

Academic Staff Capacity in Private Universities in Tanzania

Simon Peter

Department of Educational Foundations, Management & Life Long Learning

University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania

E-mail: simonipetro@gmail.com

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to critically examine the capacity of academic staff to carry out university teaching, research and community service functions. The findings revealed that there is cheating of academic qualifications among academic staff in private universities. Such an unfortunate practice prevails as there are no strictly enforced recruitment criteria like those in public universities for academic job applicants, thereby adversely affecting their capacity to carry out their core functions. It was also revealed that academic staff names appeared on different university payrolls and surprisingly on such “double” payrolls the academic staff appeared as full-time academic staff. The paper recommends that the recruitment process should be strictly supervised and transparent to ensure that academic staff were recruited and allocated a workload on the basis of genuine academic qualifications and merit.

Key words: recruitment, payroll, transparent, workload, qualifications, merit.

Introduction

Universities are viewed in many African countries as critical institutions for natural development, where a wide range of subjects are taught to a high level, providing a corps of educated elite to serve the community and entire nation (Adelabu & Akinwumi, 2008). Universities are the highest level of centres of learning, where male and female citizens who have the capacity to study acquire degree. The graduates acquire different skills, which are designed to meet the demands fall economic pursuits. Universities educate future leaders and develop the high-level technical capacities that underpin economic growth (World Bank, 1994). Moreover, Nyerere (1966) outlined the major functions of a university as follows. First, it transmits knowledge from one generation to the next that can serve either as a basis for action, or a springboard to further research. Secondly, it provides a centre for an attempt to advance the frontiers of knowledge by concentrating in one place some of the most intellectually able people who are not preoccupied by day-to-day administrative or professional responsibilities and providing them with a good library and laboratory facilities which are necessary for learning. Thirdly, it provides through its teaching the high-level manpower needs of society.

University education in Tanzania

In Tanzania, a university college was first established in 1961 as a constituent college of the University of London. In 1963, it became a constituent college of the University of East Africa, and in 1970 the constituent colleges of the University of East Africa became independent national universities, namely the University of Dar es Salaam, the University of Nairobi and Makerere University. Apart from the University of Dar es Salaam other public universities established later were Sokoine University of Agriculture in 1984 and the Open University of Tanzania in 1992. In

1997, two constituent colleges of the University of Dar es Salaam were established, namely the University College of Land and Architectural Studies and Muhimbili University College of Health Sciences. The University of Dodoma was established in 2006 and, recently, Katavi University of Agriculture and Nelson Mandela African Institute of Science and Technology were established in 2013.

The limited number of public universities implies that only a small proportion of the population has access to university education. For instance, out of 82,529 applicants in the 2007/2008 academic year, only 64,664 applicants were admitted to public universities, showing that 17,865 applicants did not gain entrance to public universities. This means that, while the demand for university education is increasing in Tanzania, it does not correspond to the available places in public universities. It is also clear that this increase is determined by using a proxy indicator of admission rates, namely, comparing the number of candidates who applied with those who were actually admitted. For instance, in the 2006/2007 academic year, the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) enrolled only 7,049 applicants (46 per cent) of the 15,185 who had passed the matriculation examination (UDSM, 2006). Also, in the 2008/2009 academic year, UDSM admitted 6,953 applicants (40 per cent) out of a total of 17,287 (UDSM, 2010). This implies that 8,136 and 10,334 applicants, respectively, who were eligible for admission, could not be absorbed by UDSM. Hence, a tenable option for these students who were not admitted to UDSM was to apply to private universities.

It is worth noting that this admission trend is not peculiar to UDSM but applies to other public universities in Tanzania as well. The only exception is the Open University of Tanzania, which admits non-traditional students and offers academic programmes purely through distance learning. The low admission rates in public universities have pushed private universities from the periphery to the forefront, as witnessed by the rapid increase in the number of private universities in Tanzania. Although they offer market-oriented courses, their dependence on tuition fees as their main source of funding has made them unaffordable to ordinary Tanzanians, thus raising concerns regarding equity in these universities. Further, only one per cent of the relevant age group participated in tertiary education in Tanzania in 2000, compared with 3 per cent in Uganda and Kenya (World Bank, 2003).

Within education, private sector involvement is considered critical for meeting the Education For All (EFA) targets (World Bank, 2003). Also the World Bank (1994) argues that private universities are an important element of some of the strongest higher education systems to be found today in developing countries. They can respond efficiently and flexibly to changing demand and they increase educational opportunities for all. For this reason governments are implored to encourage and facilitate the development of private universities to complement public universities. This would also act as a means of managing the costs of expanding higher education enrolment, increasing the diversity of training programmes and broadening social participation in higher education.

Emergence of private universities in Tanzania

It must be mentioned that private universities did not exist in Tanzania until 1995 when the first private university – Tumaini University, Iringa University College - was established. This university is currently the largest private university in Tanzania, with 7 constituent colleges. Another private university established in 1998 was St. Augustine University of Tanzania, which currently has 7 constituent colleges. Thus by January 2014 there were 19 private universities in Tanzania as shown in Table 1.

Table 1.0 Current Tanzania Private Universities

S/N	Institution	Established	Affiliation	Location
1	Hubert Kairuki Memorial University	1996	MMHEN	Dar es Salaam
2	International Medical&Techn. Univ.	1996	Vignan Educ. Found.	Dar es Salaam
3	University of Iringa*	1996	Lutheran	Iringa
4	Tumaini University Makumira	1996	Lutheran	Arusha
5	Aga Khan University	1996	Aga Khan Foundation	Dar es Salaam
6	Zanzibar University	1998	Islamic	Unguja South
7	St. Augustine University of Tanzania	1998	Catholic	Mwanza
8	Mt. Meru University of Tanzania	2002	Baptist	Arusha
9	University of Arusha	2003	Adventist	Arusha
10	TeofiloKisanji University	2004	Moravian	Mbeya
11	Muslim University of Morogoro	2005	Islamic	Morogoro
12	Catholic University - CUHAS	2002	Catholic	Mwanza
13	St. John's University of Tanzania	2007	Anglican	Dodoma
14	Sebastian Kolowa Memorial Univ*	2007	Lutheran	Tanga
15	University of Bagamoyo	2010	TANLET & LHRC	Dar es Salaam
16	Eckenforde Tanzania University	2010	-	Tanga
17	Tanzania International University	2010	-	Dar es Salaam
18	St. Joseph University in Tanzania	2011	Catholic	Dar es Salaam
19	United African University of Tanzania	2012	Korean Church	Dar es Salaam

Source: Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania, BEST (2013)

*Established as university constituent colleges, later elevated to fully-fledged university status

Table 1.0 shows that by January 2014 there were 19 fully-fledged private universities, the majority of which (63%) that were established after 2000 are expanding at an alarming rate and are greatly challenged by the shortage of qualified and experienced academic staff. Conversely, it is regrettable that these universities were allowed to open new constituent colleges and institutes and centres in almost every city and town throughout the country despite not having enough qualified academic staff. It is imperative to note that it took the Tanzanian government 50 years to build 9 public universities, which are not yet fully equipped to meet international standards.

Table 1.0 also reveals that the majority of private universities are owned by or affiliated to religious denominations, whereby 9 (47 per cent) are Protestant universities and 3 (16 per cent) are Catholic universities. Two Muslim (11 per cent) universities and 3 non-religious organisations account for 26 per cent of private universities. Therefore, the majority of private universities in Tanzania are owned by/affiliated to religious institutions, as observed by Ishengoma (2007a), which means that there is the stiff competition among major religious denominations in establishing higher education institutions as one of their strategies for consolidating their sphere of influence among their followers. In recognition of the importance of the private sector in the provision of higher education, the government decided to liberalise the provision of higher education in Tanzania by amending the Education Act No. 10 of 1978, thereby coming up with the Education Act No. 10 of 1995. This new Act provides for the establishment of private higher education institutions (URT, 1995).

Also, the 1999 National Higher Education policy justifies the need for involving the private sector in the provision of higher education:

...to encourage private organizations, individuals, non-governmental organizations and communities to take an active role in establishing and maintaining institutions of higher education and to introduce guidelines for incentives such as tax relief and government grants for institutions maintaining a high quality of teaching, research and public service' (URT, 1999:p. 23).

Also, the Higher Education Development Programme 2010 – 2015, MoEVT (2010) supports public-private partnership (PPP) in the provision of higher education. It insists that PPP is an important and necessary matter that requires encouragement, which, if properly exploited, offers a considerable opportunity for higher education institutions to leverage resources for enhancing the provision of services to students and staff. PPP may involve the financing and maintenance of academic facilities, student hostels, cafeteria and social amenities, such as sports facilities and staff houses for a mutually agreed period. It maintains that PPP is attractive because it can fully recover investment costs and be self-sustaining.

These are the government's strategies for attracting private sector support for higher education. Following the government's decision to enhance PPP in the provision of education, several private education institutions (from pre-primary to universities) have been established in the country. The rapid increase in the number of private universities in Tanzania was noted during the third phase government under the leadership of President Benjamin Mkapa, who gave some publicly-owned colleges/schools to private organisations, mainly religious denominations, to be used as private universities. For instance, TANESCO Training College was given to the Muslim Development Foundation, which established the Muslim University of Morogoro, Mazengo Secondary School was given to the Anglican Church of Tanzania (now St. John's University of Tanzania), Magamba Secondary School was given to the Evangelical Lutheran Church of Tanzania (now Sebastian Kolowa Memorial University), and the Bank of Tanzania Training Institute, Iringa, was given to the Roman Catholic Church of Tanzania (now Ruaha University College of St. Augustine University of Tanzania).

This private sector response in establishing universities has been quite intense and has caused Tanzania to become aligned to the deregulated educational industry worldwide, where the private sector is participating in the provision of what was originally the preserve of the government.

Statement of the Problem

By the 2013/2014 academic year, there were 19 private universities, comprising 68 per cent of all the universities with a total enrolment of 69,214 students or 35 per cent of the total enrolment (197,685 students) in all universities in Tanzania. Total enrolment in private universities increased by 29.5 per cent from 5,275 students in 2005/2006 to 17,865 students in 2007/2008 (ICU, 2009) to 69,214 students in the 2013/2014 academic year (BEST, 2013), a manifestation of the surge in the number of private universities. Despite the expansion of enrolment in private universities there is concern about their ability to carry out their core functions of teaching, research and community service, and more so the capacity of their academic staff to offer quality university education. Also, Rugonzibwa (2009) questioned the capacity of academic staff in private universities to teach, conduct scholarly research and participate in community service. Therefore, the study intended to identify the capacity

of academic staff, that is, how capable they are of carrying out the teaching, research and community service functions of universities.

Purpose and Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study was to critically examine the capacity of academic staff in private universities in Tanzania. This study looked at their academic qualifications, as well as their experience in teaching, research and community service as a measure of their capacity to perform academic duties. More specifically, the objectives of the study were to:

- (i) Identify the academic qualifications and work experience of academic staff in private universities.
- (ii) Investigate the adequacy of the academic qualifications of academic staff for carrying out the university's core functions.

Methodology

The study adopted a case study design. The population of the study consisted of academic staff from three private universities in Tanzania. The simple random sampling technique was used to select the sample that was used for the study. 390 academic staff were randomly selected from private universities, cutting across all disciplines, covering the humanities, sciences and social sciences, and including both genders.

Analysis and Discussion of Findings

Identification of Academic Qualifications and Work Experience of Academic Staff

The central point of this objective was to identify the academic qualifications of academic staff in private universities. Semi-structured interviews and documentary analysis were used to collect data from the respondents, who were the Deputy Vice Chancellors – Academic Affairs, (DVC – AA) in the respective private universities. The data obtained are presented in Table 2.0

Table 2.0 Academic staff by qualifications in the three sampled private universities in 2013/2014 academic year

University	Academic Staff by Qualifications												Total No. of Academic Staff		
	Doctorate			Masters			PGD			Bachelor			F	T	%
	F	T	%	F	T	%	F	T	%	F	T	%			
A	3	10	32	18	56	18	1	3	75	11	28	48	33	97	28
B	4	16	52	49	249	79	0	1	25	5	22	38	58	221	65
C	0	5	16	1	11	3	0	0	0	0	8	14	1	24	7
Total	7	31	100	68	316	100	1	4	100	16	58	100	92	342	100

Source: Field data, 2013

Key: M = Male, F = Female, T = Total, , PGD=Postgraduate Diploma

The table shows that doctorate holders comprised just 31 or 9 per cent in the sampled private universities. The majority of the doctorate holders were found in universities B and A, which had 16 (52 per cent) and 10 (32 per cent), respectively. A few doctorate holders, that is 5 (16 per cent), were found in university C, due to the inability of the university to pay a large number of them.

It was further observed that among those 31 doctorate holders 10 were part-time academic staff mainly from public universities. This shortage of full-time doctorate holders meant that their workload was heavy, which may undermine the quality of education, as it was observed that one doctorate holder was allocated up to 90 teaching hours per semester with an average of 300 students per class. Such a heavy teaching load as well as administrative responsibilities on various committees at departmental, faculty and top university management levels meant that a lot of these academic staff's time was devoted to teaching and administrative responsibilities, thus neglecting the other core functions of the university, that is, research and community service. Hence, it is argued that number and academic qualifications should not be the only criteria used for recruitment and distribution of the workload. The focus should also be on the needs of the faculty or department so that the right number of academic members of staff is recruited that will ensure their proper utilisation in the areas of teaching, research and community service, as well as ensuring medium or low unit costs.

Too much reliance on part-time academic staff increases unit costs, and so the operational costs of universities tend to rise, which results in universities sacrificing quality by enrolling more students to raise funds to pay for part-time lecturers. Also, hiring a large number of part-time lecturers denies students the opportunities for consulting their lecturers and getting academic advice from them on matters concerning their courses and careers, as insisted on by Coates and Dobson (2010) that universities should increase students' interaction with their lecturers because this is critical for their retention and graduation prospects.

It was also found that there are fewer female academic staff than male academic staff, as, for instance, in all the sampled private universities there were only 7 female doctorate holders out of 31. This trend may be attributed to the absence of a gender policy, which would demand that more qualified females are recruited, trained and promoted to higher academic and administrative ranks, as practised in public universities. For instance, at the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM), the gender policy states that UDSM shall mainstream gender in staff recruitment, development, training and retention. As a result of such policy implementation, it has managed to increase the number of female doctorate holders from 59 in the 2004/05 academic year to 67 in the 2009/2010 academic year (UDSM, 2010). Therefore, the absence of a gender policy in these private universities may be the reason why they have few female doctorate holders. This suggests that private universities need to put in place deliberate measures to correct such gender imbalance both at institutional level and across faculties. For instance, at university C the researcher found only one female academic member of staff.

Furthermore, it was observed in all three private universities that the majority of academic staff holds master's degrees, as, for example, 316 are master's degree holders (77 per cent), followed by 58 (14 per cent) bachelor degree holders. The majority of master's degree holders had just been recruited, and so lacked work experience in terms of teaching and publishing scholarly research results, but were allocated a heavy teaching load of up to 90 teaching hours per semester. Worse still, some were allocated to teach even master's degree programmes. This signifies that in these private universities the focus is on teaching without having regard for the knowledge that academic members of staff possess.

In university B the researcher found that academic staff with a master's degree teach and supervise master's degree students, while in university A the researcher noted that tutorial assistants with a

bachelor's degree were included in the teaching timetable and allocated up to 60 teaching hours per semester to teach undergraduate courses, although tutorial assistants were still being trained and were not supposed to teach but assist in tutorials/seminars. This practice of allocating the teaching workload to even bachelor degree holders (as tutorial assistants) and master's holders teaching master's degree classes is a notable violation of TCU regulations, which has had an impact on the quality of knowledge and skills students receive from those less qualified academic staff. This may result in the university not fulfilling its core functions of teaching, research and community service, hence compromising quality.

The researcher found that in University A, an academic staff member whose academic qualification is "*Doctor of Philosophy*" was equated to the Master of Philosophy degree by the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU, 2007b), a body mandated to standardise, recognise and equate degrees under the Universities Act No. 7 of 2005 (URT, 2005) in its public notice in the Daily News of July 26, 2007, while the academic staff member in university A was still categorised as a doctorate holder and given the rank of lecturer. This shows that university A has been deceptive by concealing the real academic qualification of this academic staff member, who has been re-categorised by TCU as holding a master's degree instead of doctoral degree which he claims to hold. If this unfortunate tendency is not checked by TCU in collaboration with pertinent universities, unqualified people may be allowed to penetrate higher education institutions as academicians, particularly those private universities whose recruitment eligibility criteria are not as strict as those in public universities, as reported by Rugonzibwa (2009), who stated that an academic staff member, who teaches in several private universities in Tanzania for more than five years, is under investigation, accused of using fake degree certificates. On the other hand, in public universities the recruitment criteria for academic staff are very strict and demand high-level academic performance. For instance, at the University of Dodoma (a public university) for a person to be recruited for a particular faculty or department as an academic member of staff he or she should possess the relevant first degree with an overall GPA of 3.8 at undergraduate level plus a GPA of not less 4.0 in master's degree results. However, in the sampled private universities no entry point had been set in terms of a minimum GPA for job applicants for the academic staff category to ensure they were eligible for employment (UDOM, 2007).

Moreover, this study found the double appearance of names of academic staff on different university payrolls, that is, academic staff who appeared in university A as full-time academic staff also appeared in university B as full-time academic staff. Another observation was that several academic staff in university B were also listed as full-time staff members in a public university. This implies that these private universities include the names of even those who are not full-time members of academic staff so as to either acquire accreditation from TCU or attract prospective students to join such universities on the premise that they have an adequate number of qualified academic staff. Furthermore, the double appearance of academic staff on different university payrolls implies that these private universities have little capacity in terms of academic staff, which raises the question of how they will be able to carry out their core functions of teaching, research and community service.

The researcher also noted that, out of 31 doctorate holders in all three private universities, 22 of them were either retirees from public universities or part-time lecturers, and only 9 full-time doctorate holders were found, which means that there is a negligible number of full-time doctorate holders among the academic staff. It was also noted that the few available doctorate holders were in most cases holding administrative posts as Vice Chancellors/Provosts, Deputy Vice

Chancellors/Deputy Provosts, Directors, Deans of Faculties or Heads of Departments, which adversely affects the teaching workforce. The prevalence of the shortage of highly qualified academic staff somewhat hinders the efforts to provide quality university education.

Overall, the findings on academic staff qualifications have established that there has been no commensurate expansion in the number of qualified academic staff in the sampled private universities. The difference between the number of academic staff available and the number of vacancies is an indicator of the gap in academic staff capacity and the extent to which existing academic staff are able to carry out the universities' research and teaching responsibilities.

Work experience of academic staff

This section assessed the work experience of academic staff in the selected private universities. Data were gathered through questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and documentary review. The respondents were academic staff. The findings indicated that the largest group of all academic staff in universities A, B and C (about 98 per cent) has less than 4 years' work experience, while the smallest group of academic staff (only about 2 per cent) have between 5 and 10 years' work experience.

The majority of the academic staff in each of the sampled private universities had little work experience (less than 5 years), and even the few with more than 5 years' experience have not done any scholarly research that has been published in the past five years. Therefore, their experience is only counted in terms of the number of years they have been teaching at a private university. Further analysis of the data indicated that the majority of the academic staff were directly recruited fresh from studies (without prior work experience), which means that the universities in which they are currently working was their first workstation after finishing university studies.

The DVC (AA) in university C explained:

Since we are a young university with limited funding sources, we do not have experienced academic staff, as we do not offer an attractive salary and so most academic staff tend to look for employment opportunities elsewhere. Only those who are committed remain and teach here due to their spiritual devotion to serve society despite not earning much.

Furthermore, the researcher found that in university A, most of the academic staff stay for a short time before they quit the job as the DVC (AA) of university A narrated:

We have a high turnover of academic staff in our university. Once recruited, some new staff, especially young staff, usually stay for only one or two semesters before quitting the job. For instance, in the 2008/2009 academic year, we recruited about 10 master's degree holders to teach in the Information Technology (IT) department but only one academic staff member remains.....

This suggests that most academic staff in private universities do not stay long to acquire work experience. Instead, they use their presence in these private universities as a platform to look for another job somewhere else. Ozturgut (2009) comments that most academic staff members in private universities usually look for a job which provides them with security and prestige.

Furthermore, inadequate salaries in these private universities lead to high turnover, with the universities losing their labour force to economically competitive sectors, such as financial institutions and telecommunications companies, which seemingly offer them attractive salaries and benefits including interest-free loans, housing, life and medical insurance and transport allowances. This observation concurs with what Ishengoma (2007) observed that experts from one organisation migrate to another organisation in the country in search of better payment (greener pastures).

Comparison of academic staff capacity between faculties

This section compares the capacity of academic staff available between faculties in the sampled universities. Data were gathered through questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and documentary review. The respondents were DVC's (AA), Deans of Faculties and academic staff. The data are presented in Table 4.3 a-c.

Table 3.0 a: Comparison of Academic Staff Capacity between Faculties in University A

Faculty	Academic Qualifications										
	Doctorate		Masters		PGD		Bachelor		Total		
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	T
Business & Economics	11	0	10	1	0	0	4	3	15	4	19
Law	0	0	2	1	0	0	2	1	4	2	6
Education & Science	0	0	3	4	1	1	4	2	9	6	15
Theology	2	1	10	2	0	0	1	0	13	3	16
Arts & Social Sciences	4	2	13	10	1	0	6	5	23	17	41
Total	7	3	38	18	2	1	17	11	64	32	97

PGD = Postgraduate Diploma

Table 3.0 b: Comparison of academic Staff Capacity between Faculties in University B

Faculty	Academic Qualifications										
	Doctorate		Masters		PGD		Bachelor		Total		
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	T
Business Admin.	2	2	30	10	0	0	6	1	38	13	51
Social Sciences & Mass Comm.	5	1	41	21	0	0	7	2	53	24	77
Law	0	0	20	5	0	0	1	1	21	6	27
Education	5	1	42	13	1	0	3	1	51	15	66
Total	12	4	133	49	1	0	17	5	163	58	221

Table 3.0 c: Comparison of Academic Staff Capacity between Faculties in University C

Faculty	Academic Qualifications										
	Doctorate		Masters		PGD		Bachelor		Total		
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	T
Arts & Humanities	3	0	6	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	15

Islamic Studies	2	0	4	0	0	0	1	0	7	0	7
Science	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
Total	5	0	10	1	0	0	8	0	22	1	23

The data in Table 3.0 a-c show variations in the capacity of academic staff in different faculties in the sampled private universities. The number of academic staff in social science-related faculties in university A is much higher than that in pure/natural science-related faculties and in the Faculty of Law. For instance, the number of academic staff in social science-related faculties, which include Business and Economics, Theology and Arts and Social Sciences, is 76 (78 percent) out of 97 academic staff in the university, while the Faculty of Education and Science had only 15 academic staff with no doctorate holders, and 7 of them with a master's degree had been recruited recently and so do not have much work experience. This imbalance in the capacity of academic staff between faculties creates unequal workload in faculties/departments. For instance, staff in the Faculty of Law had a heavy workload due to being few in number, that is, 3 holding a master's degree and the other 3 with a bachelor degree. In contrast, their counterparts in the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences number 40, 6 of whom hold doctorates, 38 have a master's, 3 are postgraduate diploma holders and 27 are bachelor degree holders. At University B, the Faculty of Law had 25 (11 percent) master's degree holders out of 221 academic staff employed by the university, while 62 (28 percent) in the Faculty of Social Science and Mass Communication possess a master's degree. At University C variations in academic staff between faculties is visible, with the Faculty of Science having only 1 full-time academic staff member while the Faculty of Arts and Humanities had a total of 15 full-time academic staff.

The findings indicate that, of all the faculties, the social science-related faculties, which include Arts and Social Sciences, Social Sciences and Mass Communication and Arts and Humanities, accounted for the highest number of all academic staff in the sampled private universities, followed by business-related faculties, such as Business and Economics and Business Administration, and the least was the pure/natural science-related faculty of the Faculty of Science. This imbalance in the availability of academic staff between faculties was attributed to the fact that social sciences and business-related faculties enrol many students and so they are in dire need of more academic staff to teach such a large number of students enrolled in these programmes. In addition, the greater availability of potential social science and business-related employees in the labour market made it easy for universities to recruit them, contrary to the few pure science potential employees in the labour market. When asked to comment on the academic staff variations between faculties, one Dean of Faculty in university B said:

Most social science-related faculties are well-stocked with academic staff, whereby it is possible to find several doctorate holders, but the situation is different in natural science-related faculties, whereby sometimes the whole faculty survives with only one full-time academic staff member.

The above explanation implied that social science-related faculties had an adequate number of academic staff, whereas there were few academic staff in the natural/pure science-related faculties. But the researcher was still of the opinion that even the social science-related faculties labelled "well-stocked" with academic staff needed to improve their capacity in terms of academic qualifications, as the majority of academic staff members had just been recruited and some of them had retired from public service, hence lacking adequate university teaching and research experience. As regards the acute shortage of academic staff in the pure science-related faculties, it connotes that emphasis is

placed on recruiting, developing and retaining academic staff for the social sciences, as the majority of private universities focus on establishing courses that are greatly demanded in the labour market and cheap to operate so that they can attract more students. Such courses include business-related, personnel management and information technology courses, contrary to public universities which offer a wide variety of courses, ranging from engineering to pure and applied science and even those courses which in the modern world are regarded as “less demanded” in the labour market.

Eligibility criteria for academic staff to be recruited

This section focuses on the criteria set by each university which academic staff job applicants have to meet in order to be recruited. The study involved DVCs (AA) and faculty deans as respondents. Semi-structured interviews and documentary review were used to collect data. The researcher observed that universities A and B had similar procedures for recruiting academic staff but university C had a different procedure.

Table 4.0 Procedures for Recruiting Academic Staff in Universities A, B and C

Step	Clarification	University		
		A	B	C
1	Advertise positions and people apply	V	V	V
2	Shortlist according to demand for programmes and area of specialisation	V	V	V
3	Invite shortlisted persons for interview	V	V	X
4	Conduct interview	V	V	X
5	Score the performance in the interview	V	V	X
6	Find average of marks interviewee scored, those with higher score recommended for employment by staff appointment committee to the university board/council	V	V	X
7	Submit a list of successful applicants to board of directors/university council for approval	V	V	V
8	Notify successful job applicants	V	V	V
9	Offer employment to the successful applicants	V	V	V

Table 4.0 shows that academic staff job applicants in universities A and B were subjected to long procedures before being offered a job. The procedures appeared to take too long before someone was offered a job in a particular university since that person had to attend an interview, after which much later on successful applicants were notified, leading to a low response rate of acceptance of a job offer by successful applicants as most of them opted to be employed in other institutions offering them employment immediately after the interview.

On the other hand, university C does not follow all the recruitment procedures used by universities A and B. It followed similar procedures in steps 1 and 2 (Table 4.0) for recruiting academic staff. The shortlist is then compiled and sent to the DVC-AA, who on behalf of the University Council informs those shortlisted that they have been offered employment at the university. The recruitment of academic staff at university C does not follow TCU guidelines. According to TCU (2007a), the entry qualification for a Tutorial Assistant post is a first degree at first or upper second division with a GPA of not less than 3.5. Nevertheless, that is not happening in university C.

The argument of the researcher on the findings is that the quality assurance body (TCU) needs to regularly inspect universities to check that they are abiding by the rules and regulations in place.

These findings are in line with those of Lam (2008), who established that procedures for recruiting staff in private universities were unclear, which led to favouritism on the grounds of religion and race, with the result that incompetent academic staff were employed in private universities. Also

Kamoche (2001) argued that with rising unemployment people were forced to rally even closer to their ethnic and religious roots in the hope of gaining the favour of their tribesmen and fellow believers who are in positions of authority.

It is therefore imperative for universities to put in place strict Human Resource Management practices to avoid negative practices that will adversely affect employees' behaviour at work. For example, any university recruiting, selecting, promoting and rewarding on the basis of kinship, tribalism or religion will end up having the university staffed by people from the same ethnic group or religious sect/denomination, leaving the rest as a minority group feeling unappreciated and hence resenting the majority. This eventually destroys any chance of team spirit and staff commitment to the university.

Furthermore, interviews with Deans of Faculties in universities A and B, where they usually follow recruitment procedures stipulated by the university management (Table 4.0), disclosed that in some instances the procedures were violated during the implementation stage. For instance, when the names of successful job applicants recommended for employment (after interviews were conducted) by the staff appointment committee (of which faculty deans are members) are sent to the board of directors for approval they were omitted and no reason was given for their omission. One faculty dean in university A complained:

..I am a member of the staff appointments committee, which recommends that successful job applicants after the interview has been conducted be employed. To my surprise, the names of three of the successful applicants recommended by the committee for employment were omitted by the board of directors, which approves the names of successful applicants, without any reason being given for such omission...

Such complaints indicated that the procedures for obtaining qualified and competent academic staff and offering them employment were unfair, not meritocratic or transparent, because when recommended some potential academic staff members were omitted at the last stage of board of directors' approval. As a result, the burden of shortage of academic staff remained in the department(s) or faculties in which those potential academic staff members were recommended for employment. This was contrary to the regulations stipulated in TCU (2007a), which advocates that the recruitment of academic staff with the right academic qualifications, teaching and research experience for degree programme supervisors and related academic work shall be assessed by the university's appointed organs on the basis of the number of research contributions and publications produced. It is also contrary to the goals of the Public Service Reform Programme, which insists on open and fair competition for job vacancies and unbiased recruitment criteria that should be based on academic and professional qualifications together with competence (URT, 2000).

For the successful recruitment of qualified academic staff in private universities, the whole recruitment process should be more transparent, particularly when offering employment to successful candidates, and recommendations from interview panellists (staff appointments and development committee members) should be taken into account. Advertising vacancies both in local and international media will attract potential applicants to apply. Thereafter, short-listing and timely feedback should be given to successful candidates and those not successful should be given reasons.

Conclusion

The importance of university education for a country's development should not be downplayed, in terms of quality educational research and technological advancement. The role of universities is to provide the economy with a much needed corps of educated personnel necessary for national development and to give the country an edge in terms of the knowledge economy. The emergence of private universities as an alternative provider of higher education in Tanzania has been linked to the ideology of liberalisation of education, associated with privatisation initiated by the World Bank through the Structural Adjustment Programmes aimed at cutting back public spending. Private universities in Tanzania have become central to meeting the increasing demand for higher education due to the inability of public universities to meet this demand. However, if private universities in Tanzania are to achieve this, they require sufficient qualified human resources, in particular highly qualified academic staff. Unfortunately, the human resource challenges facing private universities in Tanzania are threatening the attainment of their stated missions and goals. Since private universities depend entirely on tuition fees and donations from benefactors amid growing enrolment, this has negatively affected the quality and relevance of their education.

Recommendations

On the basis of the study findings, the following recommendations are made:

- i. Strict and transparent recruitment criteria should be in place, according to which job applicants will be employed based on the needs of the department or faculty, their academic qualifications and work experience.
- ii. Private universities should use appropriate strategies for allocating the workload among its academic staff so that they fulfil their core functions of teaching, research and community service.

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