken-for-granted behavior influence the revenue generation strategies of universities form their educational services.

RDT is centrally concerned with the extent of organizational dependence on its task environments, where the organization is constrained by the external dependencies of those who control resources (Aldrich, 1979; Pfeffer&Salancik, 1978). According to a resource dependence perspective, organizational stability is achieved through the exercise of power, control, or the negotiation of interdependencies for purposes of achieving a stable inflow of vital resources that reduce environmental uncertainty (Oliver, 1991). So, organizations play an active role in their day-to-day operations. This insight allows us to understand the creation of strategies in universities that would not only help to adapt to the environment, but also actively manipulate the environment. Generally, the two theories may contribute to the detailed analysis of enablers for and barrier to the implementation of research mission at four universities in three countries.
1.1.1. Research Model

Strategies

1. Dependent Variables

Strategies

Strategies that universities employ to implement their revenue generation from education services make up the first dependent variable. The concept of strategy has been adopted from the military, and later adapted for use in business and public organizations including universities. There is very little agreement as to the meaning of strategy (Steiner, 1979) as the term is generally a broad and ambiguous topic (Fisseha Mamo, 2015). What, then, is strategy in this research? Strategy is understood as the direction and scope of universities’ efforts to achieve advantages in an environment through their configuration of resources and competences. It is concerned with how the university will achieve its revenue generation agenda from educational services by making choices with
regard to direction, allocation of people, and allocation of means and money. We operationalise strategy as indicated in Table 1 below.

**Table 1: Operationalisation of University Strategies for research**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiating differentiation of educational services</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting up dedicated academic units for education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting up dedicated organizational support units for education management</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introducing financial and non-financial incentives that include:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) University’s Internal Resource Allocation Mechanism:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The degree of lump sum versus itemized funding;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The degree of centralization/decentralization;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The use of premiums/incentives for encouraging particular behavior/performances).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) University’s Human Resource policies:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Selection &amp; evaluation criteria for staff;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Promotion of staff;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Shaping of working conditions for staff.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating alliances &amp; consortia with other organizations (universities, companies, etc.) in the environment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lobbying for deregulation or reregulation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

45
**Earned revenue (in monetary term)**

The second dependent variable is concerned with the actual earned revenue from educational services by the university. It is an amount of money earned by the university (often in a budgetary year) from diverse stakeholders in exchanges for its educational services. Table 2 below depicts the operationalization of the second dependent variable.

**Table 2: Operationalisation of earned revenue by the universities in monetary term**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Earned revenue</td>
<td>Share of income from diverse stakeholders</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2. Independent Variables

There are two independent variables: university characteristics and organizational environment. The first set of independent variables deals with the characteristics of a university. As universities are complex organizations, their success in generating revenue from educational services is contingent upon their unique characteristics. In this research, four variables measure the variation between universities: mission, disciplinary configurations/specializations, internal governance and leadership, and human and non-human resources (see Fisseha Mamo, 2015). We are interested in the mission of a university since the mission statement of a university can show the degree of attention paid towards research. The disciplinary configuration or specializations of a university, which consist of the research areas in which the university is active, may affect the propensity of the university to undertake
research for certain stakeholders in its environment. *Internal governance* is defined in terms of the positions and responsibilities in the governance structure of a university. The internal policies, regulations, and structures related to education are indications of the willingness of a university to support its revenue generation strategies from educational services. The university leadership’s commitment to revenue generation from educational services is of crucial importance, since the leadership plays a major role in how a university meets external demands and expectations (Gornitzka & Maassen, 1998). The *leadership* is here defined as the structure (positions, offices, and formal roles) and processes through which individuals seek to influence decisions (Sporn, 2001).

*Human and nonhuman resources:* A university needs to acquire adequate human and nonhuman resources to achieve its chosen strategies for revenue generation from educational services (Dill, 2003). Human resources consist of both academic and administrative support staff. The most important element for creating and disseminating good quality useful knowledge in a university may be the knowledge embedded in academic staff. In this regard, permanent academic staff with doctoral qualifications, and other senior academic staff who hold ranks of (full) professor or associate professor are of importance (see Altbach, 1991). Other inputs like financial resources and physical resources such as technologies, books and networks, also shape the decisions and choices of a university (Dill, 2003). Each of these variables is operationalised in Table 3 below.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mission Statement</td>
<td>Degree of attention paid to education in the university’s mission statement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disciplinary configuration or Specializations</td>
<td>Main educational units (e.g. academic departments, support units)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Areas of Specialization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Governance and Leadership</td>
<td>The degree of centralized or decentralized decision-making procedures in the university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positions in charge of revenue generation from educational services in the university.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Degree of attention paid to revenue generation from educational services in the university’s strategic and operational plans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human and Non-Human Resources</td>
<td>Total budget (for recurrent and capital items) and its composition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Academic staff volume and composition (incl. share who are holders of Master’s and PhD degrees; distribution across disciplinary areas).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expertise of support staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Education and research equipment and facilities owned by the university.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The organizational environment of a university is operationalized by three major variables: societal environment, stakeholder salience, and organizational autonomy. The general or societal environment impacting on a university
includes social, political, and economic events that the university faces (see Sporn, 2001; Duczmal, 2006; Gumport & Sporn, 1999). Social trends mainly relate to demographic patterns that may determine the number and types of student body in universities (OECD, 2008). Economic trends can affect the financial stability of universities as universities have to obtain a certain share of budget from their national government. The overall growth of the national economy generally enables universities to generate additional revenue from the environment (Court, 1999). Economic trends also include the national economic structure (Dill, 2003) that influences the range and complexity job skills (Ramirez, Riddle, 1991). Political trends are described in terms of the system of authority that governs the country in which the case study university is located. Political parties and public decision-making bodies can influence the role of universities in national development (CHET, 2011). The societal environment is operationalized in Table 4 below.

Different types of external stakeholders such as regulators, suppliers, customers, and competitors may be distinguished (Freeman, 1984:16; see also Enders, Jongbloed, & Salerno, 2008). Each type of stakeholder holds a different set of resources and may place different demands on the university. This suggests that there is a need for identifying the main stakeholder groups. We operationalize the external stakeholder and their salience to a university in Table 4 below.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Economic Conditions</td>
<td>- Amount of funding made available to higher education system from the state budget.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Changes in the structure of the national economy (in terms of the relative size of the service sector, the manufacturing sector and the agricultural sector).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Commitment to Higher Education</td>
<td>- Role of higher education in national development strategies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Share of higher education budget in overall education budget.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regulation may be defined as a restriction affecting organizations’ freedom to exercise their rights and liberties (Jongbloed, 2004). More specifically, it stipulates the extent to which a regulatory body seeks to control a university (Jongbloed, 2004; Becher & Kogan, 1992). The law, among other things, defines the autonomy or the degree of freedom the university has to steer itself (see OECD, 2008; Berdahl 1990). Four basic dimensions of autonomy are operationalised in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Operationalisation of Organizational Autonomy
### Variables | Indicators
--- | ---
Financial Autonomy | Acquiring and allocating funding, accumulating surplus, lump-sum or block grant funding, setting prices for educational services, own buildings, borrowing money from banks
Staffing Autonomy | Responsibility for recruitment, promotions, dismissal, and salaries
Organizational Autonomy | Setting university internal governance and decision-making structures/bodies, and introducing academic structures (faculties, departments, research centers).
Academic Autonomy | Deciding on student admission and numbers

## 4. Research Methods

As the nature of revenue generation in higher education organizations is complex, dynamic and multidimensional, involving a large number of actors inside and outside of the university organization, a case-study method is well-suited to investigating the issue in its real-life context (see Yin, 1994:1-13). This case study method is particularly helpful when the context of the organization and the organizational environment is important (Hartley, 1994. My intention in choosing the case study method is that every case may serve a specific purpose within the research (Yin, 2003; Stake, 2003). More specifically, a multiple case study design is used for studying universities that operate in different countries.

### 4.1.1 Selection of the Case Study Universities
Four Sub-Saharan African public universities in three countries (Ethiopia, Kenya, and South Africa) were selected for investigating their revenue generation strategies from educational services. The selection of the countries is based on the idea of “purposive sampling” in order to acquire rich information (see Patton, 1987). The main criterion for selecting the countries was their different levels of development in higher education. According to the World Economic Forum (2011/12), the South African Higher Education and Training was ranked 73 out of 142 countries whereas Kenya and Ethiopia ranked 94 and 132 respectively. Secondly, these countries differ significantly in their economic development: South Africa is a relatively advanced or efficiency-driven economy, while Kenya and Ethiopia are factor-driven economies.

The sampling procedure used for the selection of case study universities was a purposive sampling technique (see Silverman, 2000:104), which is one of the most widely used methods in qualitative studies. The selection of case study universities in this research is for 'theoretical representativeness', not based on statistical representativeness (Billiet, 1996:139-140). Two public universities, Adama Science and Technology University (ASTU) and Haramaya University (HU), were selected from Ethiopia. Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) from Kenya and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (NMMU) from South Africa were chosen for the case study.

4.1.2 Empirical Data Collection

Multiple sources of evidence under the rationale of triangulation (Yin, 2003:97) guided the logic behind data collection. Data collection included:

- Literature survey: desk research/exploratory study of research in Sub-Saharan Africa and beyond is undertaken to map the status of revenue
generation from educational services in Sub-Saharan African universities.

- Analysis of data in the four case studies: this includes interviews with key figures from the universities, documentary evidence from the universities and other stakeholders in the environments, and on-looker observation on the campuses of case study universities.

This study relies heavily on evidence collected from the case study universities through interviews. A semi-structured interview guide that was prepared based on the variables identified for this research was used for data collection. Sixty-seven respondents (ranging from senior university leadership to academic and administrative staff) who were directly or indirectly involved in revenue generation agenda from educational services of the case study universities were included in the interviews. Moreover, a documentary analysis was made on the multitude of national development strategies\(^3\), national and organizational regulatory frameworks, strategic and annual plans, organizational physical and financial reports, website text, internal policies and regulations, organizational structures, statistical information, reports by the World Economic Forum, and other research documents from the World Bank, CHET, and the African Association of Universities.

### 4.1.3 Data Analysis

Three types of analysis: (i) content analysis, (ii) analysis at the level of the individual case study university, and (iii) comparative analysis across the four case study universities were applied. The within case analyses provide inputs for the comparative analysis. The major findings from the comparative analysis

\(^3\)The Growth and Transformation Plan of Ethiopia, Vision 2030 of Kenya, and Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) of South Africa and its Vision 2030
of the four case study universities as per the theoretical framework and the operationalization of key variables were presented as follows.

5. Findings and Discussions

5.1. The environments of the case study universities: similarities and differences

As the conceptual approach of the study focuses on the interactions between the environment, university specific conditions, and revenue generation strategies and activities, this section compares and contrasts the environmental contexts of the case study universities for investigating the extent to which the environments of the case study universities influence their revenue generation efforts from educational services.

5.2 The wider societal environment

The findings of this study showed that demographic trends in the three sampled countries positively influence the external demand for higher education. There has been rising social demand for higher education in Ethiopia, Kenya, and South Africa due to high rates of population growth, and rapidly growing school age populations. The annual population growth rate for Ethiopia and Kenya each is 2.6% and it is 1.2% for South Africa (UNPF, 2010). Similarly, the number of pre-higher education graduates (and particularly an increase in secondary school and technical and vocational education enrolment) automatically increases the number of candidates seeking to enter higher education. In Ethiopia, around 31% of students graduating from preparatory schools and TVET will access higher education, as indicated in the Growth and Transformation Plan (MoFED, 2010). This means that there will be an annual intake of 467,000 undergraduate students by 2015. Likewise, Kenya plans to
raise the transition rate from secondary level to university from 8% to 15% in order to reach 20% higher education participation by 2030 from 4.6% in 2008. In South Africa, about 80% of all students enrolled in secondary education successfully pass the exit exam by 2030. The national plan for higher education of South Africa sets a goal of 20% participation by 2016, from the current 15%. The number of undergraduates across the three countries has also rapidly increased demand for postgraduate education. The annual intake for postgraduate programmes (Master’s degrees and PhDs) in Ethiopia will reach 16,100 students by 2015, up from 10,734 in 2009/10. In South Africa, 75% of university academic staff is expected to hold PhDs by 2030. Kenya wishes to rapidly increase graduate enrolments to staff its 15 newly established universities.

The current economic environments of the case study universities generally invite them to play a role in terms of education. The three sampled countries have generally had good recent economic performances (IMF, 2011). In this regards, South Africa is the highest-ranked country in Sub-Saharan Africa and the second-placed among the BRICS economies following China. Recently Ethiopia has been one of the most rapidly growing non-oil economies in Africa. While the growth in the Ethiopian economy enables the country to invest more in the case study universities, revenue from state appropriations remains the same or has reduced in the Kenyan and South African case study universities. Compared to the agriculture-based economies of Ethiopia and Kenya that often need human resources at the intermediate level and in agriculture (see World Bank, 2010:132), the service and industrial based economy in South Africa may require a workforce who have university degrees. A move to develop

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4 In 2011, for instance, South Africa’s GDP by sector shows that agriculture contributed 2.5%, industry 31.6%, and the service sector contributed 65.9.
industrialized knowledge-based economies in all three countries over the next 20 to 30 years may lead to expanded access to higher education. Additionally, the rapidly growing economies in the three countries have already brought significant changes within the employment market and paved the way for higher education to become one of the preconditions for high rates of employment compared to pre-higher education graduates. In South Africa, for example, the unemployment rate for those with university degrees is only 3%, for those with matric it is 28%, but for those without matric it is over 60% (NMMU, 2008).

With regard to political matters, the governments of the three countries have all endorsed the role of higher education in national development. Universities are recognized as strategic ingredients for national development and they are required to contribute to national productivity through the production of a well-educated workforce and research. There are political commitments to the expansion of good quality higher education across the sample countries, backed up by huge investments in their higher education systems. The three countries have maintained their public investment in higher education over recent decades, allocating approximately 0.75% to 1% of their gross domestic products (GDP) and around 14%-32% of public expenditure on education to the higher education systems. This suggests that the wider societal environments of the four case study universities invite them to play a role in expanding educational services and research, which may lead to revenue generation.

5.3. The immediate environment of the four universities: similarities and differences

The findings of this paper show that the four case study universities engage in transactions with similar organizations and groups of individuals (or simply stakeholders) with different capabilities to influence their actions and behaviors
in the process of acquiring resources. The degree to which the stakeholders
influence the four universities varies from one university to another. A
stakeholder’s ability to exercise powers and/or the criticality of the provided
(potential) funds for the universities is used as tools in determining stakeholder
salience below.

5.4. Stakeholder salience in terms of funding

With respect to funding, five main stakeholders provide resources to the case
study universities. The relative importance of these stakeholders to the
universities in terms of the magnitude of the money provided, and their potential
to provide funding in the future, is indicated in Table 6 below.

Table 6: Stakeholder salience in terms of funding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholder</th>
<th>ASTU</th>
<th>HU</th>
<th>JKUAT</th>
<th>NMMU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public Authorities</td>
<td>++++</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>++++</td>
<td>++++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students (and their parents)</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>++++</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donors (bilateral and multilateral)</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministries, Regional and Local</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>authorities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business &amp; Industry</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+++</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: ++++ the most salient  +++more salient  ++ salient  + less salient

The national governments of the three countries were rated as the most salient
stakeholders in all of the case study universities, due to their serious
commitment to spending on their higher education systems. As a percentage of
the education budget, higher education spending equalled 31.7% in Ethiopia,
14% in Kenya, and 15% in South Africa. The national governments use
different funding schemes or resource allocation mechanisms to influence the behaviour of their universities in the process of acquiring resources. Students are the second most important stakeholder for the Ethiopian and South African case study universities, while they are the most salient stakeholders for the Kenyan case study university. JKUAT generated the largest share of its revenues from student tuition fees in the last five years, even more than its main government source. Population growth and rapidly expanding pre-higher education systems (notably increases in secondary graduates) create more opportunities for the case study universities to offer educational services to acquire resources. Business and industry is the third salient stakeholder for NMMU, whereas it is the least salient stakeholder for the Ethiopian and Kenyan case study universities. Ethiopia and Kenya’s industries are often small to medium-scale firms using low technology inputs, while the relatively large industries are subsidiaries of international companies which draw upon the in-house R&D capabilities of their parent company (see also Munyoki et al., 2011). As a result, ASTU, HU, and JKUAT face many challenges in collaborating with these small industrial firms. NMMU is in a completely different setting, with several opportunities for university-industry cooperation. This is because of the economic environment of South Africa that is characterized by both a considerable number of multinational industrial firms, and a growing number of small and medium-sized firms. The concentration of car production industrial firms in Port Elisabeth, where NMMU is situated, has led to an intense collaboration between the university and industrial firms (see CHET, 2010).

5.5. Stakeholder salience in terms of regulatory powers

The stakeholder’s power to influence the four universities is indicated in Table 7.
Table 7: Stakeholder Salience in Terms of Regulations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholder</th>
<th>ASTU</th>
<th>HU</th>
<th>JKUAT</th>
<th>NMMU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>++++</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>++++</td>
<td>++++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donors</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>+++</td>
<td>++</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional associations</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>++</td>
<td>++</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: ++++ the most salient  +++more salient  ++ salient  + less salient

The governments are the most salient stakeholders in terms of their regulatory powers across the case study universities. The Ministry of Education in Ethiopia, the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology (MOHEST) in Kenya, and the Ministry of Higher Education and Training in South Africa are the most prominent stakeholders influencing their respective higher education systems. There are also so-called “intermediate” or “buffer” agencies that carry out particular functions like accreditation and strategic leadership. Compared to the Ethiopian and Kenyan higher education systems, the quality assurance body in South Africa is strong and powerful. NMMU is mainly regulated through an accreditation system led by a statutory body, the Council on Higher Education, and its implementation arm, the Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC).

Several regulatory tools are used (see Fisseha Mamo, 2015) to influence the actions and behavior of the case study universities. The key regulation tools are: the Higher Education Proclamation 650/2009 for Ethiopia, the Universities Act, 2012 and JKUAT Act, 1994 (repealed in 2012) for Kenya, and the Higher Education Act 101 of 1997 for South Africa. The Ethiopian and South African governments legally allow their public universities to be involved in revenue
generation. The Kenyan case study university was neither allowed nor denied permission to pursue additional revenue streams prior to 2012. The newly ratified Universities Act of Kenya openly acknowledges earned revenue from sources other than the government as legitimate revenue for Kenyan public universities. In this paper, I considered four dimensions of autonomy (finance, staffing, education and research, and internal governance) to explore the link between revenue generation and the degree of organizational autonomy, based on the perceptions of the interviewees and documentary evidence. The empirical findings are presented as follows.

With regard to the dimensions of academic autonomy, the findings of this research suggested that the four case study universities enjoy substantial academic autonomy that facilitates their revenue generation from educational services. The academic autonomy allows the universities to find and exploit niches in the academic market place, and thereby create opportunities for the sale of academic services. The findings with respect to the financial autonomy reveal that it is perceived as being lower in the Ethiopian case study universities as ASTU and HU cannot use their core budget to fund revenue generation. Ethiopia’s method of funding follows relatively rigid rules and restricts spending to particular items and regulates the extent to which funds may be switched from one line item to another. The methods of allocating government funds to universities in Kenya and South Africa permit internal resource allocation by the universities themselves (see Fisseha Mamo, 2015; World Bank, 2010). All four case study universities are unable to set salary scales for their staff. Particularly, the inability to control the overall salary costs prevented the Ethiopian case study universities from attracting and retaining qualified and motivated academic and administrative staff. The four case study universities were granted autonomy with respect to internal governance.
5.6. Characteristics of the case study universities: similarities and differences

The four case study universities have different histories, settings, and profiles that are linked to their mission statement, disciplinary configuration or specializations, internal governance and management, and their human and nonhuman resources (see Table 8).

Table 8: Selected university specific conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>ASTU</th>
<th>HU</th>
<th>JKKUAT</th>
<th>NMMU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of University</td>
<td>Comprehensive</td>
<td>Comprehensive</td>
<td>Comprehensive</td>
<td>Comprehensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mission</td>
<td>Teaching,</td>
<td>Teaching,</td>
<td>Teaching,</td>
<td>Teaching,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Research, and</td>
<td>Research, and</td>
<td>research, and</td>
<td>Research, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>services</td>
<td>services</td>
<td>services</td>
<td>services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total student</td>
<td>19,516</td>
<td>30,634</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>26,119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>population in 2010/11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Founded</td>
<td>1983</td>
<td>1952</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emerged as</td>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>Agricultural</td>
<td>Technical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>University</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Technology</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>University</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of this study indicate that all the case study universities have paid due attention to revenue generation in their mission statements. As comprehensive universities, the four universities offer a variety of programmes
(see Table 9) to address the educational requirements of different types of students.

**Table 9: Discipline mix at case study universities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disciplinary field</th>
<th>ASTU</th>
<th>HU</th>
<th>JKUAT</th>
<th>NMMU(^5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engineering and Technology</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural and Computational Science</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine and Health Sciences</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural and Life Sciences</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>●</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business and Economics</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social and Humanities</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: ✓ Available ● Not-available

There are two distinct tiers in the mode of knowledge organization at the four case study universities: undergraduate and postgraduate education (less than 10%). All the universities are predominantly undergraduate teaching universities, with limited engagement in postgraduate education and research. Compared to ASTU and HU, JKUAT and NMMU have engaged in more postgraduate education and research. With respect to their internal governance structures and decision-making processes, all but ASTU typically maintain a ‘deliberative’ structure of committees, with senior academics chairing the committees under the principle of collegial representation alongside the legally enhanced strong executive leadership, which facilitate their revenue generation.

\(^5\) It does not have a faculty of agriculture. Agriculture related courses such as agricultural management and forestry are offered under the faculty of science.
efforts from educational services. Various steering tools are employed in aligning the immediate interests of particular internal actors with the overall missions of the universities. All the case study universities have policies (i.e.; strategic plans, senate legislation, and other academic and non-academic policies) that guide decisions specific to their operations. In contrast to the Ethiopian and Kenyan case study universities, NMMU has several such policies that define the rules of the game in the overall operation of the university for coordinating its human and non-human resources, resource utilization, and reward system effectively and efficiently.

In terms of staffing matters, while the Kenyan and South African case study universities have qualified and motivated academic staff and managerial expertise and competence, the Ethiopian case study universities suffer from shortages of qualified academic staff and professional managers. The proportion of academic staff with a PhD ranges from 5% at ASTU to 38% at NMMU. The staff is characterized by young, inexperienced, and often insufficiently trained staff that lacks the capacity to carry out research or supervise postgraduate students. Ensuring an adequate supply of quality academics is more challenging in disciplines in which the private sector offers much higher salaries and/or better career prospects. Such disciplines typically include computer sciences, business and economic studies and engineering. Another pressing challenge is that staff often spends too little time on their main job because of second jobs and/or moonlighting to compensate for their low salaries. JKUAT and NMMU have comparatively well qualified academic staff who can initiate and undertake research and supervise students as well as hold senior management positions in academic units.

The case study universities employed large numbers of administrative support staff; the ratio of academic to non-academic staff was 1:2.3 for ASTU, 1:2.4 for
HU, and 1:2.07 for JUAT and 1: 1.89 for NMMU in 2010. While the number of staff in support positions is high, the managerial expertise and professionalization of the staff varies widely. JUAT and NMMU were able to attract and retain specialized professional support managers, but HU lacks the professional managers needed to staff the administrative posts at intermediate positions. The latter uses its senior academic staff to run and coordinate administrative tasks. Although the Ethiopian case study universities have grown aware of the need for specialized professional management, the salary levels for support staff do not allow them to attract and retain professional managers.

Whereas JUAT and NMMU obtained less government support as a share of the whole and more support from nongovernmental sources (particularly nonfinancial ministry), the Ethiopian case study universities still obtained about 80-85% of their recurrent and 100% of capital budgets from the main state allocation (see Fisseha Mamo, 2015). To varying degrees, all except NMMU reported lack of adequate facilities in the face of ever-increasing student enrolments. The Ethiopian and Kenyan case study universities operate with over-crowding in classrooms and dormitories, a shortage of teaching materials and laboratories, deterioration of physical facilities, inadequate ICT equipment and computers, and inadequate library stocks. This is particularly a severe case at the Kenyan case study university due to serious challenges in the construction of new buildings to accommodate rising student numbers and to carry out renovations of the existing infrastructures.

5.7. Revenue generation from educational services in the four case study universities

This section compares the similarities and differences in revenue generation from educational services at the four case study universities. The first subsection compares the sources and shares of earned revenues across the case
studies. In the second subsection, we compare and contrast the factors that enable or hinder revenue generation from educational services within and outside the case study universities. Although the revenue generation strategies of the universities could have been part of this section, they are discussed separately.

5.8. Status of Revenue Generation from educational services at the Case Study Universities

All case study universities have, with varying levels of success, responded to the financial problems by constructing a portfolio of stakeholders to share rising costs. Financial contributions from students constitute the most directly available and sustainable revenue source, and therefore they are the most attractive complement to state support. While HU and ASTU earned around 50% of their nongovernmental revenue from educational services, this figure was 89% for JKUAT and close to 60% for NMMU (in 2010).

5.9. Factors that Enable or Hinder Revenue Generation from educational services at the Case Study Universities

The purpose of this subsection is to identify those factors that enable or erect barriers to revenue generation from educational services in the four case study universities. The subsection consists of two parts. The first part compares those environmental factors that enable or hinder revenue generation from educational services at the case study universities. The second part deals with university specific factors that enable or hinder revenue generation from educational services at the four universities.
5.10. Environmental Factors that Enable or Hinder Revenue Generation in the Case Study Universities

The findings of the study show that revenue generation at the case study universities has been influenced by the opportunities and threats in the environments of the case study universities. This study documented that the overall socio-economic and political context of the sampled countries invite the case study universities to play a vital role in the overall development of the countries. In particular, the aspirations of Ethiopia and Kenya to become middle-income countries within the coming 20 to 25 years necessitate an improvement in their human capital through expanding access to higher education. The spectacular progress achieved in the areas of primary and secondary school participation, and the expansion in vocational education in all three countries has raised social demand for higher education. As stated in the strategic development plans of the three countries, more of the working population needs to refresh their skills and knowledge through short courses, which allows the case studies to generate resources by providing short courses and refresher programmes.

The provision of more places in undergraduate education by both private and public higher education organizations offers more opportunities for expanding postgraduate provision, as shown in Table 10 below.

Table 10: Higher education organizations and total enrolment in 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Public universities</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Total Enrolment</th>
<th>Gross tertiary enrolment rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

66
The continued expansion of the demand for higher education across the globe constitutes a driver of revenue generation for JKUAT and NMMU. The Kenyan and South African case study universities have already started to admit international students to expand their sources of revenue. African and Asian countries are lucrative markets for NMMU.

The national governments of the three countries play a key role in supporting revenue generation by providing the right framework conditions. The higher education laws in Ethiopia and South Africa urge public universities to engage in revenue generation. Public universities in Ethiopia are required to generate a minimum of 5% of their overall budget from nongovernmental sources as stated in the Education Sector Development Programme IV of Ethiopia (MoE, 2010). Although the Kenyan case study university was neither formally allowed nor prohibited from revenue generation activities, the heavy involvement of JKUAT in revenue generation indicates that the importance of the legal basis for revenue generation may have been overstated. Conversely, I argue that

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Year 1</th>
<th>Year 2</th>
<th>Total Revenue</th>
<th>Revenue Share</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>467,843</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>180,978</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>837,779</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: WEF 2011-2012 and National Statistics

6 Includes only universities under the auspice of MOE.
7 Only the seven universities and the **15 university colleges are included**. Other Youth Polytechnics, nineteen Technical Training Institutes, fourteen Institutes for Technology, other two National Polytechnics, 11 medical training colleges, etc. are not counted.
8 South Africa has 87 registered and 27 provisionally registered private higher education organizations.
JKUAT might not pursue additional revenue streams if the regulatory frameworks directly prohibited it.

The findings show that revenue generation in universities is enabled or obstructed by the degree of autonomy granted by the regulatory framework in which the case study universities operate. As discussed earlier, the four case study universities enjoy substantial academic and organizational autonomy, which enables them to engage in revenue generation. Nonetheless, the variations in their levels of financial and staffing autonomy influenced their revenue generation. The findings of this study show that freedom in the generation and deployment of monetary resources, the block grant funding system of Kenya and South Africa, the ability to charge tuition fees for nongovernment sponsored students, and freedom in recruiting and promoting academic staff are important enablers for revenue generation. This study also identified the inability to borrow money, line item budgeting in Ethiopia, and the inability to set the salary levels of academic and administrative staff as important barriers to revenue generation.

This study found that government financial initiatives have created opportunities for the case study universities to engage in revenue generation. Noting the low average incomes in Africa, the three countries all implemented a form of student lending scheme. In this regard, Kenya and South Africa have developed student loan schemes for higher education that enable academically able but financially challenged students to participate in higher education. The loan programmes have both cost sharing and access-participation objectives, which is one of the enablers for revenue generation at JKUAT and NMMU. In South Africa, most of the earmarked government budget is set aside for funds for the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS). About 70 financial
assistant providers\(^9\) from government offices, companies, foundations and other organizations offer financial assistance to NMMU students. Similarly, in Kenya, HELB offers loans and bursaries, and scholarships for needy students. Higher education students can also seek support from the Constituency Development Fund. In Ethiopia, there are no financial schemes like HELB and NSFAS that address the financial challenges of full-cost paying students. This could prevent the poorest students from participating in higher education (see Fisseha Mamo, 2015).

5.11. University Specific Factors that Enable or Hinder Revenue Generation at the Case Study Universities

The findings in this chapter identify several university specific factors that enable or obstruct revenue generation from educational services at the four case study universities. As comprehensive universities, the four case study universities offer a variety of academic programmes to address the demands of various students who seek educational services.

One of the factors that create an enabling environment for revenue generation is the composition of the university Councils at JKUAT and NMMU or Boards at ASTU and HU, whose membership is drawn from governmental authorities, the university, and the private sector. This representation of various stakeholders creates an opportunity for promoting the interactions between the universities and their diverse stakeholders. The strong commitment to revenue generation by the senior university leaders of the four universities is another important factor that determines the capacity of the case study universities to

\(^9\) Includes, among others, vice chancellors’ scholarship, bursaries awarded by diverse company sponsors and various departments of government such as education, social development, disability, water affairs, agriculture, forestry and fisheries, cooperative governance, health, national treasury, etc.
generate nongovernmental revenues. The Kenyan and South African\textsuperscript{10} case study universities have formulated policies that provide frameworks for managing their revenue generation activities. The findings indicate that the absence of policies dedicated to revenue generation at the Ethiopian case study universities was one of the barriers to revenue generation. The availability of capital to start-up feasible initiatives is an important condition for revenue generation at all case study universities. The inadequate seed money for a sustainable revenue generation strategy at the Ethiopian case study universities is a major obstacle to engaging in large-scale revenue generation activities. The governance structures and decision-making processes of HU, JKUAT, and NMMU were found to be adequate to embark on a successful revenue generation strategy. In particular, large governance bodies under the principle of collegial representation through a ‘deliberative’ structure of committees and strong executive leadership tend to be supportive to revenue generation. In fact, the web of interlocked central committees has become the heart of NMMU’s capacity to steer itself and this offers real opportunities for revenue generation. Conversely, the experience at ASTU shows that revenue generation will not prosper in a top-down approach.

The results of this study also indicated that qualified and motivated academic staff and managerial expertise and competence matter in developing a successful revenue generation strategy. In this respect, the four case study universities demonstrate significant variations in the capabilities of their human resources. Comparatively, JKUAT and NMMU have sufficiently qualified

\textsuperscript{10} NMMU’s policies include: the management of third stream income generated by NMMU conferences, seminars and workshops, the management of short learning programmes, policy on research contracts, and policy on research funding which are part of its revenue generation agenda.
human resources that enable them to offer education services for revenue generation. Conversely, the low proportion of PhD holders at the Ethiopian case study universities is a barrier to initiating and undertaking supervising graduate students. The absence of highly qualified academic staff at ASTU and HU is a major barrier to attracting new high caliber academics from elsewhere through alliance formation with other organizations in the environment. The Ethiopian case study universities need high quality professional managers to reduce the administrative burden on academics and free them to concentrate on their core tasks (education and research), which lead to revenue generation.

5.12. Revenue Generation Strategies for Educational Services at the Four Case Study Universities

This section attempts to compare the similarities and differences in the case study universities’ revenue generation strategies. At the case study universities, revenue generation has been accorded great attention as a strategy for financial security in their strategic plans\(^{11}\). All the case study universities reported that they planned to increase non-public funding in the future to compensate for decreases in public funds. The comparative strategies for revenue generation are discussed below.

5.13. Differentiation of Educational Services for Revenue Generation

\(^{11}\) Information for formulating strategic plans was gathered through ‘environmental scanning’. A SWOT analysis was carried out. Diverse experts including external consultants were involved in developing the strategic plans to gather knowledge of multiple facets of internal and external conditions. The growth and diversification of revenue streams is identified as one of the strategic issues in JKUAT’s strategic plan (200-2012), NMMU’s vision 2020, ASTU’s framework and HU’s BPR study.
One of the major strategies used for revenue generation by the four case study universities is differentiation of educational services in order to address the demands and expectations of as many stakeholders as possible. The high degree of academic and organizational autonomy that the four universities enjoy reinforces the implementation of this differentiation strategy.

5.14. Differentiation of Educational Services and Short Courses for Revenue Generation

The findings in this study indicate that all the case study universities have differentiated their educational services and short-courses to meet the requirements of their various stakeholders. They involve different academic units (i.e. schools, faculties, departments, and institutes) in revenue generation. Although the amount of money earned has not been uniform across all academic departments and programmes, revenue generation from full-cost paying students has become a characteristic feature of all academic departments in the universities. Most of the expansion in programmes has taken place in the humanities and social sciences where huge capital investments for machinery, laboratories, workshops, and heavy-duty equipment are not required. Within the social sciences and humanities, schools of business and economics have numerous opportunities for generating revenue. Additionally, education-specific strategies and tactics such as diversification in terms of levels, duration, modes of delivery, and target groups have been formulated, to reach as many students as possible. One of the strategies employed to reach different types of students is vertical differentiation of programmes, as shown in Table 11 below.

Table 11: Levels of degrees, diplomas, and certificates offered at the case study universities
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASTU</th>
<th>HU</th>
<th>JKUAT</th>
<th>NMMU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bridging Course</td>
<td>First Degree</td>
<td>Bridging Course</td>
<td>Certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Degree</td>
<td>Master’s Certificate</td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>First Degree (1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; and professional)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate diploma</td>
<td>M tech</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>Postgraduate Diploma</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Master’s (1 or 2 years)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This strategy targets not only students seeking degree programmes but also students seeking certificates at pre-and post-baccalaureate levels. The Ethiopian universities are not legally allowed to offer diploma<sup>12</sup> and certificate level programmes. Provision of undergraduate programmes has grown more than postgraduate provision at the case study universities. For instance, despite huge demand for computer sciences, engineering, law, and business and economic studies at postgraduate level, the universities barely offer PhDs in these areas. One of the main reasons for this is the lack of senior academics that could teach and supervise students and limited research facilities. The extensive vertical differentiation at JKUAT and notably at NMMU allows the universities to address the educational requirements of various stakeholders at different levels of preparation. The vertical differentiation in agricultural fields at HU was one

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<sup>12</sup> Diploma programme is now part of the TVET sector in Ethiopia.
of its strategies for overcoming the competition for full-cost paying undergraduate students from newly established universities in its vicinity (see Fisseha Mamo, 2015).

Several education-specific strategies have been employed by the case study universities to overcome inadequate educational inputs. These include pooling resources to undertake a specific educational activity, expanding their education services into new markets, and/or developing an advantage over a competitor. Running classes at times when the facilities and staff within the departments are usually idle is one of the strategies for revenue generation, as shown in Table 12 below. This strategy allows students to combine work and study.

**Table 12: Programme scheduling**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ASTU</th>
<th>HU</th>
<th>JCUAT</th>
<th>NMMU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evening</td>
<td>Evening</td>
<td>Evening</td>
<td>Evening</td>
<td>Evening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekend</td>
<td>Weekend</td>
<td>Weekend</td>
<td>Weekend</td>
<td>Weekend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summer</td>
<td>Summer</td>
<td>Summer</td>
<td>Summer</td>
<td>Summer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Distance</td>
<td>Distance</td>
<td>Distance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This strategy was devised to overcome the inadequate facilities in terms of lecture halls, library, offices, laboratories, hostels, and other educational inputs, and to take educational services closer to potential customers. The summer programmes at ASTU and HU target employers who can upgrade their staff’s skills during a break time for regular students. The programmes are facilitated by the representation of regional and local authorities on the boards of the Ethiopian case study universities. As part and parcel of their expansion strategy, all the universities have established new campuses (seven at JCUAT, five at NMMU, three at HU, and two at ASTU) in strategic locations to accommodate
the soaring demand for higher education. JKUAT also opened a new overseas campus in Tanzania. Rapid progress in information and communication technologies has fostered the development of new ways of learning, such as distance learning and independent study.

The four universities have created franchises or collaborations with other colleges in their environments. The universities share facilities with other education providers to make optimal use of the facilities (e.g., lecture halls, library facilities, and laboratory spaces) of alliance organizations in order to enroll more full-cost paying students. The strategy of forming alliances reduces early outlays for content development, technical infrastructure, and marketing costs. At JKUAT, partnerships with other learning organizations are the main additions to the revenue generation archetype, where the third party resells JKUAT’s courses in new markets. In other words, the university uses outside parties (colleges and even universities) to deliver educational services traditionally provided by themselves to achieve dual advantages, i.e. to be competitive in that environment while, at the same time, saving money. JKUAT also lobbies private entrepreneurs to construct hostels that enable the university to overcome shortfalls related to facilities and thereby accommodate more students on its main campus (Juja).

The four case study universities offer a variety of short courses in the areas of energy, business and economics, engineering and technology, agricultural sciences, biotechnology, statistics, and the like. ASTU and JKUAT also provide bridging courses for those students whose average matriculation grade may be below the minimum requirements for automatic university admission or who may have scored the required minimum grade but then had inferior grades in subjects considered core for the course desired by the student. The
differentiation strategies for research and consultancy and non-academic services are briefly explained in the subsections that follow.

5.15. Creation of Administrative Support Structures for Stakeholder Management

The second major strategy used by all case study universities was to strengthen their steering capacity for efficient and effective stakeholder management. This strategy appeared in different forms and levels of centralization or decentralization across the case study universities. As part of strengthening their steering capacity, the case study universities created administrative units that promote educational services and handle ‘relationship management’ using their autonomy with respect to internal governance. Two approaches were generally used for this: (i) using the existing organizational structures to implement revenue generation policies to enhance efficiency and reduce costs, and (ii) establishing new organizational structures dedicated to revenue generation within the university.

One of the strategies is the formation of stronger line authority. All the case study universities mandate one of the vice presidents/deputy vice chancellors to oversee or strategically lead their revenue generation efforts, as indicated in Table 13 below.

Table 13: Office in charge of revenue generation at the strategic apex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASTU</td>
<td>Vice President</td>
<td>International Relations, Corporate Communications, and Fund Raising</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
At all the case study universities except ASTU, the administrative backbone fused new managerial values with traditional academic values through committees or teams. The committees or teams comprise different university community members and assist the senior positions in charge of revenue generation. This approach worked well. The absence of such a committee at ASTU hinted that revenue generation was seen as hard managerialism, a very top-down command led approach.

The senior leaders at all the case study universities are well aware of the amount of work that is created by revenue generation. Several outreach administrative units operating as crosscutting offices (see Table 14) were created to support revenue generation and establish better university-environment relationships.

Table 14: Key support offices dealing with revenue generation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HU</td>
<td>Vice President</td>
<td>Institutional Development and Community Engagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JKUAT</td>
<td>Deputy Vice Chancellor</td>
<td>Research, Production and Extension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NMMU</td>
<td>Deputy Vice Chancellor</td>
<td>Research and Engagement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>HU</th>
<th>JKUAT</th>
<th>NMMU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ASTU</td>
<td>- Finance and Accounting</td>
<td>- Financial Administration</td>
<td>- Directorate of Finance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Legal Matters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASTU</th>
<th>HU</th>
<th>JKUAT</th>
<th>NMMU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finance, Procurement and Property Management</td>
<td>Financial Administration</td>
<td>Directorate of Finance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

77
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASTU</th>
<th>HU</th>
<th>JKUAT</th>
<th>NMMU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Public Relations</td>
<td>- Human Resource Management</td>
<td>- Corporate Planning</td>
<td>- Strategic Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- International Office</td>
<td>- Strategic Planning, Monitoring, and Evaluation</td>
<td>- Directorate of Performance Contracting and Appraisal</td>
<td>- Marketing and Corporate Relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Promotion and Marketing</td>
<td>- Purchasing Department</td>
<td>- Legal Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Legal Support and Intellectual Right Protection</td>
<td>- Transport Division</td>
<td>- Management Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Estates and Central Services</td>
<td>- Transformation, Monitoring and Evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Corporate communication office</td>
<td>- Support Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Office for International Education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These offices were not necessarily established solely with the objective of generating revenue, but they offer support for revenue generation. By optimizing tasks in the given structures, the senior university leaders try to achieve efficiency without extensive decentralization of their financial, human resource and procurement management at faculty and departmental levels. Collectively these offices deal with stakeholders within and outside the universities through intensive internal and external communication in order to facilitate linkages at different levels and to address issues of accountability (i.e. in terms of compliance and reporting) once linkages are made.
Along with the university-wide positions, many outreach support offices with the specific mission of assisting revenue generation from educational services have been established as shown in Table 15.

**Table 15: Key support offices dealing with revenue generation from educational services and short-courses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASTU</th>
<th>HU</th>
<th>JKUAT</th>
<th>NMMU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Vice President for Academic Affairs and Undergraduate Studies</td>
<td>- Vice President for Academic Affairs</td>
<td>- Deputy Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs</td>
<td>- Deputy Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Institute of Continuing and Distance Education</td>
<td>- College of Continuing and Distance Education</td>
<td>- Registrar for Academic Affairs and Deputy Registrars</td>
<td>- Academic Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Further Training Institute</td>
<td>- Consultancy and Short-Term Training Office</td>
<td>- Centre for Academic Engagement &amp; Collaboration</td>
<td>- Higher Education Access and Development Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Unit for Continuing Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- International Education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These administrative support offices are in charge of planning of academic programmes, preparation of syllabuses, admissions of students, examinations, certificates and transcripts, library services, etc.. Unlike JKUAT and NMMU, ASTU and HU established a separate university-wide college (HU) and institute (ASTU) that deal with revenue generation from educational services. The outreach offices work closely with other administrative support offices on financial matters, strategic planning, procurement, and human resource management for fostering revenue generation from educational activities.


The third major strategy focuses on using internal resource allocations and human resource policies to stimulate internal actors to engage in revenue generation activities. The four universities have identified revenue generation as one of their strategic priorities for ensuring financial sustainability. In order to address this, all the case study universities formulated policies (though less so in the Ethiopian case study universities) that guide specific decisions about revenue generation. The policies are roadmaps that help in coordinating human and nonhuman resources, resource utilization, and distribution of revenue among diverse internal actors. The Income Generation Unit Policy (IGU policy) at the Kenyan case study university and the four revenue generation related policies at NMMU provide frameworks for the planning and administration of revenue generation activities, modalities for coordination and monitoring, exploitation of potential business opportunities, establishment of income generation units, and guidelines for sharing of revenues and surpluses. At all the case study universities, one of the preconditions for engaging in revenue generation activities is a business plan. This business plan serves as a starting point for revenue generation activity and as a way of ascertaining the feasibility
and profitability of revenue generation activities. The business plan and the policies for revenue generation require a needs identification study before launching any revenue generation activities. One of the problems with most needs identification studies at the Ethiopian and Kenyan case study universities was that they were not properly conducted. Individual academic staff members, motivated by financial gain, often make decisions about launching revenue generation activities.

The business plan, along with the policies for revenue generation, defines the internal resource allocation mechanisms and staffing for revenue generation activities at the case study universities. The availability of capital to start-up feasible initiatives and the ability to use resources with a considerable amount of autonomy is a prime condition for revenue generation. The leadership of the four universities plays a role by creating a positive climate for revenue generation through financial support. Any promising revenue generation initiatives, be it for new activities or for expanding existing programmes, are given seed money, mostly in the form of loans. The seed money covers the costs of feasibility studies for new academic programmes, research projects, and/or advertising and marketing them, or supporting implementation. Two alternatives are available for JKUAT and NMMU as sources of seed money, while there is only one option for ASTU and HU. JKUAT and NMMU receive their core governmental funds in a way that allows the universities to decide internal funding allocations. Seed money can therefore easily come from the main governmental support. They can also use a portion of their earned revenue for pre-investment. However, ASTU and HU cannot use their core budget for this purpose because of the excessive bureaucracy and complexity in the Ethiopian government’s funding, particularly in the case of line item budgeting. The vast majority of seed money at ASTU and HU comes from their earned revenues. As the overall volume of generated revenue is comparatively low, the
Ethiopian case study universities have often faced shortages of seed money to expand their revenue generation activities. Their inability to borrow money from capital markets under any circumstances is also a barrier to engaging in large-scale revenue generation activities. The seed money typically operates like an investment funds, expecting the recipient units to repay the money through the returns on the initial investment. At NMMU, trust funds are pulled together to fund such initiatives. JKUAT supports new revenue generation initiatives through revolving funds.

The academic and administrative staff will only engage in revenue generation as long as they perceive its usefulness and have the opportunity to enjoy monetary and non-monetary rewards. The senior university leaders offer rewards (both monetary and non-monetary) to increase the staff’s commitment to revenue generation. The incentive mechanisms exist at two levels: rewarding staff directly, and/or providing rewards to subunits. JKUAT and NMMU offer incentives for individual staff, departments, colleges, and central university offices that are directly or indirectly involved in revenue generation, in order to increase their commitment to the revenue generation agenda. The Ethiopian case study universities do not have such a sharing ratio for rewarding actors who are directly or indirectly involved in revenue generation. Nor did they directly reward administrative support staff or subunits. The absence of reward mechanisms for administrative support staff and middle and operational level offices at the Ethiopian case study universities has been reported as a main cause for lack of support for revenue generation from these internal actors. The nonmonetary rewards include flexible working hours, training, pleasant working environment, and sabbaticals. Revenue generation from legitimate missions of the university now embraces many aspects, even entire units, of the case study universities. In Massy’s (2009) words, the case study universities
follow the motto of becoming mission centred and market smart in their revenue generation agenda.

The four universities demonstrate that human resource development and high quality managerial skills and practices are essential for successful revenue generation. Engaging in revenue generation requires qualified academic and administrative staff. With varying degrees of success, the four universities have used a variety of strategies to gain the necessary capacity. Although the universities are free to decide on the recruitment and promotion of academic staff as well as determine working conditions for staff, ASTU and HU were unable to attract and retain qualified academic and administrative staff due to their inability to set staff salaries. Revenue generation is not a criterion for recruitment of staff. One of the strategies devised to foster the human resource capacity of a university is creating partnerships with other research institutes and universities, thereby sharing the expertise of their partners. NMMU also offers financial support to postdoctoral students in order to enhance its research capacity. All the case study universities are free to decide on promotion of their academic staff but none of them use revenue generation as a major criterion for the promotion of academic staff. The criteria by which faculty and administrators judge academic work remain unchanged and persist in prioritizing conventional forms of education and research. As the promotion of academic staff is usually decided on the number and quality of publications, this has indirectly fostered revenue generation from research at NMMU.

One of the strategies that ASTU devised to attract and retain professional managers was lobbying the Ethiopian government to allow the university to decide the salary scale for its senior administrative staff. This special privilege created the capacity to improve its stakeholder management. JKUAT and NMMU have been able to recruit professional managers to carry out the
required support services. The introduction of performance contracting\textsuperscript{13} and the formulation of service charters following public service reforms in Kenya substantially improved the university’s service delivery capacity. JKUAT’s ISO 9001:2008 QMS certifications also contributed to that end.

6. Conclusion

This paper attempted to compare and contrast revenue generation from educational services at the four case study universities situated in three Sub-Saharan African countries using the resource dependence and neo-institutional perspectives as its theoretical lens. With variations in the distribution of resource dependence at the four universities and varying levels of success, all the case study universities have been able to win revenue from multiple sources. While the Kenyan and South African case study universities obtain the majority of their financial resources from the nongovernmental sources (around 57\%-60\% in 2010), the Ethiopian case study universities are still largely dependent on government funding (around 80\% of their recurrent budget in 2010). With regard to nongovernmental resources, student tuition fees were uniformly the largest source of revenue across all case study universities. This variation in acquiring resources from educational services is attributed internally to their human and nonhuman resources, and externally to environmental opportunities including organizational autonomy. With various levels of success and achievements, the four case study universities devised both adapting and altering strategies for acquiring resources from education services. The key adapting strategies across all the case study universities include differentiation of educational services (horizontally and vertically), opening (satellite)

\textsuperscript{13} Performance contract is a management tool aimed at improving efficiency and effectiveness in the management of public services.
campuses in strategic locations, devising diverse modes of delivery (face to face or distance), and differentiation of student population in terms of their study period (weekdays, weekends, summer, or evening). Some of these strategies focused on using the existing resources of the universities as efficiently as possible. The four universities also formed strategic alliances with other educational organizations to create additional capabilities that pragmatically increased their range of viable responses to diverse types of students who wish to use their educational services. The presence of regional or provisional authorities on the boards or councils of the case study universities, as well as the formation of a strong alumni association by JKUAT, also enabled the case studies to have preferential access to resources by offering educational services and short courses to regional or provisional stakeholders.

7. Recommendations

Overall, revenue generation in the context of Sub-Saharan African universities is constrained by a multitude of interrelated factors in both the internal and external environments, as indicated above. This implies that there is a need for improvement in both the internal and external environments of the universities to bring positive changes in current revenue generation practice. Based on the findings above, the following recommendations are suggested:

- There is a need for continuous improvement of leadership and management capacity through training.
- There is a need for designing and implementing effective resource allocation models that provide incentives for revenue generation at faculty and departmental levels. This needs to give academic and administrative staff the opportunity to receive monetary rewards for their efforts. At the same time, it needs to ensure that there is a central
revenue stream that serves to create seed money and capital for new ideas that cannot be funded out of recurrent revenue.

- Those public authorities who are best supporting university revenue generation activity are those which have delivered reforms which give universities autonomy to take decisions, and at the same time hold the universities more strictly accountable for the exercise of those freedoms in meeting overall public policy goals.

- There are a variety of methods that can be used to ensure that public funding is stimulating and not discouraging revenue generation. Part of this can be done by using funding formulas, competitive funding and/or earmarked funding as mechanisms of resource allocations. Given that revenue generation is also dependent on excellence, governments should also seek to stimulate that, and notably, ensure that there is adequate public funding provided (e.g. through loans) for all qualified students to go to university.

- Given the relatively underdeveloped nature of connections between universities and external stakeholders, and the need to generate expertise in working with external partners, this suggests that universities should be encouraged to work with those partners that are most proximate to them. One form of proximity here would be geographical, working with regional and local communities, businesses and authorities. These kinds of local co-operation on the one hand help directly to contribute to the diversification of offer which is central to the adapting strategies and on the other hand help the universities to build up management and shared infrastructure for supporting co-operation around revenue generation.

- In order to set desirable incentive mechanisms to foster revenue diversification from international donors, simplification of funding
schemes by streamlining eligibility conditions and accountability requirements to reduce the administrative burden on universities. There is a need to create mechanisms to support universities applying to funding programmes.

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Quality of Education of Evening Program at Jimma Teacher’s Training College (JTTC): Lessons to be drawn for Ethiopian Higher Education Institutions.

By: Berhanu Nigussie

Abstract

The main objective of the study was to examine the status of evening education program at JTTC. Data for this study were collected from students and instructors as well as the registrar officer were also a major data source. In addition, information from direct class observations and students’ academic records were used as data sources. For triangulation purpose, interview guide, questionnaire, focus group discussion guide, observation checklist and document analysis form were, accordingly, used as instruments for data collection. And, the collected data were analyzed using both qualitative (dominantly) and quantitative methods. The results of the study showed that the dropout rates in all the departments were in large proportion, especially in the department of Civics. The major reason for the dropout was academic dismissal. Furthermore, student respondents described instructors’ lack of subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills, negative attitudes towards evening students, unpunctuality and lack of sufficient educational resources as major problems that had worked against their successful learning. They also added inconvenient teaching-learning atmosphere, timing of the evening program, personal and occupational problems as obstacles to their academic performances. On the
other hand, teacher respondents attributed the challenges to lack of guidance and counseling services, students’ poor educational background, some students’ lack of interest in learning, lack of reference materials in Afan Oromo and ICT services. It was stressed that the quality of teaching-learning at the college was under threat. Ideas were further discussed and implications about quality in evening continuing education program at the college were underlined.

**Key words:** Evening, Education, Teachers’ Training College, Jimma

1. **Introduction**

Education is recognized, by most Educators, as the essential foundation for culture, social and economic development. It is expected to make a contribution to addressing sustainable human development, peace and security, and the quality of life at individual, family, societal and global levels. The Ethiopian Education and Training Policy of 1994 states: “Education enables individuals and society to make all-rounded participation in the development process by acquiring knowledge, ability, skills and attitudes.” And this can be facilitated by expanding and nurturing all educational programs, including evening continuing education.

Higher education institutions are expected to contribute to the formation of the next generation of skilled personnel equipping them with the requisite knowledge and generic wisdom necessary to sustain and develop the national economy. In order to get such benefits, governments have made greater commitments to expand access to higher education (Ashcroft, 2004.) More importantly, together with the expansion of higher education institutions, the issue of quality must be addressed carefully. A failure to address quality of education at the tertiary level could be a hindrance to the overall development attempts. Being educated in higher education institution alone does not
guarantee meeting personal and social expectations. In situations where graduates fail to compete in the world of work, unemployment will rise. When institutions are unable to produce competent graduates, joblessness will rise and creates burden to parents and the country. This requires carefully managed educational process to control personal, societal and institutional crisis. Some other scholars could perceive education as an endless process of developing human capital and it undergoes in a given socio-economic context (Tigh, 1983; Kundu, 1986).

More specifically, evening continuing education program is a voluntary, less costly and compressed part-time educational activity. In contrast to the regular school system, evening education is advantageous to those that are involved in some kind of business and/or those employed but have no opportunity to join the regular system. Hence, it is possible to increase educational opportunities to the less privileged as well as the working people through the evening classes (Cross, 1988; Good, 1973; Smith, Aker and Kidd, 1970).

In many societies, evening education is considered as an alternative means of providing educational opportunities for those that have been previously disadvantaged. Such educational opportunities, once taken, are then believed to provide better access for human resource development in that they help undereducated citizens to improve their academic standards so that they would function satisfactorily in work, family, and the community at large. Undeniably, the intrinsic value of evening education and a desire to be among those who make use of the facilities provided by the service has resulted in an increasing number of students seeking to return to education.

The evening education program offered by government and community schools as well as universities made thousands of youth and adults beneficiaries. Armed
with a marketable skill, and the necessary academic subjects, they may have a chance in the competitive labor market. Usually, they are determined to do something about the opportunity they missed. No citizen, regardless of age, could be denied the opportunity to resume or continue his education (Smith et al., 1970; Knox, 1993, and Terry, 1994). All the above scholars agree that education is an important variable that determines the overall development of a society and a right for every citizen.

In Ethiopia, evening education program in higher institutions can play a significant role by providing education and training to those who are unable to learn in the regular program and maximize educational opportunities for those who are on the job. Supporting this, Mulugeta (1977) has underlined that the primary purposes of the college and university extension have been to supplement the development of high and middle level manpower and to upgrade specific skills. In Jimma Teachers’ Training College and other colleges and universities in Ethiopia, evening/extension programs are open to all eligible individuals. However, the difficulty of successful accomplishment of the program has been observed in different situations. In this case, it is a crisis for the individual students and may be for the country at large. Thus, it was the intention of this study to investigate the quality of evening continuing education program at Jimma Teachers’ Training College (JTTC).

1.2. Objectives

Based on the statement of the problem, the specific objectives of the study were:

- To describe the condition of dropouts and possible reasons for the problem
• To identify major challenges, if any, students and Instructors face, in the process of teaching-learning;

• To pin-point the intensity of impacts of the problems, if any, on the academic performances of the students

• To look into whether these students were equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills needed in the world of work

1.3. Operational Definitions

Basic terms and phrases that were used in the study were presented as follows:

**Academic Performance:** - refers to students’ correct language skills, mastery of grammatical forms, class attendance, class participation, expression of oneself, a score of a student as measured by GPA.

**Adult Education:**- denotes the entire body of organized educational process whatever the context, level and method, whether formal or otherwise, whether they prolong or replace initial education in schools, colleges and universities whereby persons, regarded as adults, by the society to which they belong, develop their abilities, enrich their knowledge, improve technical or professional qualifications and bring about changes in their attitude and behavior in the two fold perspective of full personal development and participation to balanced and independent social, economic and cultural development (UNESCO, 1976:2)

**Adult Educator:** - is a person with a specialized training, education and/ or significant professional experience in the field of adult education, involved in the planning and directing of educational activities for adults (Good, 1973:17).
**Evening/Extension Education:** - is an organized program of education offered to students and other citizens out of the school. It includes formal classes, in various communities in the evening or on Saturday (Good, 1973:230).

**Ethiopian School Leaving Certificate Examination (ESLCE):** - is examination score or grade point average a student obtained while completing high school education program. However, it is no more nowadays; instead EGSECE (Ethiopian General Secondary Education Certificate Examination) and EHEECE (Ethiopian Higher Education Entrance Certificate Examination) are being used.

2. **Methods**

2.1. **Study Area**

The study was conducted in Jimma Teachers’ Training College, Jimma, and South West of Ethiopia

2.2. **Sample and sampling technique**

There were four departments (namely Geography, Civic and Ethical Education, Afaan Oromoo and Biology) that had evening/extension program. By the time the study was conducted, the program was the four years (8 semesters) program; though previously, students had graduated on the seventh semester (three and half years).

The researcher took all the four departments having evening program. All third year students in the three departments and second year students of Afan Oromo (because the department had no third year students) were considered for the document analysis and observation. Only information-rich and experienced
students were selected for interviews and focus group discussions. These students were chosen on voluntarily basis and purposely. They could also share the researcher their experiences of the prior years, which was relevant in making the study more meaningful. Unfortunately, there were no forth year students— they had graduated at the first semester of 2010. However, this study was conducted a year after (2011).

The entrance criteria for these students were according to the standard set by Oromia Education bureau 2.28 for regular Males and 2.14 for regular females; 2.41 for private males and 2.20 for private females. In addition, the Teachers Training Institute (TTI) graduates needed to have a minimum GPA of 2.00 to join the program. Moreover, Instructors teaching the students in each department and registrar officer were used as sources of data.

2.3. Instruments of Data Collection

Tools used in this study to gather relevant data on the issue under investigation were document analysis form for students’ academic records, interview guide, questionnaire, focus group discussions guide, and observation checklist. The content and construct validities of the instruments were checked by experts in the area and used effectively and accordingly. Before the beginning of the interview process, ethical issues were discussed. For example, permission was obtained to record the interview and promise was made about the confidentiality and anonymity of the interviewees’ responses. For this purpose, interview protocol was prepared in a manner that includes ethical issues for this study. The data from interview was primarily collected by tape recorder and brief notes were taken during the interview session focusing on important points.
2.4. Procedures of Data Collection

After explaining the main purpose of the study and getting full-informed consents from all the participants, the researcher started data collection. And, the collected data were classified and organized according to their types and nature.

2.5. Methods of Data Analysis

Both qualitative and quantitative data analysis methods were used in this study. To analyze the collected data, such descriptive statistics as percentages were used. Largely, qualitative methods such as in-depth word description, narration, thematic analysis and direct quotations were used.

3. Results

3.1. Dropout Rates of Students in All the Four Departments and Reasons of the Drop-out

Table 1: Summary of the Dropout rate of Biology Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dep’t</th>
<th>Students registered at 1st year 1st Semester</th>
<th>Students who reached 3rd year</th>
<th>Students Dropped-out in the Middle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biology</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total=53</td>
<td>Total=42</td>
<td>Total=11 (20.75%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be observed from Table 1, the number of students dropped-out of the department of Biology was eleven or about twenty one percent.
Table 2: Summary of the dropout rate of Afan Oromo Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dep’t</th>
<th>Students registered at 1st year 1st Semester</th>
<th>Students who reached 2nd year</th>
<th>Students Dropped-out in the Middle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afan Oromo</td>
<td>M               F</td>
<td>M               F</td>
<td>M               F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14              35</td>
<td>8               26</td>
<td>6               9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total=49        Total=34</td>
<td>Total=15 (30.61%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 clearly showed that fifteen or about thirty one percent of students from the department of Afan Oromo were dropouts.

Table 3: Summary of the dropout rate of Civics Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dep’t</th>
<th>Students registered at 1st year 1st Semester</th>
<th>Students who reached 3rd year</th>
<th>Students Dropped-out in the Middle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Civics</td>
<td>M               F</td>
<td>M               F</td>
<td>M               F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15              44</td>
<td>7               32</td>
<td>8               12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total=59        Total=39</td>
<td>Total = 20 (33.90%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from Table 3 above, twenty or about thirty four percent of students were dropped-out from the department of Civics.
Table 4: Summary of the dropout rate of Geography Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dep’t</th>
<th>Students registered at 1st year 1st Semester</th>
<th>Students who reached 2nd year</th>
<th>Students Dropped-out in the Middle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total=63</td>
<td>Total=45</td>
<td>Total=18 (28.57%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 above indicated that eighteen or about twenty nine percent of the students of the department of Geography were dropouts.

As precisely presented above, the dropout rates in all the departments were really in large proportions, especially in the department of Civics. Accordingly, most respondents pin-pointed the possible reasons for the dropouts as academic problem (predominantly), getting the chances of joining other regular programs such as agriculture, health extension, nursing. Inconvenient teaching-learning atmosphere, consideration of evening program as a secondary activity, timing of the evening program, personal and occupational problems were also some of the reasons they mentioned.

3.2. Challenges to students’ academic performances

When asked about what had challenged their academic performances, the student respondents described the challenges and problems as follows:
1. Some teachers have serious limitations in the subject areas they teach and methods of teaching they use. As the result, we are not benefiting, rather we hate being taught by them.”

2. Few instructors have negative attitudes towards evening students. They do not even consider us as students who have goals and learn towards realizing the goals.” Supplementing this idea, a student who was an experienced TTI teacher expressed his thought as follows:

-------Ok, I am an adult learner having long time and meaningful life experiences which could be shared for others. ----- I also want my ideas be respected and valued. However, some teachers treat us like children-----it should not be like this (Akkana ta’uu hin qabu)!!----We have also something to say!

3. Most teachers are not punctual. We always go to classes according to our schedules; but they don’t come on time. And, if they come, they do so after 15-30 minutes late.” Concerning this issue, a student during FGD said,

----What irritates me most is that when they know that they would not come, they don’t let us know-----very bad (nama gaddisiisa)!!! Another student added saying, -----I know a teacher who came to the class only twice, and compensated his limitation by giving us only ‘A’ and ‘B’ grades------Hmmm---it is a miracle (raajii dha!!)

4. We think that we are not understood that most of us chase after works and come to classes without energy (being tired), sometimes, to the extent that we could not attend to what our teachers teach.

5. Personal and social matters also work against our academic performances.
6. There were serious limitations regarding educational resource like reference books in Afaan Oromoo. Most books shelved in library were in English language, and students hardly understood the language—a significant barrier. In fact, there were modules prepared in Afaan Oromoo but limited in number and terribly full of errors. Moreover, the library spaces were not enough for all the students who needed the services and the facilities within the library were very poor.

The students also stressed that there were no Information Communication Technology (IT) services in the college that could have facilitated their quality learning.

3.3. Challenges and Problems Explained by Teacher Respondents

Similarly, teacher respondents explained the challenges their students faced and problems they encountered with, specifically on the students’ academic performances. And, their responses went as follows:

1. The students are not interested (intrinsically motivated) to learn. Their goal is simply to collect their diplomas at the end of the day and chase work then after. And, obviously, this intention will take them nowhere!”

2. Some students had very poor educational background. Undeniably, this had pervasive impact on their current academic performance and psychological makeup. Supporting this idea, an instructor from Afan Oromo department shared his real teaching experiences with the students (during his interview with the researcher):

"Surprisingly, some students, especially those who joined the department after the completion of 10th grade are really really terrible
(rakkisoo dha!). Few cannot even write their names properly; they can also not differentiate similar words that have different meanings, while writing. For instance, baala (leaf of a tree) vs balaa (an accident); duute (died) vs dute (barking). So, such students are burdens for us, their families and the country as a whole.

3. Actually, some students may have financial, personal, occupational problems. Their big faults are that they fail to work to change the challenges into opportunities. For example, they don’t attempt reading and referring to related materials, they rather ask for handouts that tests and exams will focus on; few of them are packages of absenteeism—rarely attend classes.

4. More importantly, rather than working hard and achieving good grades, very few students suffocate the offices of their teachers, begging grades by way of crying, seducing and using all proven strategies that could help them snatch the grades from the teachers. But, their rationalizations are all trash and implausible.” In relation to this idea, a Geography teacher, during FGD, forwarded his concrete experience like this:

-------After a girl stayed in the office, I shared with others, for about one and half hours crying, seducing and sometimes trying to fool me, I warn my students on this issue from the very beginning of a class if at all I am forced to teach evening students; otherwise I don’t want to teach evening students then after!

5. Absence of guidance and counseling service for the students was also a real problem. There were no such services even for regular students, leave alone for the evening students.

3.4. Analysis of direct observation data and students’ academic records
During series of observations of classes, the researcher realized that student absenteeism was high, some students were passive or not attentive, lack self-confidence to express what they want to; few were even telling teachers that the time was up. Moreover, few instructors came late after most students had already left; others had not come at all, putting students in the senses of discomfort and frustration.

Regarding the academic records of students, the researcher had gone through the students’ assignments, tests, mid and final exams and grades. Accordingly, some of what had been observed was below the general expectations. For instance, regarding language usage, organizational skills, exemplification or contextualization, case presentations, the students were poor, so to honestly reflect on. Concerning their grade records, only few students scored “A” and “B” grades; most of them collected “C” grades.

Generally, all the respondents had evidenced that most of the challenges and problems described and explained above could work against the quality of students’ learning in particular and the quality of education in general. Furthermore, the results of the researcher’s direct class observations and academic records analysis went in consistent with the aforementioned ideas and concerns.

4. Discussion

This section discussed the results of the study. In doing so, the findings of the present study and the available related and relevant literature were interwoven. The conditions of dropouts in all the departments were high, especially in the department of Civics. And, most students were dropped out for academic reasons. This study and most local studies have indicated dropout as mostly due
to academic dismissals (Berhanu, 2009; Asmerom and et, al, 1989). Poor academic performance is one of the most often cited correlate of dropout.

Student respondents described instructors’ lack of subject matter knowledge and pedagogical skills, negative attitudes towards evening students, unpunctuality and lack of sufficient educational resources as major problems that have worked against their successful learning. They stressed that they were treated childishly. In relation with this issue, Prosser (1967) said that skillful adult educators cannot teach adults as children have traditionally been taught. For adults are almost always voluntary learners, they simply disappear from learning experiences that don’t satisfy them. These adults should be treated as equals in experience and knowledge and allowed to voice their opinions freely in class.

Supporting Prosser’s idea, Knowles (1984) emphasized that adults have a need to be treated with respect, to make their own decision, to be seen as unique human beings. They tend to avoid, resist, and resent (hate) situations in which they feel they are treated like children-being told what to do and what not to do, being talked down to, embarrassed, punished, judged. Adults tend to resist learning under conditions that are incongruent with their self-concept as autonomous individuals. Instructors must tell adult learners explicitly how the lesson will be useful to them on the job. Daniel (2005) shared his serious concern that the higher education expansion in Ethiopia appears primarily quantitative and there is a serious question concerning quality. There are serious challenges in meeting minimum standards for quality education. Providing adequate number of qualified staff, sufficient library, classroom facilities, etc are some of the challenges that need to be successfully addressed if quality is to be maintained. These serious issues of educational qualities were also what the present researcher has come up with.
5. **Conclusion**

It was the strong intention of the researcher that these findings may help the evening continuing education of Jimma Teachers’ Training College community to take corrective actions to rectify the existing situations and provide quality education. It was hoped that the results of the study scratched the problems and generate valuable information for all concerned. Arranging evening programs for citizens to learn is an appropriate means of expanding education opportunities. Moreover, the practice of offering higher education on part-time basis is necessary since it gives a second chance to the working population who are qualified to undertake college level work. The work in the extension division is helping the college to put the limited facilities at its disposal to the maximum possible use and upgrading and retraining a great many people so as to make them more useful members of the society. However, when seen against the minimum standards of quality measures, Jimma Teachers’ Training College’s evening program and the students held by the program were under big question mark, regarding quality.

6. **Recommendations**

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were given.

- The major reason for students drop out was academic reason. Thus, entrance exam need to be added to the existing criteria of students’ admission to the program.

- Among others, Books and other reference materials prepared in Afan Oromo were rare in the library of the college and seriously affecting the successful learning of students. So, the college and Oromia
education Bureau need to immediately solve the problem, if quality education is to be provided.

- To make evening education program effective, basic understanding of the needs and characteristics of adult learners are of paramount importance, especially for the educators.

- Provision of guidance and counseling services, by professional counselor, is needed for evening students. So, administrative bodies of Jimma TTC should think of this issue critically, for the benefits of their students.

- The study was limited to Jimma TTC. Extending the study to other colleges and universities may help to draw a more general picture of the problem.

7. References


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Students’ perception of the contribution of Student Support Services to their Academic Achievement in some selected Universities of Ethiopia. By: Dame Abera (PhD)

1. Introduction

1.1. Background of the Study

Theoretical and empirical evidences show that higher education institutions (HEIs) have been experiencing massive expansions of students (Bringman & Campbell, 2003; Coll & Stewart, 2002; Ellington & Earls, 1997). In support of this, Look (2005) suggested that, in higher education institutions, the nature and diversity of the student body has changed considerably with a greater socio-economic mix, and a more balanced gender and ethnic mix. In fact, along with a massive expansion of students in higher education institutions, entry to higher education by itself is both an exciting and challenging time for students, particularly during their first year of university experiences.

In addition, numerous literatures (e.g., Levitz, Noel, & Richter, 1999; Karp, 2011; Promnitz & Germain, 1996; Shamah & Ohlsen, 2013) identified some of the challenges that students face in HEIs and that call for interventions, such as academic skill gaps (poor study skills, poor test taking skills and poor time management); lack of adequate awareness; financial; personal (underachievement, illness, home-sickness, loneliness, and anxiety); and institutional challenges (inadequate student support services provisions). As also observed by Levitz, Noel, and Richter (1999), some students bring complex educational and personal issues that dictate the need for even more comprehensive and individualized support services than what institutions can be able to provide. Students may also need strong supports to acquire the skills
they need to succeed in college, including time management, study skills, financial literacy, and clear career goals (Ayres & Bennett, 1983).

What all the points mentioned above makes clear is that, for many students, the transition into higher education is especially challenging not only because they lack the academic tools to thrive, but also because they lack the emotional or psychological maturity or the cultural capital to comfortably immerse themselves into both the expectations and norms of this new world (Shamah & Ohlsen, 2013). It also shows that the transition from the more dependent learning environment of the high school system to the more independent culture of higher education system calls for establishing a variety of integrated or holistic support systems that help students make positive adjustments in HEIs (Lonsdale, 2003). In fact, designing an effective model for providing student support starts with understanding the needs of students and the barriers that impede them from meeting their educational goals (Karp, 2011). Generally, it is the nature of growth and changes that are taking place in higher education that brings with it the need for continuing development and expansion of student support systems both in quality and quantity (Schneider, 2002).

According to Mc Gannon et al. (2005), one of these support systems is student support services (SSS). In regard to this, Boroch et al. (2010) identified pre-enrollment services (orientation and assistance with course selection), personal counseling; academic advising, tutorial services; peer mentoring; library and bookstore services, social support services and study skills training as major components of Student Support Services. To this end, theoretical and empirical evidences show that the role of student support services is seen as central to any effective policy for enhancing the student experience at higher education system and help students make adequate adjustment to university life (Shamah & Ohlsen, 2013).
Research evidences also show the existence of a strong link between quality student support services and positive student outcomes (good retention, success in academic achievement, good self-confidence) in higher education (Zepke, Leach & prebble, 2002). Thus, designed to facilitate students’ transition into college, promote retention, and lead to graduation, student support services are most effective when they are tailored to match the campus culture and address the needs of the typical student on the campus (Boroch et al., 2010).

1.2. Statement of the problem

Though evidence indicates that quality SSS is strongly associated with students’ smooth transition and adjustment to university life; increased academic achievement, self-confidence, assertiveness, time management; improved study habits; and personal development (Look, 2005), there are challenges and problems facing students in an increasingly diverse higher education system when it comes to the context of Ethiopian universities. At the same time, there are also discrepancies between the intended student support services and the actual accessibility and practical use of these services at the grassroots level. Of course, in most of the Ethiopian Universities, some student support services (such as initial orientation; counseling; academic advising; library; and housing services) are available to students, at least, in fragmented, under-resourced and uncoordinated manner.

In fact, though these support services are provided, there are still high rates of student attrition, poor student discipline, and low student commitment and motivation to work on academic activities, where these are real challenges that almost all universities in the country are facing today. Moreover, as a result of uncoordinated and fragmented provision of SSS to students in the university, the majority of students still experience academic failure, relationship
difficulties, anxiety, poor adjustment and transition to the university life. What this makes clear is that the persistence of high student attrition, academic failure, poor student discipline and lack of self-confidence as well as low interest to learning on the part of students may serve as key indicators for the existence of poor quality SSS in the Universities. From this one can easily guess that the presence of these barriers can significantly impede students from meeting their educational goals and call for immediate interventions. In fact, if the universities need to improve students’ outcomes, their student support services need to be highly coordinated and resourced, and that students should be well aware of the various support services available to them on-campus.

Moreover, in order to overcome the challenges they experience and to be successful, university students require targeted advice, facilitation and support from their respective institutions both at the time of entry and as an ongoing process, but particularly during the first year. This means, universities should be able to establish a support system which will help students cope-up with the realities facing them every day. In addition to this, the culture of conducting needs assessment and student satisfaction survey to evaluate the effectiveness of SSS with the view to utilizing the evaluation data for further modification and improvement of the existing practices is almost non-existence or at its infancy stage. In fact, along with the establishment of quality student support services; universities should be able to evaluate, on a regular basis, the impact of their support services on students overall outcomes. The other major problem in the Ethiopian context is that there are no up-to-date, comprehensive, and scientific research data indicative of the linkage between Student Support Services and students’ academic achievement in higher education institutions, where in the contrary research evidences show that evaluative information about the SSS enables the university management to further modify and improve their institutional practices and services.
Generally, despite the rhetoric around the importance of providing quality education for students, the research on student support systems is limited. In conclusion, given that no adequate research has ever examined the linkage between Student Support Services and students’ academic achievement in the Ethiopian context, there is a crucial need to carry out research in this area. Thus, the rationale for such an inquiry is quite clear because it helps generate new insights and expand upon the existing knowledge. It also helps to bridge the gap between the needs/demands of the students and the capacity of the student support personnel as well as the quality of SSS available to students on campus.

1.3. Research questions
In order to address the problems identified above more systematically, the following are identified as basic research questions:

1) How do students perceive the adequacy and effectiveness of SSS; its availability and the extent to which fresh students utilize counseling services in the university?

2) Is there a statistically significant relationship between student support services and academic achievement in the university?

3) Do student support services separately and jointly contribute significantly to students’ academic achievement and what are major factors affecting its delivery?

1.4. Objective of the Study

The major objective of the present study is to assess how students of HEIs perceive the contribution of SSS to their academic achievement

In very specific terms, this study intends to:
• Explore the perception of university students about the contribution of SSS to their academic achievement
• Determine the extent to which 1st year students in the university utilize counseling services
• Investigate the independent and joint contribution of each student support services to students’ academic achievement in the university
• Find out the relationship between student support services and 1st year CGPA.
• Identify the major factors influencing the provision of student support services in the university.

1.6. Significance of the study

The results of this study will have theoretical importance in raising the awareness of students, university management and student support personnel on how SSS influence student outcomes. It will have also practical values for evaluating, monitoring and improving the scope and quality of student support services in the universities so as to enhance student outcomes. Specifically, since raising the awareness and understanding of students on the services available to them in the universities can increase their counseling utilization as well as improving the quality and diversity of student support services, in turn, it improves student outcomes, increase retention and decrease attrition rates, university students are the most beneficiaries from the results of this study.

Similarly, since evaluating their practices of student support services and the effectiveness of these practices as well as checking the current status of their support services can help the universities keep up to date information as a baseline data and take immediate corrective measures towards improving their student support services based on the evaluative data, the university
management and pupil support personnel are also the major beneficiaries from the results of the present study. At the same time, education experts are also the major beneficiaries from the findings of this study for they are responsible for planning and monitoring the effectiveness of SSS. Finally, policy makers benefit from the findings of the present study for they are responsible for designing the guidelines and standards for student support services.

1.7. Delimitation of the study

Though there were over 30 universities currently functional in the country, the study site for the present research was limited only to four selected universities: Adama, Bahir Dar, Jimma, and Mekele. Similarly, though there are various components of student support services, in this study, only Tutoring, Counseling, Advising, Library, Health, and Accommodation services were considered due to issues of practicality and resource limitations.

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1. Conceptualizing Student Support Services (SSS)

SSS is defined by different scholars quite differently. For instance, according to Penalber (2005), SSS is a program designed to provide students with a variety of services aimed at establishing a network of support for students that will ensure their academic success. Shamah and Ohlsen (2013) also defined SSS as a program that facilitates holistic student support and that bridges communication gaps between advising professionals and students. Similarly, in view of Karp (2011), the term student support service refers to a variety of nonacademic interactions that the student has with the university. As suggested by Tinto (1997) research points to three types of support that promote students’ success in HEIs, namely academic, social, and financial support. In regard to
this, Bringman and Campbell (2003) pointed out that academic support is available on campus in the form of developmental education courses, tutoring, study groups, and academic support programs such as supplemental instruction. As to Coll and Stewart (2002) social support is available to students on campus in the form of counseling, mentoring, and ethnic student centers.

Some literatures (e.g., Ellington & Earls, 1997; Lonsdale, 2003; Look, 2005; Mc Gannon et al., 2005; Promnitz & Germain, 1996) indicate that Student Support Services are critical to student success, especially at campuses that enroll large numbers of academically under-prepared students. Specifically, Ayres and Bennett (1983) found that SSS programs assist students in addressing areas of academic deficiency and provide necessary resources to maximize students’ intellectual and social capital while in college. Moreover, designed to facilitate students’ transition into college, promote retention, and lead to graduation, student support services are most effective when they are tailored to match the campus culture and address the needs of the typical student on the campus (Schneider, 2002). As also noted by Levitz, et al (1999), SSS is most effective when it is connected to, not isolated from, the learning environment in which students operate. Generally, it is evident that the major purposes of the SSS program are to increase college retention and graduation rates for eligible students as well as to foster an institutional climate supportive of success for students insufficiently prepared for the rigors of university study and with disabilities (Tinto, 1997).

2.2. The need for and philosophy of SSS in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

The existing literatures (e.g., Bringman & Campbell, 2003; Ellington & Earl, 1997; Mc Gannon et al., 2005) show that student expansion and transition to
college life bring with it challenges and stresses that call for new adjustments. In view of this, evidence indicated that the major challenges mostly experienced by the university students can be personal (underachievement, illness, homesickness, alienation, poor study skills and time management); and/or institutional (inadequate student support services) factors (Mc Gannon et al., 2005).

In fact, for many students, the transition into higher education is especially challenging not just because they lack the academic tools to thrive, but because they lack the emotional or psychological maturity or the cultural capital to comfortably immerse themselves into both the expectations and norms of this new world (Shamah & Ohlsen, 2013). As also observed by Levitz, Noel, and Richter (1999), the incoming students enter the campus with some anxiety about beginning a new educational venture. Moreover, some of the students entering HEIs are mostly seen to bring with them complex educational and personal issues that call for more comprehensive and individualized support services than what many institutions are traditionally established for (Ayres & Bennett, 1983). Evidence also shows that, in some cases, students need the universities to teach them how to take responsibility, how to utilize internal and external resources, how to manage their finances, and how to plan for and resolve personal crises (Karp, 2011). In addition, students may also need strong supports to gain the skills they need to succeed in college including time management, study skills, financial literacy, and clear career goals (Ayres & Bennett, 1983).

What all these evidences make clear is that it is the nature of the growth and change that are taking place in higher education institutions that brings with it the need for continuing development and expansion of student support services (Schneider, 2002). In light of this, Promnitz and Germain (1996) suggested that
the role of the student support services is to enhance the student experience at HEIs and help students make adequate adjustment to university life. Generally, as noted by Yorke and Longden (2004), the emergence of student support as a major issue for HEIs can be linked to two reasons; firstly, the rate of student withdrawal from university education and secondly, the impact of increasing student diversity on students’ experience of university. In support of this, Tinto’s (1993) model of an integrative theory suggests that students who do not relate emotionally, socially and academically to the institutional culture may withdraw and leave without completing their program of study. As indicated by Lonsdale (2003) this, in fact, is something that is being affected by the diversity of students attending HEIs.

What this implies is that many aspects of student life, including academic, social support, and pastoral care have become harder to understand and manage in a growing and diverse population (Tinto, 1997). Thus, it is within such a context that the student support systems have become increasingly important for HEIs (Promnitz & Germain, 1996). In fact, designing an effective model for providing student support starts with understanding the needs of students and the barriers that impede them from meeting their educational goals (Karp, 2011).

As far as the philosophical basis of Student Support Services is concerned, there are two models explaining the nature and emergence of SSS in the context of HEIs. They are the traditional model and the reconstructionist/reformist model (Penalber, 2005). According to Penalber, the traditional model believes that universities have to be selective in their choice of students in order to maintain higher standards and that the students must accept responsibility for their success or failure at a university. In the contrary, the reconstructionist model advocates an approach to learning which assumes that students come to campus
with ideas, beliefs, and opinions that need to be altered or modified (Look, 2005). Hence, in the context of the reconstructionist model, the role of the teacher is to facilitate this alteration in thinking by devising tasks and questions that challenge student thinking (Penalber, 2005). These tasks and questions often involve the use of dilemmas which challenge students’ old ways of thinking (Richarson as cited in Penalber, 2005). Moreover, the reconstructionist model supports the belief in diversity and access in higher education for all students regardless of age, gender, or socioeconomic background. In sum, as described by Coll and Stewart (2002), acceptance of this diversity increases an awareness that requires the university administrators to extend their obligations beyond the traditional classroom.

In its view of the fact that the ideas, beliefs, and opinions of students can be altered or modified by multiple factors in campus life, the reconstructionist model of learning has a strong support from Bronfenbrenner’s (1979) ecological framework. According to Bronfenbrenner, the individual student’s development is influenced by interactions with others and the world around him/her. In fact, as suggested by Shamah and Ohlsen (2013), applying the ecological model to college students reveals the complexity of their lives and needs beyond academic support. In view of this, Bronfenbrenner argues that microsystems (family, peers, school); exosystems (neighborhoods, state policies, politics, media); macrosystems (culture); chronosystem (historical context); and the mesosystems (connections between all these systems) should all be considered to understand the overall development of students (Shamah & Ohlsen, 2013).
2.3. Components of SSS

Student support services are provided to ensure that students are given an opportunity to participate in activities that enhance their likelihood for success in HEIs (Penalber, 2005). As indicated in numerous literatures (e.g., Bringman & Campbell, 2003; Boroch et al., 2010; Look, 2005; Mc Gannon et al., 2005; Nora & Crisp, 2008; Tinto, 1997; Yorke & Longden, 2004) Student Support Services include: pre-enrollment services (orientation and assistance with course selection), personal counseling; academic advising, tutoring; mentoring; library and bookstore services, social support services and study skills training.

a) Mentoring

As one focal point of the Student Support Services programs, the phenomenon of mentoring is surfaced in the 1970s (Ayres & Bennett, 1983). Higher Education researchers have discovered that college students participating in formal mentoring relationships reported an increased satisfaction with college services and in academic persistence, resulting in an overall increase in student retention (Penalber, 2005). While not much has been empirically researched in this area, and there is confusion as to what constitutes a mentoring experience (Nora & Crisp, 2008), the consensus is that mentoring is beneficial to students. An important aspect of mentoring is the realistic appraisal of student needs and strengths that help to focus on the unique needs/talents of each student (Yorke & Longden, 2004). Moreover, Lonsdale (2003) believes that mentoring should not be engaged in a halfhearted manner, nor should it be assigned simply to other students but that a key person should be formally assigned and responsible for individual students.
b) Tutoring

As suggested by Coll and Stewart (2002), academic tutoring is one way that at-risk students can obtain assistance to improve their academic functioning. Researchers have generally shown that, as one possible component of an academic support center, tutoring program improves academic success by helping students with actual class assignments and teaching various strategies that students can generalize to other academic problems (Penalber, 2005). Theoretical and empirical sources indicate that, in most instances, students who attended frequent tutorial sessions have reported to have experienced positive outcomes (Promnitz & Germain, 1996). Moreover, tutoring is found to be effective because it has been applied to all ages and it reinforces social learning models and theories (Boroch et al., 2010). Thus, when students collaborate during the learning process, they see themselves as part of a network, which can help students more readily accept their roles as creators of meaning rather than as receivers of meaning (Ellington & Earls, 1997). Generally, evidence showed that the tutoring approach is effective not only for under-prepared students, but for all students as well (Boroch et al., 2010). There is also an increasing recognition among researchers that effective tutorial services should focus not only on the students’ specific learning needs, but also on their meta-cognitive development (Schneider, 2002).

c) Counseling

Regardless of how academically prepared students are for the college, even well-constructed educational plans can be significantly altered by both unexpected life events and ongoing personal problems that call for appropriate interventions (Boroch et al., 2010). What this implies is that, given such problems, supports such as counseling should be available to help students cope
and manage everyday pressures of the school and the typical academic settings (Levy, Little, & Whelan, 2011). Contemporary research and theory also indicate that personal guidance and counseling can help college students confront academic as well as nonacademic challenges (Penalber, 2005). In fact, recently, all HEIs have a structure and an obligation to provide counseling services to its student population. However, though most institutions of higher learning claim to offer counseling services, most of the students are found to be reluctant, due to time constraints, to take the initiative and seek out assistance on their own (Schneider, 2002).

In the contrary, significant increase in the usage of personal counseling is found to assist students to overcome problems that may interfere with their performance and involvement in academic and non-academic programs and activities (Promnitz & Germain, 1996). Moreover, the availability of services, such as counseling, is associated with students’ academic success. As pointed out by Boroch et al. (2010), research found that at-risk students who are successfully graduated most often have advising and counseling services available to provide needed support.

d) Study Skills Training

Traditionalists see students as ultimately responsible for their failure and successes (Yorke & Longden, 2004). According to the traditionalist view points, students arrive at university unprepared, lacking the skills or motivation or work habits necessary for success at the university (Penalber, 2005). In the context of this traditionalist approach, the solution is to provide students with the pre-training that equips low aptitude students with the prerequisite knowledge and skills they need to benefit from meaningful instruction (Look, 2005). Thus, in the technical/traditionalist approach, students are shown a
variety of generalized study skills; though, critics believe such remediation is relatively ineffective. In sum, McGannon et al. (2005) asserted that students need to develop their own epistemological views that enable them to see themselves as creators of personal knowledge rather than as containers waiting to be filled.

e) Orientation

There is a widespread agreement in the existing literatures (e.g., Ayres & Bennett, 1983; Bringman & Campbell, 2003; Boroch et al., 2010; Levy, Little, & Whelan, 2011) that a properly designed and conducted induction or orientation program is important to the successful integration of students into the academic and social environment of the campus community. Boroch et al. (2010) also suggested that induction/orientation program primarily serves to communicate the values, missions and policies of the institution and what is required to be successful. It also helps establish consonance between student expectations and actual experiences. Moreover, an on-going induction/orientation program is assumed to cover matters relating to study skills, note-taking skills, research skills, and time management (Bringman & Campbell, 2003). Evidence also indicated that a well organized induction program assists students in successful transition to college life (Levy, Little, & Whelan, 2011).

Generally, an induction program is expected to form part of an ongoing process during the first year and should not be limited to a short period at the commencement of the course (Ayres & Bennett, 1983). According to Coll and Stewart (2002), a major problem of the current orientation program is the relatively short time in which the university attempts to convey a large amount of information to the new student. As a result, this relatively short time current
orientation leads students to spend much of their time on procedural matters (such as where to live, how to register, how to add or drop courses, and how to change majors) rather than hearing about the institutional philosophy. Hence, while it is reasonable that orientation provides such information, mechanical procedures should not be its main focus; instead orientation should emphasize the intellectual and cultural life of the university (Lonsdale, 2003). What this all makes clear is that an integrated, coordinated and well organized approach to initial student orientation can enhance the effectiveness and success of students, and increase retention rate (Mc Gannon et al., 2005).

f) Academic Advising

Academic advising is a developmental process, in which the advisor assists students in the clarification of their life/career goals (DEECD, 2009); in selecting courses or programs and in developing educational plans for overcoming any academic skills gaps (Karp, 2011); and in directing them to other appropriate university services as well as in providing them with information about academic programs (Levy, Little, & Whelan, 2011). In line with this, Boroch et al. (2010) suggested that through academic advising advisors clarify institutional policies and procedures for students; can aid students develop study skills and learning strategies; and can help students to directly interact with representatives of the institution.

Several other literatures (e.g., Ellington & Earls, 1997; Look, 2005; Promnitz & Germain, 1996; Schneider, 2002; Shamah & Ohlsen, 2013) indicate that effective academic advising supports students to be engaged in their own learning activities. In the context of HEIs, student engagement is a multi-dimensional construct that includes three major elements: behavioral engagement (participation, attendance), cognitive engagement (investment in
learning, self-regulation, learning goals), and emotional or affective engagement (sense of belonging, attitude toward learning/institution) (Shamah & Ohlsen, 2013). Furthermore, while effective academic advising is critical to student development, retention and success (Tinto, 1997); inadequate advising was the primary negative characteristic linked with student attrition (DEECD, 2009).

Generally, two types of academic advising are often mentioned in the literature: prescriptive advising and developmental advising (Boroch et al., 2010). Prescriptive advising is characterized by an authoritative relationship in which the student is a passive receiver of advice and information is delivered by the advisor (Mc Gannon et al., 2005). In such advisement context, the student assumes no responsibility for decision making and instead relies almost exclusively on the advisor to plan and direct his activities (Lonsdale, 2003). In fact, this intrusive or action-oriented advising model has been suggested as particularly appropriate for at-risk students since it assumes that students will not always take the initiative in seeking out help to resolve their academic concerns, rather they are connected with their advisors to intervene their academic crisis (Levy, Little, & Whelan, 2011).

In the contrary, developmental advising emphasizes shared responsibility between the advisor and the student for clarifying the student’s goals and making informed choices (Boroch et al., 2010). In the developmental advising context, the advisor supports the student in taking initiative to plan for his or her personal and academic growth, taking into account ongoing changes to the student’s needs over time. Generally, what the points mentioned above makes clear is that improving academic services at colleges is crucial because most entering students arrive with academic deficiencies that limit their ability to engage effectively in college-level courses (Boroch et al., 2010).
endeavor, early research suggests that institutions can enhance the academic experience of under-prepared students by providing extensive instruction in academic skills, time management skills, basic skills, study skills, and critical thinking strategies as well as advising (Shamah & Ohlsen, 2013).

2.4. The need for holistic and comprehensive student support services

The holistic or comprehensive student support system requires an integrated network of academic, nonacademic, career, personal, and financial supports than the fragmented or uncoordinated support system (Boroch et al., 2010). It is also assumed that the holistic or comprehensive student support system is more tailored to address individual needs; and is developed in a more coordinated manner (Lonsdale, 2003). Moreover, in the holistic or comprehensive approach to SSS, all the parties need to have a sense of shared responsibility, and a shared vision of how students will interact with the different support opportunities available over time, and for student success (Karp, 2011; Róisín, 2000).

Holistic or comprehensive student support system generally assumes that everyone who enters the institution has the capacity to become a successful student (Lonsdale, 2003). The cornerstone of holistic or comprehensive student support is creating a genuine relationship between college staff, faculty and students and then providing a safe environment where students can express themselves, take risks, and support each other (Ellington & Earls, 1997). The holistic student support also focuses on student strengths, uses a solution focused approach and is individualized (Lonsdale, 2003).

On top of this, the holistic or comprehensive approach to SSS requires collaboration across multiple departments as well as external partners (Karp,
For instance, a program that integrates counseling with teaching has a highly structured, easily accessible and proactive format and is a key to student success in HEIs (Boroch et al., 2010). Similarly, offering counseling and advising services in connection with the developmental education program of colleges has been correlated to improved first-term GPA and success in developmental courses (Coll & Stewart, 2002). In general, evidences indicate that students in programs with counseling and advising component are more likely to have higher pass rates than students from programs where a specific counseling-advising connection is lacking (Boroch et al., 2010).

There is increasing recognition among professionals that the most successful education programs provide an integrated approach to SSS, connecting academics with student services (Bringman & Campbell, 2003). In fact, in an attempt to connect academics with student services both the developmental and remedial approaches to SSS are often practiced widely in most of the HEIs (Look, 2005). According to Look, the remedial approach derives from a deficit model, assuming that students who have not acquired skills and abilities from previous instruction need additional or modified instruction to correct the deficiency. At the same time, Boroch et al. (2010) suggested that the developmental approach is preferred over the remedial approach for it recognizes that all students have strengths and weaknesses, and that learners not only progressively acquire content-specific knowledge, but also attain the skills and attitudes necessary to facilitate higher-order thinking and learning. In addition, the developmental approach view is assumed to focus on addressing the holistic development of the student that considers meta-cognitive, affective, and social aspects of student development in addition to cognitive growth (Karp, 2011). Even though most universities can give a long list of their student support services, there can be a discrepancy between the provision and the accessibility or use of support services (Look, 2005).
Generally, in order to improve the effectiveness of SSS and bridge the discrepancy between the provision and the use of SSS, the university managers need to integrate all the SSS available and provided to students in a fragmented format (Levy, Little, & Whelan, 2011). Not only this, the university leadership needs also to develop a support system that promotes the intellectual, personal and academic development and achievement of students from diverse backgrounds (Ayres & Bennett, 1983).

2.5. The contributions of SSS to students’ academic achievement

A large number of literatures (e.g., Bringman & Campbell, 2003; Levy, Little, & Whelan, 2011; Lonsdale, 2003; Penalber, 2005; Róisín, 2000; Shamah & Ohlsen, 2013; Yorke & Longden, 2004) indicate that integrated and holistic student support services, such as academic advising, structured first year orientations, mentoring, tutoring and counseling significantly increase student achievement, contribute to the quality of the students’ learning experience, and promote students’ academic success in the context of HEIs. For instance, Penalber (2005) reported that the scopes of counseling services during the freshman year are directly related to the retention of underprepared students (Penalber, 2005). Counseling services are important to student retention and success, specifically during the freshman year (Bringman & Campbell, 2003).

Moreover, a study by Look (2005) also showed that school counseling interventions have a substantial impact on students’ educational and personal development. In addition, as described by Coll and Stewart (2002), and Brigman and Campbell (2003), counseling services increase both students’ academic and social integration and their confidence in their ability to deal with others and perform well. Additionally, effective advising and case management has been shown to have positive effects on retention (Shamah & Ohlsen, 2013).
In particular, a combination of academic advising, counseling and coaching have been found to provide students with the opportunity to develop their strengths and learn to better negotiate the college system (Mc Gannon et al., 2005). Just related to this, structured first year experiences or college success classes provides more opportunities for formal and informal interactions between students and faculty (Coll & Stewart, 2002; Schneider, 2002). In conclusion, what all the points mentioned above makes clear is that when student support services are implemented in a coordinated, targeted, and comprehensive structure, they significantly improve student achievement and educational outcomes (Yorke & Longden, 2004).

3. Research Methods

a) Research design: the study primarily employed descriptive survey design. This is because, survey research method allows the researcher to assess students’ (clients) and student support personnel’s perception of the support services available on campus and the quality of its provision.

b) Participants: this study was conducted in the context of universities. Thus, the sources of data for the present study were second year students and student support personnel of the selected four universities (Adama, Mekele, Bahir Dar, and Jimma).

c) Sampling techniques: from the target population indicated above, 329 representative participants were drawn for the present study through convenience, simple random, stratified random and Purposive sampling techniques. In the first place, from among the fully functioning universities of Ethiopia, four universities were selected as samples of the present study using convenience sampling technique. In the second place, five faculties were drawn from each of the selected universities through simple random sampling
technique. Thirdly, of the total number of 6340 second year students enrolled in five selected faculties of the four sample universities, 5 percent, which amounts to 315 subjects (242 Males and 73 females) were chosen as representative participants of the present study using stratified random sampling technique.

Lastly, 12 student support personnel (such as student deans, health officer, library heads, dining and housing heads) who were serving in the pupil support service centers of the four universities were taken as participants of this study through purposive sampling technique. The researcher employed purposive sampling technique with the assumption that these student support personnel have the necessary and relevant expertise in the area and for they are structurally assigned to serve in the SSS centers.

**d) Data collection instruments**

In the present study, five student support service measures such as: Counseling service, Advising service, Library service, Health Service, and Accommodation service were treated as independent variables, where as student academic achievement as measured by 1st year CGPA was considered as the dependent variable. General information about the students’ and pupil support personnel’s perception of counseling utilization and provision of student support services during the first year of the university life were gathered through both close-ended and open-ended questionnaire.

Similarly, detailed information about the five independent variables (counseling service, academic advising service, Library service, health service, and accommodation service) was gathered through a 4-point Likert type scale self-report questionnaire that was developed by the researcher. In fact, the
questionnaire items were given to four psychology experts to be judged for their relevance and content validity. Similarly, a pilot study was conducted on 25 participants taken from Adama University so as to determine the reliability of each questionnaire instrument, using Cronbach Alpha. Accordingly, the Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for each subscales in the Adama University sample ranged from .71 to .75, which are quite promising to use the subscales in the main study. Finally, information related to academic achievement as measured by CGPA was gathered from the student records (Registrars) of the four universities included in the study.

**e) Data collection procedures:** the questionnaire was administered in a face-to-face approach, where the main researcher was personally available at each stage of data collection along with two assistant data enumerators to elaborate the purpose of the questionnaire and clear out any doubts that the participants may raise on some items of the questionnaire.

**f) Data analysis procedures:** in order to analyze information gathered through both close–ended and open–ended questionnaire about counseling utilization and provision of student support services, the researcher employed descriptive statistics, such as percent age. Similarly, in order to examine the relationship between student support measures and academic achievement, the researcher employed *correlation analysis*. Besides, in order to test the independent and joint contributions of student support measures to academic achievement measure, the researcher mainly employed *multiple regression analysis*.

**g) Ethical considerations:** in the first place, a letter inviting the research participants and requesting the participants to give their consent to participate in the study was given to confirm the willingness of the selected participants to participate in the study. As a result, only those participants who gave their free
consents to participate in the study completed a questionnaire package. In addition, at the outset, the participants were assured that their responses will be kept confidential and used only for research purposes. Moreover, the participants were also assured that pseudonyms, rather than their actual names, will be used in this research report, and that they have the right to know the purpose and outcome of this research. On top of this, the participants were informed that they have the right to withdraw their consent at any point in time when they feel that they are inconvenient or mistreated.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Results

4.1.1. Demographic Characteristics

Table 1: Summary of Sample Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>Population of 2nd year student</th>
<th>5% of the sample drawn</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adama</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahir Dar</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jimma</td>
<td>1814</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mekele</td>
<td>1454</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6340</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The age of these university students (participants of the present study) ranged from 19 to 22 (average age 21), and in terms of sex proportion, 242 Male and
73 female students who were attending 2\textsuperscript{nd} year university education participated in this study. As clearly shown in table 1 above, an attempt was made by the researcher to make samples more representatives of the target population to which the result will be generalized, in terms of faculties, departments, age, and sex. It also implies that the participants are eligible for providing accurate information.

4.1.2. Analyzing Quantitative Data

Table 2: *Perceived adequacy and effectiveness of the SSS available in the university*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Were adequate support services available to you during the 1\textsuperscript{st} year of your University life?</em></td>
<td>A. Yes</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B. No</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>315</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As depicted in table 2 above, 62% of the students participating in the study reported that though information about student support services was communicated to them at the time of entry to the university, the services provided to them during their 1\textsuperscript{st} year university life was not adequate. Students also replied that though an integrated and well structured SSS is believed to improve students’ academic outcomes, there is still a gap in the theory and practice of SSS. At the same time, 78 percent of the pupil support personnel also confirmed that universities have welcome ceremonies on which they give orientations about the facilities available for students use, and how students get access to these services.
Table 3: *Perceived level of student satisfaction with the SSS provided to them*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are you satisfied with the general support services provided to you during your first year of life in the university?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>315</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the data presented in table 3 above depicted, the majority of the student participants (54 percent) reported that they were not satisfied with the support services they were provided during their first year of university life. The students also suggested that there is a mismatch between the practice and ideal provision of SSS in the universities. At the same time, 92 percent of the pupil support personnel also reported that no attempt was made so far by their respective institutions to conduct student satisfaction survey.

Table 4: *Perceived provision of Induction/orientation program*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did you receive initial Induction or Orientation at your entry to the university?</td>
<td>A. Yes</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B. No</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>315</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in table 4, 83% of the participants reported that initial orientation/induction was given to them during their first year of university life.
According to the majority of student support personnel (78%), initial orientation is usually provided on such themes as: department selection procedures; registration procedures; disciplinary procedures; academic rules and regulations; right and obligation of students; test taking and study skills; and general life experience of the university.

Table 5: Perceived problems encountered by university students during their first year of life

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In your freshman program, did you experience serious problems?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table 5 above, the majority of students participating in the survey (78%) reported that they encountered some problems during their 1st year of university life.

Table 6: Problems perceived by students to have occurred in their 1st year of university life
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What major problems did you face in your 1st year of university life?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A. Loneliness and home sickness</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B. Anxiety</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C. Fear of failure</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D. Financial pressures</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E. Low self-esteem and lack of confidence</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F. Under achievement</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G. Health hardship</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note that the respondents have chosen more than one options*

The data summarized in table-6 shows that health hardship (22 per cent), low-self esteem and lack of confidence (16 percent), fear of failure (16 percent), financial pressure (14 percent) were perceived as the most common and prevalent challenges while anxiety (12 percent), sense of loneliness and home sickness (11 percent), and under achievement problems (9 percent) were perceived as the less frequently experienced problems during the first year of university life.
Table 7: Perceived causes of the problems faced by students in their 1st year of university life

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A. Lack of interest in the department I was assigned to</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B. Inadequate learning, counseling, and advising support</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C. Unsupportive learning environment</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D. Poor study skills and time management</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E. Inability to meet academic requirement</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F. Inadequate links between students and academic services</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note that the respondents have chosen more than one options*

As shown in table 7 above, inadequate learning, counseling and advising support services (20 percent); lack of interest in the department they were assigned to (19 percent); unsupportive learning environment (18 percent); poor study skills and time management (17 percent); inadequate links between the students and academic services (14 percent) were perceived by the majority of
the respondents as the major contributing factors to most of the problems they encountered during their first year of university life.

Table 8: *Perceived level of counseling utilization by the students*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you think you received adequate counseling services during your first year of university life in the university so as to alleviate the problems you encountered?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data presented in table 8 indicated that 56 percent of the students reported that they have never used counseling services at all during their first year of life in the university. This shows that the level of counseling utilization, as perceived by the student respondents, is very low in the university, where of course, they have reported to have encountered severe problems during their first year of life. In addition to this, the majority of pupil support personnel (54 percent) do believe that students were not provided with quality, well integrated and variety of adequate support services during their first year of life in the University. This shows that though students experience severe psychological, social and academic problems the counseling service utilization is still minimal.
Table 9: Perceived reasons for failing to utilize adequate counseling services

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What do you think could be the possible reasons for not using counseling services for minimizing the challenges faced?</td>
<td>Lack of adequate awareness and information about the availability and schedule of the support services?</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The counselor is not mostly available at the service center</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The belief that the counselor is not helpful and cooperative</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The culture and trend of using counseling services is not well established in the university</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The reluctance, inefficiency and inadequacy of the counselor</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note that the respondents have chosen more than one options*

As the data presented in table 9 depicted, lack of adequate awareness and information about the availability and schedule of counseling services (27 percent); lack of well established culture and trend of using counseling services in university (24 percent); the unavailability of the counselor at the service center (22 percent); the believe that the counselor is not helpful and cooperative (15 percent); the reluctance, inefficiency and inadequacy of the counselor (12 percent) were reported by the majority of student participants as perceived
reasons for the very low utilization of counseling services by university students. In line with this, the pupil support personnel also reported that the major factors that hinder the effective delivery of student support services in the university include: large pupil to pupil personnel ratio; shortage of budget to supply adequate utensils, food cooking equipment, chemicals, laboratory apparatus, stationary materials and better accommodation services; in-adequate attention and negligence on the part of the administrative bodies; inadequacy and in-efficiency of the pupil support personnel; and lack of devotion and commitment on the part of pupil support personnel.

Table 10: *Perceived contribution of SSS to academic achievement*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall, do you think that the SSS available to you on campus has helped you improve your academic performance?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>111</td>
<td>35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>204</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the data presented in table 10 above revealed, the majority of the students participating in the study replied that the SSS in the university did not help them improve their academic achievement.
### Table 11: Summary of Correlation Analysis (N=315)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>CS</th>
<th>AS</th>
<th>LS</th>
<th>HS</th>
<th>HDS</th>
<th>CGPA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Counseling service</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.604</td>
<td>0.366**</td>
<td>0.371**</td>
<td>0.416**</td>
<td>-0.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advising and tutoring Service</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.458**</td>
<td>0.445**</td>
<td>0.431**</td>
<td>-0.071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library Service</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.470**</td>
<td>0.467**</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Service</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.616*</td>
<td>-0.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing and Dining Service</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: ** correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

As shown in table 11 above, in this study all the predictor variables (counseling, academic advising, library, health and housing service scores) were found to have non-significant negative correlation with first year academic achievement as measured by CGPA. Contrary to this, all the five predictor or independent variables were found to have significant positive correlations with each other showing that the five independent variables (components of student support services) define a common trait or construct.
Table 12: Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Variable Entered</th>
<th>$df$</th>
<th>$R^2$ Change</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$P$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Counseling Service</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>1.255</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Counseling and Advising service</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>1.798</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Counseling, advising and library service</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>2.287</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Counseling, advising, Library and health service</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>3.166</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Counseling, advising, Library, health and housing service</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>3.201</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in table 12 above, all the SSS measures did not significantly contribute both independently and jointly to the students’ academic achievement as measured by first year CGPA [F (1, 313) = 1.255, P = 0.10 for counseling, etc.]. For instance, the $R^2$ change result showed that counseling service accounted only for 0.4 percent of the total proportion of variance in the CGPA of first year students of the sample universities considered in this study. In the same way, academic advising service scores accounted for 0.2 percent,
Library service score accounted for 0.2 percent, Health service score accounted for 0.3 percent, and housing service score accounted for 0.00 percent of the total variance in CGPA of first year university students. At the same time, counseling and advising service scores jointly accounted for 0.6 percent, counseling, advising and library service scores jointly accounted for 0.7 percent, and the five independent variables all together accounted for only 1 percent of the total variance in the CGPA of first year students in the university treated in this study.

4.2. Discussion

4.2.1. Perceived adequacy, coordination and effectiveness of SSS in the university

The responses obtained from the questionnaire indicated that students are not satisfied with the student support services provided to them during their first year of university life. In fact, as reported by the students, unsupportive learning environment; inadequate support in the area of counseling and academic advising; and lack of interest in the department they were assigned to were also sources of their dissatisfaction with SSS. The result also revealed that despite its availability on campus, the SSS is not diversified, well integrated, and coordinated. As to the majority of the study participants this might be attributed to the in-adequacy and ineffectiveness of the pupil support personnel; and lack of properly communicating the available student support services to the target group. The result also revealed that there is a gap between the SSS available on campus and the actual practice or implementation of the services to the target group. Generally, what the findings mentioned above makes clear is that the SSS currently available to university students is not organized or designed in a way that it adequately supports the students to meet their educational needs.
The findings of the present study are not consistent with the existing literature. For instance, Karp (2011) and Róisín (2000) reported that a well integrated comprehensive approach to SSS significantly improves student success in HEIs. Similarly, Lonsdale (2003) indicated that holistic student support system generally creates a genuine relationship between college staff, faculty and students. Moreover, Ellington and Earls (1997) suggested that holistic student support system provides a safe environment where students can express themselves, take risks, and support each other. Levy, Little, and Whelan (2011) also asserted that a well designed and established support system promotes the intellectual, personal and academic development and achievement of students from diverse backgrounds.

4.2.2. Utilization of Counseling Services in the university

The findings obtained from the students who participated in the present study indicated that the frequency of counseling utilization by university students was minimal. In the contrary, the student support personnel reported that information about the availability and diversity of the student support services was communicated to first year students at entry to the university through the welcome ceremony and initial orientation /induction programs. It was also reported that low self esteem, fear of failure, homesickness, anxiety, underachievement, and health hardship were perceived by university students as the major challenges they experienced during their first year of life, which call for psychological assistance and counseling interventions. Of course, the fact that counseling services are rarely used by students may be attributed mainly to inaccessibility of these services and the lack of provision on campus. In addition, lack of adequate awareness about the importance, purposes and function of counseling services; inadequacy of the counselor; and the beliefs that the counselor is not helpful and cooperative were perceived by the majority
of the students as the major reasons for not adequately utilizing counseling services in university. Generally, what all these makes clear is that it is a high time for all higher learning institutions to rethink and re-question themselves about how to effectively support students with diverse needs and backgrounds to achieve their goals.

In contrast to the present findings, the existing literatures suggest the importance of effective and adequate guidance and counseling services in helping students make good adjustment and smooth transition to new life in the university (Boroch et al., 2010; Levy, Little, & Whelan, 2011; Schneider, 2002). For instance, Róisín (2000) reported that counseling services are important to student retention and success, specifically during the freshman year. Moreover, a study by Look (2005) showed that counseling interventions have a substantial impact on students’ educational and personal development. In addition, as described by Coll and Stewart (2002) and Brigman and Campbell (2003), counseling services increase both students’ academic and social integration and their confidence in their ability to deal with others and perform well.

4.2.3. The relationship between SSS and Academic Achievement

Results of the present study revealed a non-significant negative relationship between SSS measures and student achievement in the selected universities. This means that the scores of counseling, advising, library, health and accommodation services were not strongly associated with students’ first year CGPA. The findings of the present study also indicated that the SSS measures did not significantly contribute both independently and jointly to the students’ academic achievement in the universities sampled. What this implies is that either the SSS was not designed in light of the mission, vision, and value of the
university or due to inadequacy of the pupil personnel services the SSS was not properly provided to the target group.

In contrast to the present findings, numerous theoretical and research evidences show the existence of positive and statistically significant relationship between student support services (SSS) and students’ college GPA, retention and overall behavioral changes. For instance, Yorke and Longden (2004) suggested that counseling services increase students’ academic and social integration and their confidence in their ability to deal with others and perform well. Besides, a research by Lonsdale (2003) reveals that school libraries can have a positive impact. At the same time, Mc Gannon et al. (2005) pointed out that a combination of academic advising and counseling provide students with the opportunity to develop their strengths and learn to better negotiate the college system. Moreover, Schneider (2002) asserted that a well designed and structured induction program during the first year experiences enhances students’ interaction, transition and adjustment to university life. In addition, Shamah and Ohlsen (2013) reported that effective academic advising has a positive effect on students’ retention and academic success.

4.2.4. Perceived factors affecting the Provision of SSS in the university

Results of the present study revealed that the mismatch of pupil to pupil personnel ratio; shortage of budget and other facilities; absence of collaboration and coordination between academic and administrative task force; inadequate attention of the university administration to SSS; inefficiency of pupil support personnel; and low sense of responsibility, commitment and work motivation on the part of pupil support personnel were reported as bottle-neck problems that hinder the effective delivery of the student support services in the universities considered in the present study. Generally, what the points
indicated above makes clear is that the management of the universities studied need to develop concrete policies and strategies that support the proper implementation of the SSS intended for students.

5. Conclusion and recommendations

5.1. Conclusion

Based on the results of the present study, the researcher draws the following generalizations:

- The provision of SSS is not adequate, effective and coordinated in the selected universities
- Students are not satisfied with the SSS provided to them during the 1st year of their university life
- The frequency of counseling utilization by university students was minimal
- The process of induction/orientation was regarded by the students as being too intensive an event and inappropriate for getting to know about support services
- There is no strong positive relationship between student support services and academic achievement in the selected universities
- Student support services being provided to students on campus did not contribute significantly to their academic achievement in the selected universities
- Poor coordination and lack of integrated SSS; inadequacy of the pupil support personnel; and low level of commitment and work motivation on the part of pupil support personnel were perceived by the majority
5.2. Recommendations

The findings of the present study clearly indicated that the current one-shot orientation program does not support and explain the values, mission and policies of the institution, and assist students in successful transition to university life. Accordingly, the researcher kindly recommends that university administration, faculty deans, and department heads should be able to organize and provide a less intensive induction which is more of a process than an event.

Student responses to the questionnaire indicated that the study skills’ provision is useful and being used but that other student support services, such as counseling services are rarely used by students. This is mainly due to inaccessibility of these services and the lack of provision on campus. To emphasize this, the researcher recommends that a guideline that explicitly describes about the roles and commitment of the students and the counselors as well as that explains the entire procedures to be followed should be developed.

The results of the present study also revealed that the advising systems currently in use in the selected universities were not effective and supportive of students’ successful adjustment to university life. Thus, the researcher recommends that the university governance system, in collaboration with faculty deans and department heads, should be charged with determining academic policy and philosophy of advising, including setting goals for advisers and advisees, and formulating a code of advising responsibility.

At the same time, the researcher recommends that universities should:
• Regularly conduct student satisfaction survey aiming at not only offering benchmarking data, but also aimed at prioritizing strategies and tracking changes in student attitudes; gathering student opinions concerning academics, general campus life and the practice of student support services; checking their institution’s quality, competitiveness and effectiveness as well as using the results for further improvement.
• Carefully examine the high school academic GPAs of students enrolled in the university to assist in identifying students who are at greater risk of unsatisfactory academic performance
• Design and provide effective study skills, note taking skills, and test-taking skills program for the potential beneficial effect on student retention and achievement.
• Bridge the gaps or discrepancies reported between the officially declared provision of student support services and the accessibility as well as the practical utilization of these services
• Be able to make the support services and facilities available and accessible for all students on campus
• Be able to take steps to integrate all the student support services
• Be able to develop comprehensive Guidelines for Student Support Services to define the role and functions of student support personnel
• Be able to build the capacities of their student support personnel based on needs assessment and through training tailored to individual need.

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