

**CONTRIBUTION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION TO YOUTHS'
EMPLOYMENT: A CASE STUDY OF MBEYAMUNICIPALITY**

BY

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**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
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ABSTRACT

The study investigated the contribution of vocational education to youths' employment in Mbeya Municipality. The study objectives were (a) to determine the sources of trade skills among youth employed in vocational activities (b) to examine the measures taken by the Vocational Training Centres (VTCs) in preparing their graduates for self employment. (c) To assess entrepreneurship knowledge among self-employed VTCs graduates (d) to identify the problems facing VTCs graduates in securing employment. The study was a cross sectional and data were collected from 192 respondents of which 172 were employees, 20 instructors and employers were eligible for interviews. The techniques and tools for data collection were questionnaires, interviews, and documentary analysis. Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Quantitative data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11.5. Multiple linear regression models were also used to prove the correctness of specific objectives. The result indicated that for those VTCs graduates who were employed in vocational work, trade skills were their main source of income. It was also indicated that although there is a larger number of VTCs, many were trained informally. Further, more result showed both VTCs graduates and instructors recommended that vocational education should focus on youth because it is easy to create self-employment. Vocational education contributed to youth employment but VTCs graduates were affected by several factors such as shortage of employment opportunity, capital and lack of entrepreneurship knowledge. Results also revealed that many VTCs graduates were unemployed despite possessing trade skills, leading some to involve themselves in non skilled activities such as security guards. The study recommends the government to introduce short courses, and initiate special support for self-employed VTCs graduates because some have managed self-employ themselves and are also employing other graduates and train those who missed a chance to join formal VTCs.

DECLARATION

I, Bon Ben Yidiga Mwasaka, do hereby declare to the Senate of Sokoine University of Agriculture that this dissertation is my own original work and that it has neither been published nor concurrently submitted for a higher degree award in any other University.

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Date

The above declaration confirmed

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Date

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved parents Ben Mwasaka and Tungwilelupi Nyingi, for laying the foundation of my academic life. Furthermore, the study is dedicated to my family, my wife Neema, my sisters and brothers.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ADP	-	Agricultural Development Programme
ANOVA	-	Analysis of Variance
BEST	-	Basic Education Statistics
ESDP	-	Education Sector Development Programme
ETP	-	Education and Training Policy
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Project
ILO	-	International Labour Organization
MMC	-	Mbeya Municipal Council
MDG'S	-	Millennium Development Goals
MLEYD	-	Ministry of Labour Employment and Youth Development
MOEC	-	Ministry of Educational and Culture
MoEVT	-	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
MVTTC	-	Morogoro Vocational Training Teachers Centres
NBS	-	National Bureau of Statistics
NGO	-	Non Government Organization
NPES	-	National Poverty Eradication Strategy
NSGRP	-	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
NSGEP	-	National Strategies for Growth and Eradication of Poverty
NVTD	-	National Vocational Training Division
PRSP	-	Poverty Reduction Strategies Paper
RCO	-	Regional Commissioner Officer
RGDP	-	Regional Gross Domestic Products
SEDP	-	Secondary Education Development Programme
SMEs	-	Small and Medium Enterprises

SACCOS	-	Savings and Credit Cooperative Society
SSA	-	sub-Saharan Africa
SPSS	-	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SUA	-	Sokoine University of Agriculture
TAS	-	Tanzania Shillings
TDV	-	Tanzania Development Vision 2025
UN	-	United Nations
UNCTAD	-	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	-	United National Development Programme
UNIDO	-	United National Industrial Development Organization
URT	-	United Republic of Tanzania
VETA	-	Vocational Education and Training Authority
VSWZ	-	VETA South Western Zone
VET	-	Vocational Educational Training
VTC	-	Vocational Training Centre
WEO	-	Ward Executive Officer

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background Information

Employment in any economy stimulates economic growth since it reduces the level of unemployment in the nation and the world at large. In many cities in developing countries, 50% of the populations are known to be scraping an existence within the subsistence economies today (Peter *et al.*, 2002). The main victims of this heterogeneous economic structure are children and young people. There are at present, about 80 million young people between the ages of 15-24 years living in developing countries of Africa and Asia (Peter *et al.*, 2002). More than two thirds of these young people live in urban areas, and this proportion is expected to rise to over 80% by the year 2000 (Korff, 1994).

The population in Africa is growing much faster than the continent's economies. The poor are likely to rise from 315 million in 1999 to 404 million in 2015. 40-50% of the Africa's population is under 15 years of age (ILO, 2004). Unemployment in Africa, specifically in sub Saharan Africa (SSA) has increasingly become a concern in many nations. For a while it is easy to identify the poverty indicators and many countries have not clearly worked out a reasonable directional map to deal with the unemployment problem (ILO, 2000). About half of the young people leave school after primary education and the other half after secondary (ILO, 2000). The term "youth" covers persons aged 15 to 24 years, while "adult" are defined as person's aged 25 years and over (ILO, 2006). Africa faces a sharply worsening unemployment and poverty unless governments take multi-faceted actions to create jobs (ILO, 2003).

In the case of Tanzania, the Ministry of Labour, Employment and Youth Development report of 2006 indicated that there was a strong link between the unemployment problem and poverty levels (URT, 2006). Efforts aimed at poverty eradication must include employment creation strategies. According to the Integrated Labour Force Survey of 2000/01, out of the total population of 32.8 million people, the labour force accounted for 17.8 million people and out of these 2.3 million or 12.9% were unemployed (URT, 2006). In 2006, the rate of unemployment among the youth was 14.3% of the population, and among which women accounted for 14.2%, compared to 11.6% men. The situation was worse in towns and cities where 32.0% of the population compared to 8.0% of the population in rural areas. Lower rates in rural areas were encountered in agriculture, which employed 82.1% of the labour force. The Labour Force Survey of 2000/01 also showed that 700 000 of young people entered the labour force annually while formal employment opportunities took in only 40 000 (URT, 2006). The remaining group employed themselves in the informal sector and others remained unemployed because of lack skills. Youth unemployment is an important policy issues for many countries, regardless of the stage of development.

The Vocational Training System

Before independence, apprenticeship training was based on the 1940 Ordinance Cap. 81 of the Laws. The schools were initially established to fill a real need because the country had neither the industrial network nor the skilled workers who could train others on the job. However the curriculum placed great emphasis on workshop practice while the schools were conforming to the requirements of the education system instead of industrial system. After independence in 1961, the government inherited two trade schools (Ifunda Technical School and Moshi Technical School) operated by the Ministry of Education and

established Vocational Training Centre in 1969 at Chang'ombe in Dar es Salaam (Moshi, 2005). In 1974, the first Vocational Training Act was enacted to replace the Apprenticeship Ordinance followed by the establishment of the National Vocational Training Division (NVTD) in September 1975 under the Ministry of Labour and Manpower Development. In its 20 years of existence (from 1974-1994), the National Vocational Training Division established 18 Vocational Training Centres and one Vocational Teachers Training College (MVTTC) in Morogoro region (Mbwanji, 2002a). A total of 34 trades were offered to equip young men and women with basic employable skills before they joined organizations in various sectors of the national economy. The Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) supervised by the board that were established to carry out the day-to-day operational, and responsible for the implementation of the boards' policies (Mbwanji, 2002b).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Despite the efforts done by the government through VETA to provide Vocational Education for unemployment reduction, there is inadequate information on how vocational training has contributed to unemployment reduction among graduates since the rate of unemployment is still high. This problem is characterized by shortages of employment or job opportunities in urban areas and under utilization of the majority of the national labour force in rural areas. Unemployment is highest among youth, with young women facing serious unemployment problems. Like in many other African countries, the formal labour market in Tanzania is small and decreasing even more as a consequences of economic and social adjustments during the last 15 years. The formal labour market is profoundly imbalanced as 45% of the total population is under 15 years of age (Ndunguru, 2002).

Tanzania youth who enter the labour force annually are estimated at 600 000 to 700 000 with less than 5.7% jobs created in the modern wage sub-sector per annum (URT, 2001). To overcome the problem of youth unemployment, the government has designed several measures of which Vocational Education Training is among one of them. Most of Vocational Education Training for youth is carried out in VETA, and the main focus is to produce skilled labour to enhance employment (self – employment) and reduce poverty with the ultimate goal of improving the economic status of the people. There are about 860 Vocational Training Centres VTCs coordinated by VETA in the country with about 97 145 students who join annually to pursue 94 different long course skills and various tailor made short courses Mbeya region has 52 VTCs (Mjelwa, 2007). Little or no research has been undertaken on VETA’s employment of youths and the relative impacts of this type of training although it is frequently asserted that vocational training is particularly beneficial for unemployment reduction (UNDP/ILO, 2001).

1.3 Study Justification

The problem of youth unemployment is currently a serious issue in Tanzania and the vast majority of youths receive no vocational training of any kind. Most work as unskilled labour in small and medium sized firms and their employment is inferior and lowly paid. The working conditions are poor, hence, there is a need for systematic vocational training in order to increase their productivity and thus increase their chances of mobility in the job market. In order to prepare skilled labour force, emphasis on the provision of vocational training has now changed from job seekers to job creators. This study is in line with the National Development Vision 2025, which outlines the long term social economic development goals and aspirations (URT, 2005).

The National Strategies for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) puts emphasis on poverty reduction in pursuance of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) agreed targets towards the reduction of poverty, hunger, diseases, illiteracy and environmental degradation by 2015 (WB, 2002 and URT, 2000). There are also policies such as the Education and Training Policy of 1995, the Technical Education and Training Policy of 1996, The Employment Promotion Services (NEPS) Act of 1999, Education and Entrepreneurship Training/Vocational Education Training (EET/VET) Policy of 1993, Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) of 1999 and National Employment Policy of 1997, all of which put emphasis on youth and women training for increasing employment opportunities. Assessment of vocational education outcomes is important to determine whether the set goals have been achieved or not. Results from the study would help planners and implementers to distribute equitable training resources in order to strengthen them. Specifically, this study will contribute to understanding VTCs employment creation in Mbeya municipality. Study findings will also be useful to other stakeholders, policy makers, planners, educationalist, NGOs and the public.

1.4 Objectives

1.4.1 General objective

To investigate the contribution of vocation educational training in creating employment for youths.

1.4.2 Specific objective

1. Determine the sources of skills among youth employed in vocational activities.
2. Examine the measures taken by VTCs in preparing their graduates for self-employment.

3. Asses entrepreneurship knowledge among self employed graduates of VTCs.
4. Identify the problems facing VTC graduates in securing formal and informal employment.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

H₀: There is no significant relationship between following courses offered by a VTC and youth employment.

H_i: There is significant relationship between following courses offered by a VTC and youth employment

1.6 Conceptual Framework

Conceptual framework is a narrative outline presentation of variables to be studied and hypothetical relationships between and among the variables shown in the conceptual framework (Fig. 1) is: contextual factors, which include Tanzanian social-economic, political and cultural factors. The independent variables consist of demographic, social, economic, personal aspect, and training factors. Demographic variables include age, sex and marital status. Social variables include attitudes towards VTCs, education level, and awareness toward VTCs. Economic variables include occupation wage of employed VTCs graduates, school fees, economic activities, and availability of capita for self employment. Personal aspects include job experience and employment status. Training variables include form of training attained, types of skills attained, training duration, and institutions. The dependent variable youth employment.

Contextual variables were expected to have little influence on independent variables. Demographic, social, economic factors, personal aspect and training variables were also

expected to influence the dependent variable. Also it seeks to indicate the interrelationship between economic, knowledge and skills gained during training and experience in realization of the youths' unemployment reduction. Operational definition of variables and other related terms (Appendix 3).

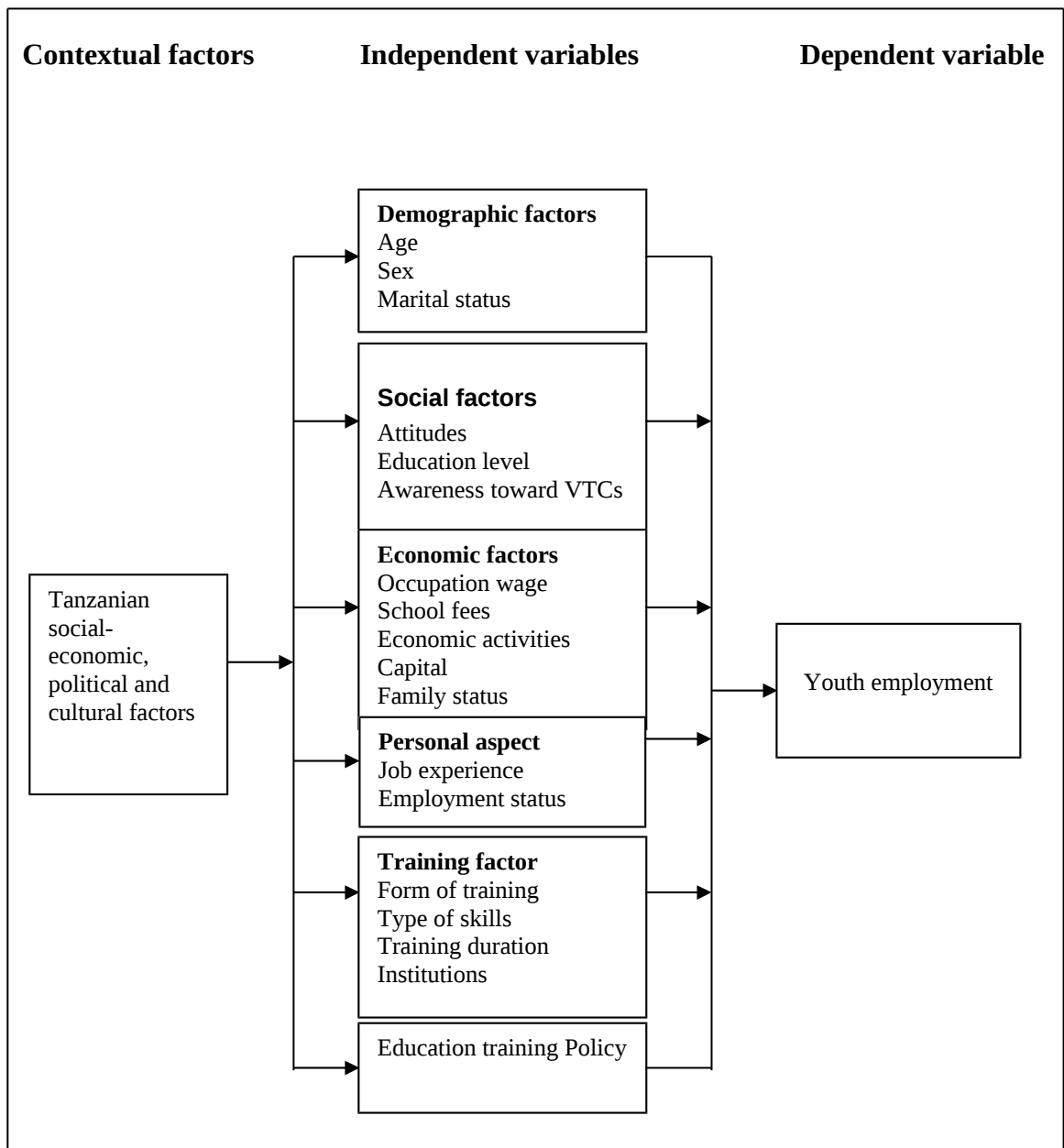


Figure 1: Conceptual framework of factors that influencing youth employment.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview of the Unemployment Situation

The actualisation of employment and rising income inequality means that employment is a buffer against poverty but it does not guarantee a poverty-free life (UNCTAD, 2004). Lack of employment remains the single most important determinant of poverty. The impact of unemployment is highly asymmetrical, and that those who suffer most from unemployment tend to miss out on the benefits of economic growth and suffer long-term costs way beyond simply being unemployed (Ndunguru, 2003). A major route out of poverty in Africa is decent employment because it strengthens the link between economic growth and aggressive poverty reduction (ILO, 2005a).

Unemployment and underemployment rates in Tanzania have increased over the past decade (ILO, 2002). The labour force survey for Tanzania indicates that un-employment and under employment rates increased over the past ten years at a time when the economic growth rate almost doubled (ILO, 2002). Urban unemployment rates attained levels of over 20 percent and youth unemployment reached over 40%.

A common topic amongst youth these days is the unemployment rate amongst the youth, and is one of the most overwhelming problems faced by developed and developing countries alike (ILO, 2005). This problem has continued to cause many youth to suffer, thus prompting concern by authorities to look for a solution. One thing which is clear is that sustainable, job-enhancing economic growth remains an indispensable component of any strategy to eradicate youth unemployment (ILO, 2004). The only asset that the poor

have is their labour, and if we can find ways to improve the way they work, we can have a dramatic increase in poverty alleviation (Narayan, 1997).

According to ILO (2007), there are 20 indicators that cover various facets of the world of work, which examines the conditions of work, economic activity and employment. The first is the labour force participation rate, which measures the proportion of a country's working-age population that is engaged actively in the labour market, either by working or looking for work. Second is the employment-to-population ratio, which provides information on the ability of an economy to create employment. Third is the status in employment, which distinguishes between three important and useful categories of the employed – (a) wage and salaried workers, (b) self-employed workers, and (c) contributing family workers – with each being expressed as a proportion of the total employed. The fourth is the employment by sector, which disaggregates employment into three broad sectors – agriculture, industry and services – and expresses each as a percentage of the total employment. Fifth is the part-time worker, which focuses on individuals whose working hours total less than “full time”, as a proportion of total employment.

Sixth, are the hours of work, which give an overall picture of the time that the employed throughout the world devote to work. Seventh, is the employment in the informal economy, which relates the estimated number of persons employed in the informal economy to the total number of employed persons. Eighth, is the unemployment rate, which indicates the proportion of the labour force that does not have a job and is actively, looking for work. Ninth, is the youth unemployment, for the purpose of this indicator, the term “youth” covers persons aged 15 to 24, while “adults” are defined as persons aged 25 and over. This indicator presents youth unemployment in the following ways: (a) the youth

unemployment rate; (b) the youth unemployment rate as a percentage of the adult unemployment rate; (c) the youth share in total unemployment; and (d) youth unemployment as a proportion of the youth population.

The tenth is the long-term unemployment, which makes the basic assumption that unemployment that lasts a full year or more is too long, and is thus a phenomenon worthy of special attention. Two separate measures of long-term unemployment are included: (a) those unemployed one year or more as a percentage of the labour force; and (b) those unemployed one year or more as a percentage of the total unemployed (the incidence of long-term unemployment). Eleventh, is the unemployment by educational attainment, which indicates the relationship between the educational attainment of workers and unemployment in different countries. Twelfth, is the time-related underemployment, which describes employment-related problems, as well as assessing the extent to which available human resources are being utilized in the production process of the country. Thirteenth, is the inactivity rate, which defines the percentage of the population that is neither working nor seeking work (that is, not in the labour force). The 25-54 age groups is of particular interest since it is considered to be the “prime-age” group, in which individuals are generally expected to be in the labour force.

It is worthwhile investigating why this potential labour force participant is inactive, since it has normally completed its education, but has not yet reached retirement age. Fourteenth, is the inactivity rate of women, which tells us a lot about the social customs of a country, attitudes towards women in the labour force, and family structures in general. Fifteenth, is the educational attainment and illiteracy, which indicates the levels and distribution of the knowledge- and skills-base of the labour force and population. Sixteenth, is the

manufacturing wages indices, which indicate real wages in manufacturing despite the fact that paid employment in manufacturing activities is not uniformly distributed across regions and over time. Seventeenth is the occupational wage and earning indices, which indicates trends in, and differential between, occupational wages (i.e. wage rates or earnings) in specific industry groups. Changes in average wages within an industry or sector may be due not only to changes in levels of wage rates or earnings but also to changes in the occupational composition of employment and in the proportion of men and women employed.

Eighteenth, is the hourly compensation cost, which is only one factor in international competitiveness and, when used alone, can be misleading. However, in conjunction with other indicators, including labour productivity and unit labour costs, relative changes can be helpful in assessing trends in competitiveness. Nineteenth, is the labour productivity and unit labour costs, which assess the international competitiveness of a labour market. Twentieth is the employment elasticities, which provides a numerical measure of how employment growth varies with growth in economic output – i.e. how much employment growth is associated with one percentage point of economic growth. Poverty, can result when individuals are unable to generate sufficient income from their labour to maintain a minimum standard of living. Because labour is often the most significant, if not the only asset of individuals in poverty, the most effective way to improve the level of welfare is to increase employment opportunities and labour productivity through education and training (ILO, 2005b).

productivity remained “somewhat low” in East and South Asia (at about \$12 000), the rates of growth ranged from 5 to 8 per cent (ILO, 2007). There has been a significant

reduction in the number of working poor in those regions. The countries of South-East Asia were well on track or ahead of schedule to reduce poverty by half by 2015, as envisioned by the Millennium Development Goals (ILO, 2007).

One region lagging behind dramatically was SSA, which registered only a moderate growth in productivity over the past decade (ILO, 2007). In 1996, productivity value added for person employed stood at \$4 490, in 2006; there had been only a slight improvement to \$5 062 (ILO, 2007). If we are to reduce poverty in SSA, we must examine critically how people work because it is the only asset the poor have for establishing poverty alleviation. It is necessary to improve the productivity and efficiencies of their work. This could be achieved through the improvement of skills and education, improving knowledge about the markets, communication, and the infrastructure (Kaale, 2005). One could not expect to bring SSA to the level of industrialized economies overnight, but looking at the experience of East and South Asia, one could agree that even doubling the productivity levels could lead to a dramatic decrease in poverty (ILO, 2006).

2.2 Overview of Employment in Tanzania

The population of Tanzania, which was 12.3 million in 1967, almost, tripled in 35 years to about 34.6 million in 2002 (URT, 2003a), and the urban population has also steadily grown from 2.7% in 1957 to 25.7% in 1997 (ILO-IPEC, 2001). The general population projection is that over half the developing world's population will reside in cities by year 2025 (Scott, 1995). The estimate for Tanzania is pegged at 55%, the average Tanzania family has about 4.9 people and the dependence ratio for the 15-65 age range is 94.1 (ILO-UNIDO-UNDP, 2002). Thus, there is a fast population growth in Tanzania accompanied by an intense rural-urban migration with a very high dependence ratio. Also, there are a

growing number of largely unskilled new entrants into the labour market (ILO, UNIDO-UNDP, 2002; URT, 2003b). Further more, the SME policy document (URT, 2003b) states that there are about 700 000 new entrants into Tanzania's labour force every year (ILO-UNIDO-UNDP, 2002; URT, 2003b), of which about 500 000 are school leavers with few marketable skills (URT, 2003).

The public sector employs only about 40 000 of the new entrants into the labour market, leaving 660 000 to join the unemployed category. As such, in the absence of unemployment benefits, it is evident that the majority of these people must earn their livelihood by self-employment (URT, 2003b). Social-economic problems confront the youth such as unemployment, poverty, HIV/AIDS, environmental mismanagement and drug abuse (Haonga, 2008). According to the 2002 national census, youth aged between 15 to 35 years are 16.2 million or about half of the total population. The census figures also indicate that 12.9 percent of the population is comprised of unemployed people the majority of whom is composed of youth living in urban areas. For example, Dar es Salaam has 46.5 per cent of its labour force unemployed (Daily news reporter, 2008).

The National Poverty Eradication Strategy of 1998 reported that high incidence of unemployment is among the key distinguishing features of poverty which makes it difficult for the economy to generate enough employment opportunity to meet the need of the labour force (URT, 2005). Poor living conditions in the rural areas serve as a centripetal force to push the youth to urban areas where most of them remain un-employed (ILO-UNIDO-UNDP, 2002). The almost 30% of youth un-employment reflects, in part, due to the inability of the economy to create sufficient employment opportunities for the growing population, as well as the inability of the rural areas to create gainful employment

opportunities and incentives to retain youths after graduation from primary education (ILO-IPEC, 2001).

Indicators of status distinguish between three important and useful categories of the employed: (a) wage and salaries workers, (b) self-employed workers, and (c) contributing family workers- with each being expressed as a proportion of the total employed (ILO, 2007). Categorisation by employment status can help in understanding both the dynamics of the labour market and the level of development of countries. Over the years, and bearing in mind the growth of the country, one would typically expect to see a shift in employment from the agriculture to the industry and services sectors, with a corresponding increase in wage and salaried workers and decreases in self-employed and contributing family workers, previously employed in the agricultural sector (ILO, 2007).

Tanzania has high rate of unemployment and underemployment as it stands at 2.3million (1.3 million are women, 1.0 million are men), which is equivalent to 12.9% of labour force. The employment population ratio is 76% nationally. The ratio is lower in urban areas (58%) than in rural areas (81%). Unemployment is worse among the youth including educated ones (URT, 2003a). Also the integrated labour force report of 2001/02 revealed that total labour force aged 15 years and above has increased from 11.2 million in 1990/91 to 17.8 million in 2001 implying that 650 000 new people have been entering the labour market every year (URT, 2005).

The growth of the Tanzanian population has exceeded the growth in the service and industrial sector of the economy with implications on employment opportunities. Each year the primary school system in Tanzania produces over 360 000 graduates that join the

unemployment pool to which the youth already constitute the majority (URT, 1994). Among the few who join secondary education, the increasing number that fail their O-level examinations and do not secure the O-level Certificate of Education add to this pool of the unemployed youth.

In Tanzania, there is a direct association between the educational level attained and employment opportunity, income and social-economic status, which means that given the geographic differentials between rural and urban areas in access to education, youth from rural areas are unlikely to find jobs with ease in urban areas to which they migrate. Consequently, this creates a state of rural poverty in urban areas, in which they may be more vulnerable than their urban counterparts. Many rural migrants to urban areas experience difficulties in securing both employment and accommodation forcing them to live in makeshift houses in squatter settlements that lack basic social service facilities (Lugalla, 1997).

In the case of youth and education in Tanzania, the government is committed to ensure availability of good quality education for all, which is indispensable for socio-economic development of the country as reflected in various policy documents. The economic survey of 2004 reported that an average of 650 000 people join the labour force every year of which more than half of those are aged between 15 and 29 and approximately 82% live in the rural areas (URT, 2006). Eighty per cent of the labour force is economically active, and of this, 84.0% are self-employed in traditional agriculture, 6.0% in the informal sector, 4.0% in the formal private sector, 3.5% in domestic economic activities, 2.0% in government, and 0.5% in Parastatal organizations (URT, 2004).

The report further shows that the unemployment rate for the whole country is 12.9%, and almost half of the unemployed live in urban areas, of which the youth are more affected by this problem. Analysis of employing sectors reveals that the public sector, which used to be the main wage employer, has greatly gone down in generating employment opportunities (URT, 2004).

The Tanzania Development Vision 2025, among other things, provides guidelines on how to deal with the problem of unemployment and poverty eradication, and that the informal sector has great potential of expanding and generating employment. About 61% of all urban households and 27% of rural households are engaged in informal sector activities (NBS, 2005). The government has released a new National Youth Development Policy that focuses on increasing employment opportunities among the youth and poverty reduction. The global trends include changing life styles, new cultures, values and orientations in agriculture and industrial manufacturing, and small and medium-scale enterprises. Others include the provision of employability skills through community services, formation of youth development groups, as well as formation of credit cooperative societies known as SACCOS.

Over 90% of all unemployed people are without any form of formal vocational or related training, and the current labour demands is shifting towards more skilled workers both in self employment and salaried jobs, especially in a highly competitive business environment partly resulting from globalisation. It is therefore crucial to establish programmes for imparting knowledge and skills to those seeking to enter the labour market for the first time, but even more important to those already working in order to improve their level of knowledge and skills. Skilled labour is a decisive factor in improving work place

productivity and creating more training opportunities for the ever swelling army of college and school leavers. For example, the number of school leavers in the country has increased from 430 000 in 1995 to 600 000 in 2006, a 49% rise, adding that the projection for 2010 would be 1.6 million (Haonga, 2008).

2.4 Background on Vocational Training Centres in South Western Zone

Number of centres, graduates and trades offered by VETA in the south western zone made up of two political regions of Mbeya and Rukwa. The two regions have a total number of 63 Vocational Training Centres. Capacity of the centres in all VETA and Non-VETA owned centres during the year 2006 was 8 241 (Mjelwa, 2007). Enrolments in the centres in both long and short courses were 2 339 male and 1 348 female trainees. Graduates for long courses during the year 2006 were 1 780 male and 959 female (Mjelwa, 2007) (Appendix 5). Capacity utilization for the available capacity and trainees during the year 2006 was 86% for Non-VETA Centres and 72% for VETA owned centres making an overall capacity utilization of 86%. Occupational trades offered by VET centres in the zone included carpentry and joinery, masonry and bricklaying, electrical installation, plumbing and pipefitting. Others are welding and fabrication, motor vehicle mechanics, auto body repair, auto electric, tailoring and designing, secretarial and computer, fitter mechanics, catering and hotel services, painting and sign writing.

Results from several studies done by VETA in the south western zone (VSWZ), shows that different employment status and categories in three sectors of constructions, hospitality and manufacturing. Labour market survey in the construction sector conducted by VETA in the south western zone between October 2006 and February 2007 found that of the employed total of the 992, 958 (97%) were males and 34 (3.0%) females. The survey also found that

vocational category comprised of 389 (39%), while technical category only 66 (7%). A qualitative analysis showed that of the 34 job titles found in the construction sector most relate to training provided by VET centres (Mjelwa, 2007) (Appendix 4).

The construction sector contributes to formal and self-employment in the formal and informal sector of the economy and most dominant skills in the construction sector are mostly in the domestic aspect. The skills include masonry and bricklaying, carpentry, painting and sign writing; domestic electrical installation, plumbing and drainage. Training statistics from VETA in the south western zone shows that 14% of all VETA graduates worked in the construction sector related trades (Mjelwa, 2007).

In 2007, survey of 43 hotels was done in the south western zone involving 513 employees, and found that 270 (53%) were permanently employed, while 243 (47%) were temporary employed. Of the permanent employees male were 113 (54%) and females were 130 (46%) and of all employed in hotels, 90 (18.0%) worked in management, 47 (9.0%) as technical staff, while 331 (65%) worked as vocational staff. For example, the study showed that employment in the 46 firm in manufacturing employed mostly males out of its 2 669 employees. Males still dominate the employment in the manufacturing sector accounting for 1 728 (65.0%) of the total employees compared to 936 (35%) females (Mjelwa, 2007) (Appendix 4).

CHAPTER THREE

MATERIAL AND METHODS

3.1 Overview

This chapter discusses the methodology of this study, which includes description of study areas, sampling procedures, pre testing of questionnaires, data collection and data analysis, and tools used for data analysis. The limitations encountered during the survey are also discussed.

3.2 Description of the Study Area

The study was conducted in Mbeya Municipality, According to the Tanzania National Population and Housing Census of 2002 the region had 2 070 046 people and Mbeya Municipality had 266 422 people (URT, 2003, 2006). The area was selected due to the presence of many Vocational Training Centres and the VETA south western zones headquarters in Mbeya. Another reason which determined the choice of this location was the presence of a large number of unemployed youth in the area.

Mbeya region is located in the south-western part of the southern highlands of Tanzania, on latitude 7° and 9° 31' south of the equator and between longitude 32° and 35° east of Greenwich (ADP, 2003). Mbeya shares borders with countries of Zambia and Malawi to the immediate south; Rukwa region to the west, Tabora and Singida regions to the north and Iringa region to the east. Tunduma and Kasumulu in Mbozi and Kyela districts respectively are the main entries and/ or exits to the neighbouring countries of Zambia and Malawi, respectively. Mbeya region covers a total area of 63 617 square kilometres (Sqkms), which is 6.4% of the total area of the United Republic of Tanzania

(URT, 2003, 2006). The region's total surface area, of 61 783 sq kms is dry land and 1 834 sq kms is covered with water (Table1).

Table 1: Surface area classification by district of Mbeya region, 2003

	District	Land area (sq kms)	Water area (sq kms)	Total area (sq kms)
1	Chunya	28 114	1 105	29 219
2	Ileje	1 908	-	1 908
3	Kyela	905	357	1 322
4	Mbeya rural	2 432	-	2 432
5	Mbarali	16 632	-	16 632
6	Mbeya urban	214	-	214
7	Mbozi	9 309	372	9 679
8	Rungwe	2 211	-	2 211

Source URT (2003, 2006)

A large part of Mbeya region lies within the Great Rift Valley, with the following major topographical features:

- a) The low elevation of the western rift zone encompassing lakes Rukwa and Nyasa.
- b) The eastern rift zone covering the Usangu plains and the neighbouring parts of the Ruaha.
- c) The lowlands within the Great Rift Valley (URT, 2003, 2006).

The climate of Mbeya municipality is greatly influenced by physiology and altitude, marked with seasonal and altitudinal temperature variations and sharply defined dry and rainy seasons. Temperature averages range between 16°C in the highlands and 25°C in the lowland areas (ADP, 2003). The major economic activities carried out in Mbeya region is subsistence agriculture, which contributes over 40% of the regional Gross Domestic Products (GDP) mainly from coffee, tea, pyrethrum, tobacco, and sunflower and from

some food crops namely maize, paddy, and beans. Other predominant economic activities include livestock keeping, fishing, industrial activities, minor mining, commerce, infrastructure, social services and public administration. The region's GDP earnings portray a remarkable growth between 1990 and 2000 from TAS. 42 216 millions in 1990 to TAS.366 241 in 2000 recording a 5.8 % increase (URT, 2003).

3.2 Research Design

A cross-sectional design was applied whereby data was collected at a single point in time from a sample selected to represent some large population (Babbies, 1990). This design is suitable for data collected through cross sections for both description and determination of relationships between variables. The study findings were supplemented by observations, which involved the identification of different vocational activities done by respondents. Discussions and interviews were done with various staff and key stakeholders in vocational training centres in the municipality. The study population consisted of individuals involved in vocational activities either formally or self-employed in workshops in Mbeya municipality.

3.3 Sampling Technique and Procedures

The sampling unit are individuals involved in vocational activities in workshops, and multistage sampling technique was employed. This technique is convenient for studying large and diverse urban population of which the list of actual individuals to be studied is not available (Singleton *et al.*, 1993). The sampling stages involved wards, *mitaas* and workshops. A workshop owner was considered as a unit of analysis because ownership and decisions about investment, production and utilization of income generated are made by a workshop owner. Random sampling methods were used to select wards, *mitaas* and

workshops. Purposive sampling methods were used to select wards, which had vocational activities. This method was performed after the researcher visited all the wards and decided which wards to include in the study. Hence, all urban wards within the municipality were visited and 10 wards were selected (Table 2). In purposive sampling, the researcher uses his own judgment about which respondents to choose, and only picked those who best meet the purposes of the study (Babbie, 1990).

Table 2: Wards selected for the study in Mbeya municipality

Region	Municipality	Division	Name of identified ward selected	No. of respondents
Mbeya	Mbeya	Iyunga	Forest	15
			Uyole	20
			Ilomba	20
			Sinde	20
			Ruanda	20
		Sisimba	Sisimba	20
			Isanga	15
			Itiji	15
			Maendeleo	15
			Maanga	20
Total		2	10	180

3.4 Data Collection Methods

Several research techniques were used to collect data namely documentary reviews, interviews, and questionnaire. The questionnaire allows aspect of life in the study area to be isolated and studied out of context of community life, while participants' observations permit the aspects of life to be examined within the context of social system (Kothari, 2000). Pre-testing was done to test the questionnaires validity and thereafter necessary

adjustments and corrections were made to the instrument before its final administration. Data collection methods were of two types: primary and secondary.

3.4.1 Primary data collection

A structured questionnaire was prepared and used to elicit information from people involved in vocational activities. Interviews were carried out with various staff (key informants) of vocational training centres and some employers and employees in vocational activities. Collection of data was done by the researcher assisted by one vocational education graduate. Before embarking on data collection, an official letter of approval was secured from the University authority to undertake this study. The researcher then went to the Regional Commissioners' Office (RC) of Mbeya to seek permission to undertake the study. Having received permission from the RC's office, the researcher went to the Municipal Director office to seek further approval to carry out the study in the municipality. Upon completion of these logistics, the researcher went to the Ward Executive Offices (WEO) to seek permission to carry out the study in the sampled *mitaas*. Then the researcher met leaders of the *mitaas* for formal introduction and showed them letters of permission from concerned authorities to interview individuals who were involved in the vocational activities. Data collection involved meeting individuals in their workshops and work places, and interviewing them using a structured questionnaire (Appendix 1 and 2).

municipality, institutions, organizations, instructors and trainees. Participant observations by the researcher involved direct observations of urban vocational activities and different trade skills carried out by Vocational Education graduates in the workshops in which they worked. The observations were recorded in the field notebooks. These observations

brought together the more discrete elements of data gathered by other methods such as questionnaires.

3.4.2 Sampling unity

This study targeted individuals who had vocational skills and worked in carpentry, masonry, dressmaking, shoe repairs, mechanics, electricians, hotel workers, electronics and radio repairs etc, and the vocational training instructors. A survey involved 180 VTCs and non-VTCs graduates, and 20 vocational training staff, VETA Region Office and the Labour office. A sample of 180 respondents comprising of VTCs and non-VTCs graduates was studied. Random sampling method were applied to select the 180 individuals involved in vocational activities in each ward by selecting one individual in each of the workshops that were selected. Thirty sampling units are considered the minimum for a meaningful statistical computation in situation whereby large sample are limited by inadequate resources (Bailey, 1995). In this study, a sample size of two hundred (200) respondents was used, made up of two different groups: (i) 180 vocational and non vocational graduates employed in vocational activities (ii) 20 vocational training instructors from 20 training centres. The target population of the study was formal employees, informal employees, VTCs and Non-VTCs graduates and vocational training instructors. The sample size was selected randomly from ten (10) wards, whereby in each ward 15 to 20 respondents were selected. The size of the sample was arrived at consideration after putting into the cost and accuracy desired (Table 2). The 20 vocational instructors were randomly selected from 20 training centres.

3.4.3 Interview

Structured interviews and unstructured interviews were used, which generated information related to the type of training, training centre, VET graduates educational background, socio-economic activities of those employed in vocational activities and their attitudes toward vocational education. This instrument was preferred because some of the respondents were busy and could not fill the questionnaires on time and others could not read or write correctly. As such verbal communication was easier than using written questionnaires. Since it was face to face interaction it was believed that it would enable the researcher to ask rejoinder questions. Unstructured interviews were also used to collect information like type of tools and equipments used in the workshops and the alternative tools used when they failed to get the proper tools for a particular job.

3.4.5 Secondary data

Data from secondary sources were obtained by consulting relevant official documents both published and unpublished. VETA official documents were used. Various information concerning employment, records and related data was obtained from the VETA zonal offices, labour office, employers and other relevant documents. Textual materials, journals and papers served as secondary sources.

3.4.6 Data processing and analysis

Each interview data from each questionnaire was inspected for its accuracy before proceeding to another respondent. Thereafter, all survey field data was cleaned, coded, and entered into a computer and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) computer software program. A Chi-square test was employed to test the relationship between vocation education and youth employment where the null hypothesis

was reject if the p-value was >0.05 . Conversely, the alternative hypothesis was confirmed if $p \leq 0.05$. The chi-square formula following Kothari (2004) is: $\chi^2 = \sum (f_o - f_{e1})^2 / f_{e1}$.

Where;

f_o =observed frequency,

f_{e1} =expected frequency

χ^2 =chi-square (Kothari, 2004).

Descriptive statistics of mean, range, frequencies and standard deviations were employed to determine the distribution of values of variables and to summarize the data. Bivariate analysis was done to investigate how variables were related to each other. Cross tabulation and chi-square were employed to demonstrate the presence or absence of relationship among variables.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Overview

This chapter describes the findings of the study. It is divided into five sections. The first section discusses the demographic characteristics of the respondents followed by a section on sources of vocation education of youth employed in vocational activities. The third, section describes the measures that vocational training centres took in preparing their graduates for self-employment, while section four explains entrepreneurship knowledge among self-employed youth in vocational activities. Section five examines factors that affect respondents in securing formal and informal wage employment in Mbeya Municipality.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics

Table 3 shows the demographic characteristics of respondents, which included gender, age, marital status and education levels. Of the 180 respondents, 44 (25.3%) were females and 128 (73.6%) males and there was an equal number of married and single respondents. Of all the respondents, 84 (48.3%) were married and 84 (48.3%) were single, while 4 (2.3%) were widowed. The study shows that there was no statistical significant ($p > 0.465$) differences of means between marital status of groups involved in vocational activities. Ages of respondents ranged from below 20 to 35 years and above, and respondents below 20 years of age were 25 (14.5%), and 20 to 25 years of age were 48 (27.9%). In addition, 26 to 30 years were 47 (27.3%), and those aged between 31 to 35 years were 31(18.0%), and those above 35 years were 21 (12.2%), This age distribution implied that most respondents were in the active working group (20 to 35 years) and hence could make

decisions regarding vocational activities. The study showed that there was no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) difference of means between the group ages.

Considering the educational level of the 180 respondents, 74 (48.8%) indicated to have attended seven years of formal schooling (primary school), while 69 (40.1%) indicated to have attained four years of ordinary level secondary education. Furthermore, 13 (7.6%) of the respondents reported to have attained an advanced level secondary education. However, seven (4.1%) of respondents indicated to have attained college education level, four (2.3%) indicated to have attended other education and one (0.6%) indicated to have completed standard four of the primary types school education level. There was no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) differences of means of the groups educational levels. Also, the study showed that less than half of (43%) of the youth who joined vocational educations had completed standard seven education. The study showed that of the 95 respondents who had trained in formal vocation training centres, 41(43.2) had completed primary school education, followed by 36 (37.9) who had completed secondary school education.

Table 3: Demographic Characteristics of respondents (N=172)

Variable	Male	Female	n	Σ	X ² -value	p-value
Marital status						
Single	63(49.2)	21(47.7)	84 (48.8)			
Married	61(47.7)	23 (52.3)	84 (48.8)			
Widowed	0(0.0)	4 (3.1)	4 (2.3)	172 (100.0)	1.533	.465
Education level						
Standard four	1(0.8)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.8)			
Standard seven	55(43.0)	19 (43.2)	7 (43.0)			
Form two	2 (1.6)	2 (4.5)	4 (2.3)			
Form four	49(38.3)	20 (45.5)	69 (40.1)			
Form six	10 (7.8)	3 (6.8)	13 (7.6)			
College	7 (5.5)	0 (.0)	7 (4.1)			
Others	4 (3.1)	0 (.0)	4 (2.3)	172 (100.0)	5.841	.441
Age						
<20	21(16.4)	4 (9.1)	25 (14.5)			
20-25	3 (25.8)	15 (34.1)	48 (27.9)			
26-30	3 (26.6)	13 (29.5)	47 (27.3)			
31-35	25 (19.5)	6 (13.6)	31(18.0)			
35>	15 (11.7)	6 (13.6)	21(12.2)	172 (100.0)	2.852	.583

Figures in parentheses are percentages and those outside parentheses are actual numbers of respondents.

4.2 Sources of Vocation Education among the Youth

Table 4 shows the sources of vocational education of the respondents. Of the 180 respondents, 95 (55.2%) reported that they were trained at formal vocational training centres registered by VETA, while 62 (36.0%) indicated to have got their vocational skills from informal settings as apprentices, 12 (7.0%) indicated to have obtained vocational skills through experiences, and three (1.7%) through other means. The results showed no statistical significance differences of means on the sources of training ($p>0.05$).

Table 4: Vocational education information (N=172)

Variable	Male	Female	n	N	X ² -value	p-value
Informal	48 (37.5)	14 (31.8)	62 (36.0)			
Formal	69 (53.9)	26 (59.1)	95 (55.2)			
Experience	9 (7.0)	3 (6.8)	12 (7.0)			
Other	2 (1.6)	1 (2.3)	3 (1.7)	172(100)	.549	.908
Non formal alleviate the						
problem of unemployment						
Yes	93 (72.7)	29 (65.9)	122 (70.9)			
No	12 (9.4)	7 (15.9)	19 (11.0)			
I don't know	23 (18.0)	8 (18.2)	31(18)	172(100)	1.477	.478

Figures in parentheses are percentages and those outside parentheses are actual numbers of respondents.

In regard to assess the trade skills of the youth, Table 5 shows that of the 172 respondents, 20 (11.6%) indicated to have skills in tailoring and dress making, carpentry and joinery, masonry and bricklaying. While 10 (5.8%) indicated to have skills in motor vehicle mechanics, driving, plumbing and pipefitting, auto electrical, radio and TV repair. Furthermore, Table 5 shows that nine (5.2%) reported to be skilled in electrical installation, seven (4.1%) in painting and decoration, and six respondents (3.5%) in computer skills and secretarial services. The study showed that there was a statistical significant ($p < 0.05$) difference in means between the trade skills of the respondents.

Table 5: Trade skills of youth (N=172)

Variables	Male	Female	n	N	X ² -value	p-value
Motor vehicle mechanics	10 (7.8)	0 (0.0)	10 (5.8)			
Painting	6 (4.7)	1 (2.3)	7 (4.1)			
Tailoring	7 (5.5)	13 (29.5)	20 (11.6)			
Secretarial	4 (3.1)	2 (4.5)	6 (3.5)			
Carpentry	18 (14.1)	2 (4.5)	20 (11.6)			
Masonry	20 (15.6)	0 (0.0)	20 (11.6)			
Driving	8 (6.3)	2 (4.5)	10 (5.8)			
Electrical	9 (7.0)	0 (0.0)	9 (5.2)			
Plumbing	7 (5.5)	3 (6.8)	10 (5.8)			
Auto electrical	8 (6.3)	2 (4.5)	10 (5.8)			
Radio and TV repair	10 (7.8)	0 (.0)	10 (5.8)			
Others	21 (16.4)	19 (43.2)	40 (23.3)	172	46.901	.000

Figures in parenthesis are percentages and those outside parentheses are actual numbers of respondents.

Table 5 also shows that of all the respondents who had indicated that they had trade skills 128 (74.4%) were males and 44 (25.6%) were females. Of the 128 males, 20 (15.6%) worked as masonry and brick layers, 18 (14.1%) as carpenters and joiners, ten (7.8%) as radio and TV repairers. Of the 44 (25.6%) females, 13 (29.5%) worked as tailors and dress makers, three (6.8%) as plumbers and pipe fitters, while two (4.5%) as secretaries, carpenters, drivers, and auto electrical repairers, one (2.3%) was a painter, 19 (43.2%) worked in other specialities which were not included in the questionnaires (Table 5).

Of the 95 (55.2%) respondents who attended in formal training centres offering Vocational Education, 52 (54.7%) had attended vocational education of long courses between one to three years, 22 (23.2%) have attended short courses lasting one week to three months, seven (7.4%) had attended evening classes (Table 6). However, there were no statistical significant difference between means on the duration of training of the youth ($p>0.05$).

Table 6: Duration of the course (N=95)

Variable	Male	Female	n	Σ	X ² -value	p-value
Long courses 1-3 years	36 (52.2)	16 (61.5)	52 (54.7)			
Short course 1 week-three months	17 (24.6)	5 (19.2)	22 (23.2)			
Evening classes	5 (7.2)	2 (7.7)	7 (7.4)			
In plant training	5 (7.2)	2 (7.7)	7 (7.4)			
Others	6 (8.7)	1 (3.8)	7 (7.4)	95	1.154	.886

Figures in parentheses are percentages and those outside parentheses are actual numbers of respondents.

Of the 172 respondents, 56 (32.6%) indicated to have had more than one trade skill and could perform different vocational activities (Table 7). Of 128 male respondents, 41 (32.0%) reported to have had several skills, and out of the 44 females, 15 (34.1%) had several skills (Table 7). Of the 172 respondents, 150 (87.2%) indicated that they selected training in the trade skills, while 22 (12.8%) indicated that the training was selected by other people. Of those who mentioned other people, these included 11 (50.0%) parents, four (18.2%) instructors, three (13.6%) brothers and sisters and four (18.1%) other people. Of the 172 respondents, 107 (62.2%) indicated that they like the trade skills they were trained in and, 55 (32.0%) indicated that the trade skills were marketable. However, six (3.5%) respondents indicated that the trade skills they selected were simple; one (0.6%) said that the skill was selected because of gender (Table 7). The study results showed no statistical significant differences of means on the preferences of trade skills ($p > 0.05$).

Table 7: Selection of trade skills for training (N=172)

Variable	Male	Female	n	N	X ² -value	p-value
Did you choose the trade						
on yourself						
Yes	114 (89.1)	36 (81.8)	150 (87.2)	172	1.541	.215
No	14 (10.9)	8 (18.2)	22 (12.8)			
Reasons motivated to choose it						
I like it	82 (64.1)	25 (56.8)	107 (62.2)	172	6.178	.186
It is simple	5 (3.9)	1 (2.3)	6 (3.5)			
It is marketable	40 (31.3)	15 (34.1)	55 (32.0)			
I am a male/female	0 (.0)	1 (2.3)	1 (.6)			
Others	1 (.8)	2 (4.5)	3 (1.7)			
Who choose for you						
Parents	8 (47.1)	3 (60.0)	11 (50.0)	22	1.510	.825
Instructors	3 (17.6)	1 (20.)	4 (18.2)			
Friends	1 (5.9)	0 (.0)	1 (4.5)			
Brother/sister	3 (17.6)	0 (.0)	3 (13.6)			
Others	2 (11.8)	1 (20.0)	3 (13.6)			

Figures in parentheses are percentages and those outside parentheses are actual numbers of respondents.

The study results showed that of the 95 respondents who attended formal training, 72 (75.8%) indicated that they had completed their training, while, 23 (24.2%) reported that they had failed to complete their vocational training due to different reasons. Of the 23 respondents who did not complete their vocational training, 15 (65.2%) reported that failed to pay school fees, and eight (34.8%) reported that they did not complete the courses because they opted for the trade skills. Of the 75 males who attended formal vocational training, 57 (76.0%) indicated to have completed vocational training and 18 (24.0%) did not. Further, of the 20 females who attended formal vocational training, 15 (75.0%) reported to have completed vocational training, while five (25.0%) did not. The study result showed no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) differences of means between completion of trade skills based on gender (Table 8).

The study also showed that of the 72 respondents who had completed their training, 34 (47.2%) indicated to have graduated between 1996 to 2000 years, 32 (44.4%) between 2001 to 2005 years, two respondents (2.8%) between 1986 to 1990, 1991 to 1995, and 2006 to 2007 years respectively (Table 8).

Of the 172 respondents, 101(58.7%) indicated that formal skills training was best for self-employment because they used VETA approved syllabus, and that learning was organised step by step and had the opportunity to visit workshops, while 66 (38.4%) reported that informal training was the best as students learned how to make products practically. The study result showed no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) differences of means of the types of vocational training. These result implied that all trade skills training was best for vocational training because of different reasons given by the respondents. Considering the gender distribution, of the 128, male 80(62.5%) indicated that formal vocational training

was the best type of training and 43(33.6%) indicated that informal vocational training as the best type of training. (Table 8) furthermore of the 44 females, 23(52.3%) indicated that informal vocational training was best training type, while 21(47.7%) indicated that formal training was the best type of training (Table 8).

Table 8: Information on completion of the training (N=172)

Variable	Male	Female	n	Σ	X ² -value	p-value
Yes	57 (76.0)	15 (75.0)	72 (75.8)			
No	18 (24.0)	5 (25.0)	23 (24.2)	95	.009	.926
Reason for not completing training						
Failed to pay fees	12 (70.6)	3 (50.0)	15(65.2)			
Changed the trade	5 (29.4)	3 (50)	8 (34.8)	23	.829	.363
Year of graduation						
1986-1990	1 (1.8)	1 (6.7)	2 (2.8)			
1991-1995	2 (3.5)	0 (.0)	2 (2.8)			
1996-2000	27(47.4)	7 (46.7)	34 (47.2)			
2001-2005	27(47.4)	5 (33.3)	32 (44.4)			
2006-2007	0 (.0)	2 (13.3)	2 (2.8)	72	9.685	.046
Best type for training						
Formal	80 (62.5)	21 (47.7)	101 (58.7)			
Informal	43 (33.6)	23 (52.3)	66 (38.4)			
Don't know	3 (2.3)	0 (.0)	3 (2.3)			
Others	2 (1.6)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.2)	172	5.913	.116
Best type for training						
Formal	80 (62.5)	21(47.7)	101(58.7)			
Informal	43 (33.6)	23 (52.3)	66 (38.4)			
Don't know	3 (2.3)	0 (0.0)	3 (1.7)			
Others	2 (1.6)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.2)	172	5.913	.116

Figures in parentheses are percentages and those outside parentheses are actual numbers of respondents.

4.3 Employment Information

Another aspect studied was the employment information on youth employment. Of the 172 respondents, 140 (81.4%) indicated that there were few employment opportunities, while 20 (11.6%) indicated that they don't know about the availability of employment opportunities. The study result showed that there was no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) differences of means between the groups on the labour market information (Table 9).

Table 9: Labour market information (N=172)

Variable	Male	Female	n	Σ	X ² -value	p-value
There is a lot of employment opportunity	2 (1.6)	0 (.0)	2 (1.2)			
Few opportunity	107 (83.6)	33 (75.0)	140 (81.4)			
No opportunity	5 (3.9)	5 (11.4)	10 (5.8)			
I don't know	14 (10.9)	6 (13.6)	20 (11.6)	172	6.942	.139

Figures in parentheses are percentages and those outside parentheses are actual numbers of respondents.

The study results also showed that most of the respondents indicated that the trade skills helped them to do their vocational activities and other economic activities effectively. Of the 172 respondents, 144 (83.7%) indicated that the trade skills were helpful in doing their work and other economic activities effectively, while 28 (16.3%) indicated that trade skills were not helpful (Table 10). Of the 128 male respondents, 107 (83.6%) indicated that trade skills were helpful, and 21 (16.4%) indicated that they were not helpful. And of the 44 females, 37 (84.1%) indicated that trade skills were helpful, while seven (15.9%) indicated that they were not. The study result showed no statistical significant differences of means on usefulness of the trade skills ($p>0.05$).

Of the 172 respondents, 117 (68.0%) indicated that the vocational activities were their main sources of income, and 55 (32.0%) indicated that the activities were not their main

sources of income (Table 10). Of the 128 males, 82 (64.1%) indicated that vocational activities were their main sources of income, and 46 (35.9%) indicated that they were not. Of the 44 female respondents, 35 (79.5%) reported that vocational activities were their main sources of income, and nine (20.5%) indicated that they were not. The study result showed no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) differences of means on the usefulness of trade skills in regard to income generation. The study also showed that of the 55 respondents who reported that vocational activities were not their main sources of income, 31 (56.4%) indicated that they were involved in business activities, 22 (40.0%) in agriculture and four (7.0%) in other activities like employment as security guards. The study results showed no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) differences of means in respect to other sources of income (Table 10).

Table 10: Usefulness of trade skills as source of income and other activities (N=172)

Variable	Male	Female	n	Σ	X ² -value	p-value
Yes	107 (83.6)	37(84.1)	144 (83.7)			
No	21 (16.4)	7 (15.9)	28 (16.3)	172	.006	.939
Vocational activities as source of income						
Yes	82 (64.1)	35 (79.5)	117 (68.0)			
No	46 (35.9)	9 (20.5)	55 (32.0)	172	3.609	.057
Other activities						
Business	20 (50.0)	11(64.7)	31 (54.4)			
Agriculture	16 (40.0)	6 (35.3)	22 (38.6)			
Others	4 (10.0)	0 (.0)	4 (7.0)	57	2.243	.326

Figures in parentheses are percentages and those outside parentheses are actual numbers of respondents.

Table 11 shows that of the 172 respondents, 42 (24.4%) indicated that carpentry and joinery were the best trade skills for self employment, 33 (19.2%) indicated tailoring and dress making, 30 (17.4%) indicated masonry and bricklaying and 17 (9.9%) indicated electrical installation. Furthermore, Table 11 shows that 11 (6.4%) indicated motor vehicle mechanics as the best, eight (4.7%) plumbing and pipefitting, seven (4.1%) driving, auto electrical and five (2.9%) painting and decollation, secretarial and computer application. Few respondents, three (1.7%) indicated that radio and TV repair was the best for self-employment, while two (1.2%) indicated catering. The study results showed no statistical significant difference of means in regard to best trade skills for self-employment ($p>0.05$).

Table 11: Best trade for self employment (N=172)

Variables	Male	Female	n	Σ	X ² -value	p-value
Motor vehicle mechanics	9 (7.0)	2 (4.5)	11(6.4)			
Painting	2 (1.6)	3 (6.8)	5 (2.9)			
Tailoring	22 (17.2)	11(25.0)	33 (19.2)			
Secretarial	3(2.3)	2 (4.5)	5 (2.9)			
Carpentry	34 (26.6)	8 (18.2)	42 (24.4)			
Masonry	24 (18.8)	6 (13.6)	30 (17.4)			
Driving	5 (3.9)	2 (4.5)	7 (4.1)			
Electrical	12 (9.4)	5 (11.4)	17 (9.9)			
Plumbing	6 (4.7)	2 (4.5)	8 (4.7)			
Auto electrical	5 (3.9)	2 (4.5)	7 (4.1)			
Radio and TV repair	3 (2.3)	0 (.0)	3 (1.7)			
Catering	2 (1.6)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.2)			
Others	1 (.8)	1 (2.3)	2 (1.2)	172	8.992	.704

Figures in parentheses are percentages and those outside parentheses are actual numbers of respondents.

4.4 Problems that VET Graduates Face in Securing Employment

Of the 172 respondents, 95 (55.2%) indicated that lack of capital was the main obstacle in creating self-employment. Due to lack of initial capital, VET graduates were found working in the construction and manufacturing sectors. However, 30 (17.4%) of the respondents indicated that lack of creativity among graduates was the main obstacle in creating self-employment. Of all respondents, 16 (9.3%) indicated that they don't know what were obstacles, 14 (8.1%) indicated that the problem was the lack of entrepreneurial knowledge and skills. The later problem affected graduates after their completion of training since they do not think that they are able to create their own employment, and hence wanted for formal employment to come to them. In this way they lost many years without being gainfully employed and this has resulted in other people to hate vocational education. The study results shows no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) differences of means of the groups (Table 12).

Table 12: Obstacles facing VET graduates (N=172)

Variable	Male	Female	n	Σ	X ² -value	p-value
Lack of capital	69 (53.9)	26 (59.1)	95 (55.2)			
Lack of entrepreneurial	12 (9.4)	2 (4.5)	14 (8.1)			
Lack of creativity ability	24 (18.8)	6 (13.6)	30 (17.4)			
Depending on formal employment	10 (7.8)	4 (9.1)	14 (8.1)			
Don't know	11 (8.6)	5 (11.4)	16 (9.3)			
Others	2 (1.6)	1 (2.3)	3 (1.7)	172	2.019	.846
Prepare graduates for employment						
Yes	78 (66.7)	19 (55.9)	97 (64.2)			
Some how	30 (25.6)	13 (38.2)	43 (28.5)			
No	9 (7.7)	2 (5.9)	11 (7.3)	151	2.063	.357
Current job relate to training attended						
Yes related	99 (78.0)	37 (84.1)	136 (79.5)			
Somehow	27 (21.3)	5 (11.4)	32 (18.7)			
Not related	1 (.8)	2 (4.5)	3 (1.8)	171	4.496	.106

Figures in parentheses are percentages and those outside parentheses are actual numbers of respondents.

Of the 151 respondents, 97 (64.2%) indicated that the VTC prepared them enough for self-employment, 43 (28.5%) indicated that they were somehow prepared, and 11 (7.3%) said they were not prepared enough for self-employment. There were no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) differences of means on the function of VTC in preparing youth for self employment. Of the 171 respondents, 136 (79.5%) indicated that the training they got related to current job needs, 32 (18.7%) indicated that the training some how related to current job needs, and three (1.8%) said that the training did not relate to their current job needs. There was no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) differences of means (Table 12). Of the 172 respondents, 63 (36.6%) reported that formal employers preferred graduates from formal training centres, 41 (23.8%) reported that employers preferred graduates with more than one trade skill, and 39 (22.7%) said that employers preferred graduates with job experiences, few 14 (8.1%) respondents indicated that employers preferred graduates with secondary school education and, five (2.9%) respondents indicated that formal employers preferred graduates based on the nature of the work.

Of the 97 (64.2%) respondents who indicated that VET had prepared them enough, 12 (12.4%) masonry and bricklayers, 11 (11.3%) carpenters and joiners, nine (9.3%) tailors and dress makers, eight (8.2%) motor vehicle mechanics, seven (7.2%) plumbers, radio and TV repairer, and six (6.2%) were electrical installers. Furthermore, five (2.9%) were painters and decollators, secretaries computer applicators, while three (1.7%) were radio and TV repairers, and two (1.1%) caterers.

4.5 Entrepreneurship Education among Self-Employed Graduates

Entrepreneurship education is an important aspect for creating self-employment among the VET graduates. Of the 172 respondents, 78 (45.3%) indicated that they got

entrepreneurship education, 94 (54.7%) indicated that they had no entrepreneurship education. The study results showed no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) difference of means at (Table 15). Of the 78 (45.3) respondents who had entrepreneurship education, 64 (97.0%) indicated that entrepreneurship education was useful for self-employment, while two (3.0%) said that it was not helpful. The study results showed no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) differences of means of the groups (Table 13).

Table 13: Entrepreneurship information (N=172)

Variable	Male	Female	n	Σ	X ² -value	p-value
If heard about entrepreneurship						
Yes	54 (42.2)	24 (54.5)	78 (45.3)			
No	74 (57.8)	20 (45.5)	94 (54.7)	172	2.018	.155
Did you get entrepreneurship education?						
Yes	49 (38.3)	17 (38.6)	66 (38.4)			
No	79 (61.7)	27 (61.4)	106 (61.6)	172	.002	.967
Is it helpful for self employment						
Yes	47 (95.9)	17 (100.0)	64 (97.0)			
No	2 (4.1)	0 (0.0)	2 (3.0)	66	.716	.398

Figures in parentheses are percentages and those outside parentheses are actual numbers of respondents.

Of the 172 respondents, 67 (39.0%) reported that they owned workshops, and of the 67 who owned individual workshops, 33 (49.3%) reported employing other VET graduates totalling 63. for those who owned workshops, 22 (48.9%) employed two (2) VET graduates each, 17 (37.8%) employed three (3) VET graduates each, four (8.3%) employed four (4) VET graduates each and, one (4.4%) had employed more than four VET graduates. The study found that respondents who were formally employed worked mostly in manufacturing and constructing companies. Of the 60 respondents who reported employing VET graduates, 24 (40.0%) reported that they employed two 2 workers, 13 (21.7%) three 3, nine (15.0%) four, eight (13.3%) more than four employees, and six (10.0%) one worker. The study found that VET graduates who were formally employed were 170 (Table 14).

Table 14: Workshop ownership (N=172)

Variable	Male	Female	n	Σ	X ² -value	p-value
Individual owned	50 (39.1)	17 (38.6)	67 (39.0)			
Group owned	34 (26.6)	11 (25.0)	45 (26.2)			
Others	44 (34.4)	16 (36.4)	60 (34.9)	172	.069	.966
If individually owned do you have employees						
Yes	23 (46.0)	10 (41.7)	33 (49.3)			
No	27 (54.0)	7 (58.3)	34 (50.7)	67	.273	.601
If you have employees how many						
One	9 (36.0)	2 (28.6)	11 (34.4)			
Two	9 (36.0)	3 (42.9)	12 (37.5)			
Three	5 (20.0)	1 (14.3)	6 (18.8)			
Four	2 (8.0)	0 (.0)	2 (6.3)			
More than four	0 (.0)	1 (14.3)	1 (3.1)	33	4.383	.357
If workshop belong to group how many graduates						
Two	18 (51.1)	4 (33.3)	22 (48.9)			
Three	11 (30.3)	6 (60.0)	17 (37.8)			
Four	4 (12.1)	0 (.0)	4 (8.3)			
More than four	1 (6.1)	1 (6.7)	2 (4.4)	45	4.866	.182
If group owned, how many employees do you have						
One	8 (23.5)	3 (27.3)	11(24.4)			
Two	9 (26.5)	3 (27.3)	12 (26.7)			
Three	6 (17.6)	3 (27.3)	9 (20.0)			
Four	5 (14.7)	1 (9.1)	6 (13.3)			
Five and more	3 (8.8)	0 (.0)	3 (6.7)			
No employees	3 (8.8)	1 (9.1)	4 (8.9)	45	1.602	.901
If employed how many are you						
One	3 (6.8)	3 (18.8)	6 (10.0)			
Two	15 (34.1)	9 (56.3)	24 (40.0)			
Three	12 (27.3)	1 (6.3)	13 (21.7)			
Four	7 (15.9)	2 (12.5)	9 (15)			
More than four	7 (15.9)	1 (6.3)	8 (13.3)	60	6.416	.170

Figures in parentheses are percentages and those outside parentheses are actual numbers of respondents.

Of the 172 respondents, 122 (70.9%) reported that the use of non-formal VET reduced the problem of unemployment, while 31(18.0%) indicated that they did not know. Of the 128 male respondents, 93 (72.7%) reported that non-formal vocational training reduced the problem of unemployment, and only 12 (9.4%) said that it did not. Of the 44 females, 29 (65.9%) reported that non-formal VET reduced the problem of unemployment among youth, and seven (15.9%) said it did not, while eight (18.2%) indicated that they were not sure. There was no statistical significant differences between the groups ($p>0.05$).

Of the 95 respondents, 31 (32.6%) reported that the training centres offered business education, and 64 (67.4%) respondents denied that business education was offered. The study results showed no statistical significant ($p>0.05$) difference of means (Table 18). The business subjects offered were bookkeeping and commerce, and of the 31 respondents who took business subjects, ten (32.3%) indicated to have studied bookkeeping only, eight (25.8%) indicated to have studied commerce only and 13 (41.9%) indicated to have studied both bookkeeping and commerce. There was no statistical significant ($p >0.05$) difference of means (Table 18).

The study results also showed that other subjects studied were English and Mathematics and of the 50 respondents indicated to have studied these subject, 21 (42.0%) indicate to have studied both English and Mathematics, 13 (26.0%) studied Mathematics and 16 (32.0%) English only.

Table 15: Business education N=95

Variable	Male	Female	n	Σ	X ² -value	p-value
Yes	25 (36.2)	6 (23.1)	31 (32.6)			
No	44 (63.8)	20 (76.9)	64 (67.4)	95	1.487	.223
Subjects						
Bookkeeping	7 (28.0)	3 (50.0)	10 (32.3)			
Commerce	7 (28.0)	1 (16.7)	8 (25.8)			
Bookkeeping & commerce	11(44.0)	2 (33.3)	13 (41.9)	31	.941	.625

Figures in parentheses are percentages and those outside parentheses are actual numbers of respondents.

4.6 Opinions of the 20 Instructors

The study gathered opinions on VET from 20 instructors drawn from 20 training centres. Of the 20 instructors, four (20.0%) indicated that training centres were owned by the government, three (15.0%) said that were run by the ministries of defence and home affairs, i.e. prisons, part of workers education, parents organization, and six (30.0%) indicated that were partly own by religious groups. Of the 20 instructors, 14 (70.0%) indicated that the subjects taught relate to the day to day activities, six (30.0%) said subject did not related to the day to day activities such as domestic electrical installations and computer applications.

The study found that the latter were studied because of prestige. Of the 20 instructors, 11 (55.0%) indicated that the trades were appropriate for self employment, 2 (20.0%) reported that the trade was not appropriate for self-employment and 7 (35.0%) were not sure. For those instructors reported that, some trade was not appropriate for self employment, the reason mentioned was that some trade need high capital which was not easily met by the VET graduates. Of the 20 respondents, four (20.0%) indicated to have taught for less than one year, three (15.0%) for a period of one year, and six (30.0%) for a period of three years.

Table 16: Duration of instructors since started teaching

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Less than one year	4	20.0
One year	3	15.0
Two years	3	15.0
Three years	6	30.0
More than three years	4	20.0
Total	20	100.0

Of the 20 instructors, 12 (60.0%) reported to have received teaching methodology and entrepreneurship, and eight (40.0%) had not received any teaching methodology. As of all the formal VTCs in the southern west zone had produced 7 272 graduates, and in 20 sampled training centres there were 3 106 students (Table 20).

Of the 20 instructors, five (25.0%) indicated that VET graduates got employed after their training, four (20.0%) indicated that were not employed after their training, and 11 (55.0%) said that they were not sure. Of the 20 instructors, five (25.0%), four (20.0%) and three (15.0%) reported that carpentry and joinery, tailoring, and auto electrical, were most preferred trade skills for self employment respectively.

Table 17: Trainees graduated in 2006 from 20 sampled training centres (N=20)

S/n	Training Centre VTC	No of graduates
1	Nzovwe	157
2	Ruanda prisoner	74
3	Uyole VTC	22
4	VETA Mbeya	772
5	Bethania	15
6	Green Hill	292
7	Shukrani	286
8	Grace college	312

9	UMATI VTC	24
10	RC Mwanjelwa	114
11	Iyunga disabled	37
12	Iyunga Tech	26
13	Desk Top	61
14	Catholic Youth Centre	28
15	Mbeya Driving	123
16	Moravian VTC	170
17	Meta VTC	43
18	KIWOHEDE	176
19	Ilemi VTC	320
20	Chipukizi VTC	54
	Total	3 104

Of the 20 instructors, six (30%), four (20%), and three (15%) reported that training cost, knowledge about VET, and family status were the major factors that hindered youth in joining vocational training centres (Table 18). The study also solicited information on the formal employer's preferences of VET graduates. Of the 20 respondents, six (30.0%), five (25%), and five (25%) reported that job experience, graduates with more than one trade skills, and formal trained graduates, were preferred by most formal employers, respectively (Table 18).

Table 18: Trade skills best for self-employment (N=20)

Variable	Frequencies	Percentages
Electrical installation	1	5.0
Motor vehicle mechanics	1	5.0
Carpentry and joinery	3	15.0
Tailoring	4	20.0
Auto electrical	5	25
Plumbing and pipefitting	2	10.0
Computer application	2	10.0
Painting and decoration	1	5.0
Others	1	5.0
Total	20	100.0
Factors hindering youth to join VET		
Knowledge about VET	4	20.0
Training cost	6	30.0
Family status	3	15.0
Training duration	2	10.0
Personal aspect	2	10.0
Attitude towards VET	1	5.0

Employers preference	1	5.0
Parent occupation	1	5.0
Total	20	100.0
Employers preference from VET graduates		
Mult-skilled	5	25.0
Gender	1	5.0
Job experience	6	30.0
Formal trained	5	25.0
Age specific	1	5.0
Education level	1	5.0
English language	1	5.0
Total	20	100.0
Instructors education level of trades skills they instruct		
Trade test grade three	3	15.0
Trade test grade two	4	20.0
Trade test grade one	8	40.0
FTC	2	10.0
Diploma	3	15.0
Total	20	100.0

4.7 Marketability of Trade Skills

Of the 20 instructors, 19 (95.0%), 13 (65.0%), reported that marketing of trade skills was an important training component, and that the trade skills taught in VTC were accepted in the communities, respectively. Furthermore, of the 20 instructors 14 (70.0%) reported that trade skills offered contributed positively to the individual and national economies. Yet, 11 (55.0%) reported that VTC offered other additional subjects to students such as English, mathematics, commerce and bookkeeping. Of the 20 instructors, 17 (85.0%) reported that vocation education had positive relationship with youth employment. Few, six (30.0%) agreed that the national vocational policy had strategies for empowering VTC graduates for self-employment.

One instructor from each of the selected training centres was interviewed on issues pertaining to vocational education and youth employment. Of the 20 instructors, eight (40.0%), four (20.0%), three (15.0%), and two (10.0%) reported that instructors had

certificates of trade test one and two; diploma and full technicians certificate, respectively (Table 18).

One instructor who had not attended in-service courses for the past five years said:

I have not attended any in service courses since I started teaching carpentry and joinery, and there are many instructors in the vocational training centres who depend experience. The technology in the world is changing rapidly so we need to change also (1st instructor MMC, January, 2008).

Most instructors agreed that VTCs lacked modern tools and machines for teaching students. This problem forced most trainees to look up on the types of machine and tools in the books or by touring other institutions such as VETA western zone centre. For example, one instructor commented:

We need to have modern tools and machines for teaching/ instructing students. We fail to do some practical because our centres do not have such machines and tools. We are forced to teach theoretically. We do visit other centres which have such machines with students whenever possible. (2nd instructor, MMC January, 2008).

Also, the instructors were asked about the availability of text books and learning material in the VTCs. 13 instructors said that there was a shortage of text books. In regard to this one instructor said:

At our training centre we have one copy of text book in some courses and some have two copies which make it difficult for students to have access of the text books (3rd instructor, MMC, January 2008)

4.8 Opinions from the VETA South Western Zone Director

The Director of South Western Zone said that many people do not know VETs roles. They think that it is supposed to look for jobs to those who failed to join secondary school education. He further said:

We are here because we choose VET as an opportunity which individuals can opt to improve their lives. I suggest that for those youth who have completed standard seven, form four, and even form six they should come to vocational education centres (Director, South Western Zone, January, 2008).

The director continued to comment that: Now we are improving our curriculum to march with the science and technology to improve the trainee's capacities in their self-and formal employment.

We have started to offer other new courses such as beauty salon and hair salon for those employed in those activities. This is done to improve the skills and increase employment in this sector which provides self-employment to many individuals without any training. Also, we offer training in mining and hospitality, which has led to importation of labour for skills which could have otherwise been provided internally. Findings of a survey conducted by VETA revealed that there are demands of hotel workers especially in the vocational category. So, VETA is responsible to make sure that vocational training centres owners give such training (Director, South Western Zone, January, 2008).

Males still dominate the employment in the manufacturing sector, as 26% of the permanent employees are males compared to only 6% of the females (Mjelwa, 2008) Temporary employees recorded were 39% for male compared to 29% female. Also, in the construction

firms, 97% of all the employees were males compared to only 3% females. On this aspect, the Director said:

I emphasise females to join in male dominated trade skills because they can do better as males do. In today's world any one without considering gender can perform better in any trade skills. There are no skills for males and some for females. People should change their mind set. (Director, South Western Zone, January, 2008).

The director made the following suggestions to the government:

The government should set apart a budget for the vocational education, which will also be given to private VET providers in order to support them to enrol many students. By doing so we will reduce the number of youth in the streets. Many youth are tempted to do illegal practices because they see no any other way to solve daily life needs, which results crimes (Director, South Western Zone, January, 2008).

4.9 Regression Analysis on the Contribution of VET in Youth Employment

Table 19 presents the results of regression analysis of the factors influencing the contribution of VET to youth employment. The predictors included in the regression were, sex, age, marital status, education level, type of VET, and multi-skilled. These were regressed against formal employers' preferences of youth, (the independent Y). The regression analysis refers to the statistical determination of a statistical relationship between two or more variables (Kothari, 2004). Regression analysis helps to predict the value of one variable from the knowledge of the other and it helps to interpret what exists physically, describes causes and effect relationship (Jayaraman, 1999). Also, Table 19

shows that two of the predictors included in the analysis (sex, age) were statistically significant ($p < 0.001$), whereas for the four of the predictors (marital status, education level, type of VTC, and multi-skilled) were not statistically significant ($p < 0.5$). These results imply that the two predictors had influenced youth employment.

According to Cohen and Cohen (1983), beta values (β), which are partial regression coefficients, as the optional linear estimates of the dependent variables, reflects the weight to be applied to an independent variable when one or more specified independent variables are included in the equation. And the standard error (S.E) is an estimate of the magnitude of error that can be expected in estimating future values of the dependent variable. The standard error of beta (SE^β) is the sampling variability of partial coefficients. The t-values signifies the dependent of the partial, regression coefficients of independent variables from zero and they are compared to unstandardized regression beta (β^*) values for their statistical significant. All the t-values are compared to the standardized regression beta (b^*) values and yield the levels at which the observed t-values is statistically significant. This was applied to this study whose results are summarised in Table 19.

Table 19: Regression analysis of the contribution of VET in youth employment

	Unstandardized		Standardized		R ²
	Coefficients		Coefficients	t-value	
	β	SE	Beta		
(Constant)	1.558	5.169		0.301	
Sex	2.021	0.670	0.085	1.102**	.008
Marital status	-0.290	1.875	-0.017	-0.220ns	.000
Education level	-0.034	0.082	-0.031	-0.407ns	.003
Type of VTC	-0.008	0.104	-0.006	-0.075ns	.000
Multi-skilled	-0.558	1.755	-0.025	-0.318ns	.001
Age	1.021	0.670	0.118	1.523**	.014

ns= not significant at $P > 0.05$, *=significant at $P < 0.05$, **= significant at ($p < 0.001$);

$R^2 = 0.026$, β = regression coefficient, S.E = Standard error.

Results in Table 19 show that age was the highest predictors (β -value of 0.118), (SE of 0.670) and (t-value of 1.523) that contributed to youth employment. Subsequently, age influenced positively the youth employment opportunities, meaning that many employers considered age of VET graduates to be a requirement for employment. The Same argument can be given to sex of respondents meaning that many employers preferred male graduates in their organization. For example, (β -value of 0.085), (SE of 0.670) and (t-value of 1.102), of the third predictor, which was the multi-skilled (β -value of -0.025), (SE of 1.755) and (t-value of -0.318 ns) contribute to the youth employment. These results show that multi-skilled graduates have the same chance of getting formal employment with graduates with single skills, consequently, this predictor had negative influence in youth employment. The fourth predictor was the education level (β -value of -0.031), (SE of 0.082), and (t-value of -0.407 ns), which contributed to youth employment although it had negative effect on youth formal employment. This implies that formal employers did not give weight to education background of the graduates. However, what they considered was the trade skills of the graduates. The fifth predictor was the marital status (β -value of 0.017), (SE of 1.875), and (t-value of -0.220 ns) of youth employment, which had an impact on youth employment. Lastly was the type of VTC (β -value of -0.006, SE of 0.104, and t-value of -0.075 ns). The study results show that type of VTC attended by the graduates had a negative effect on youth employment implying that type of VTC had no significant influence on youth employment.

Briefly, age and sex had more influence on youth formal employment in Mbeya municipality. But marital status, education level, type of VTCs and multi skilled had no influence on chances of being employed. The regression model was significant at $p < 0.05$ and at $p < 0.001$ $R^2 = 0.026$ implying that at least 95% to 99% confidence interval that predictors incorporated in multiple linear regression model had no impact on the contribution on youth employment.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Overview

This chapter presents the major findings from which valid recommendations are made. The major findings are presented in order of specific objectives of the study.

5.2 Conclusion

The general objective of this study was to investigate the contribution of vocation educational training in creating employment for youths. The major findings of this study are described as follows.

5.1.1 Source of skills among youth employed in vocational activities

One of the objectives of this study was to describe the source of vocational education among the youth employed in vocational activities. The findings of the study indicated that the majority of youth employed in vocational activities (55.2%) in the sample got the vocational education in formal (VETA registered) centres and 36.0% in the sample got their vocation education in informal (kijiweni). These revealed that VTC have larger contribution in providing vocational education to youth and contributes to employment.

5.1.2 Measures taken by VTCs in preparing their graduates for self employment

The findings from the study shows that many vocational graduates were well prepared for self employment, from the sample 64.2% responded that they were prepared enough when get capital they could manage to create self employment. However some of them reported

that lack of creativity among VTCs graduates as the main obstacle in creating self-employment. Concerning the assistance of VTCs to secure employment for their graduate only 35.0% from the sample of instructors reported that they help their graduates to find formal employment.

5.1.3 Entrepreneurship knowledge

Concerning entrepreneur education, the study found out that many vocational graduates did not have entrepreneur knowledge and others did not heard about entrepreneurship. From the sample only 45.3% heard entrepreneur and only 38.4% studied it. In case of instructors interviewed the study found 60.0% of the instructors studied entrepreneur education. Usefulness of the entrepreneurship in self employment from those who studied it, 97.1% responded that entrepreneur was useful for self employment.

5.1.4 Problems facing VTC graduates in securing formal and informal employment

This study found out that the majority of the VET graduates failed to create self employment due to two main constraints. Firstly, formal employers have different preferences for employees, many employers need VET graduates with formal training skills, and some need a graduate with multi-skilled and other need one with job experience. Job experience and multi-skill is the main constraint. The second problem which faces VET graduates in creating self employment is the lack of initial capital. Also lack of creativity ability is another problem facing graduates, other problem are the lack of entrepreneurship knowledge in most of VET graduates. Also for those employed face heavy market competition because currently there is a tendency in our country of importing products which can be made in the country i.e. furniture.

5.3 Recommendations

On the basis of this research findings, and analysis advanced in this study, the following recommendations are put forward for youth vocational training and employment:

- (i) The government should support current VET providers in term of training equipment in order to improve quality of training so that graduates to fit well in the growing labour market.
- (ii) The government should design more short courses to assist those youths employed in different Vocational activities and especial for those who got the skills through informal (kijiweni) and others who have employed but has no formal training.
- (iii) The government should introduce comprehensive approach which enables adaptation of training to the needs of the labour market. For example entrepreneurship training and cross cutting skills are an integral part of training delivery to allow translation of technical skills into business and ensure the derived market oriented competency.
- (iv) The Government should provide loans to those vocational training groups especially in rural areas due to lack of capital among them.
- (v) VETA should introduce a system of training multi-skills, this can be done through making training broader at the lower levels to combine variety of units picked from different occupations this can be integrated into basic training by

including sandwich training elements that meet requirements for multi skilled or by designing range of practical skills designed to meet the demands of the modern world.

- (vi) The government through VETA should make follow up in rural areas and not in urban areas only especially concerning those trainees who have already finished their training courses. Also the government should establish new centres in rural and urban areas where there is an increase of number of people.

5.4 Further Research

The study has found that youth in relation to vocational education has not been adequately addressed therefore:

1. There is need for further research to establish programmes which addresses the basic vocational training needs for youth, women and disabilities.
2. Another research could be done to investigate a factor which contributes to drop out of VET students.
3. Economic growth areas with employment opportunity of VET graduates.
4. Business skills and the entrepreneurship successes of self employed VET graduates.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for Vocational and non-Vocational graduates

Code No _____

Division _____

Ward _____

Date of interview _____

Time of interview _____

Section one: background information.

Choose the appropriate answer and put a tick in a given space

1. Age (years)

[1] < 20

[2] 20-25

[3] 26-30

[4] 31-35

[5] > 36

2. Sex

[1] Male

[2] Female

3. Marital status

[1] Single

[2] Married

[3] Divorced

[4] Widowed

4. What is your education level? (Tick one)

[1] Non-formal education

[2] Standard four

[3] Standard seven

[4] Form four

[5] Form six

[6] college

[7 0] Other (specify) _____

Section 2: Vocational skills information

Put a tick in given space and fill the blanks where required

5. At what training centre did you study the trade skill(s)? (Tick)

[1] Informal centre (kijiweni)

[2] Formal training centre (VETA registered)

[3] Through experience

[70] Other (specify) _____

6. Can the use of non-formal vocational training alleviate the problem of unemployment in this area
- [1] Yes
 - [2] No
 - [50] I don't know
7. Which trade skills were you trained in? (Tick)
- [1] Catering
 - [2] Motor vehicle mechanics
 - [3] Painting and sign writing
 - [4] Tailoring and dress making
 - [5] Secretarial
 - [6] Carpentry and joinery
 - [7] Masonry
 - [8] Driving
 - [9] Plumbing
 - [10] Electric wiring
 - [70] Other (specify)_____
8. (a) At what vocational training centre mention _____
 (b) What type of vocational training?
- [1] Informal centre (kijiweni)
 - [2] Formal training centre (VETA registered)
 - [70] others, specify_____
9. If is formal in Question 8 (a) above the course was
- [1] Long courses 1-3 years
 - [2] Short courses: one week –three months
 - [3] Evening classes
 - [4] In-plant training and trade testing
 - [70] Others, specify
10. Which skill (trade) was you trained prior to the previous one?
- [1] Catering
 - [2] Motor vehicle mechanics
 - [3] painting and sign writing
 - [4] Tailoring and dress making
 - [5] Secretarial
 - [6] Carpentry and joinery
 - [7] Masonry
 - [8] Driving
 - [9] Plumbing
 - [10] Electrical and warring
 - [70] Other, specify_____
11. The vocational training is belongs to
- [1] training programme part of a government bureaucracy
 - [2] training programme part of industry
 - [3] off site away from the plant
 - [4] part of military service

- [5] part of a movement such as worker education or co-operatives
- [6] part of religious mission
- [70] others, specify_____

12. Did you choose the trade skills for your self?

- [1] Yes
- [2] NO

13. If the answer in question 12 above is Yes, why did you choose it?

- [1] I liked it
- [2] It is simple
- [3] Many people like it
- [4] It is marketable
- [5] I am a male/female
- [70] Others (specify)_____

14. If the answer in question 12 is No, who choose it for you?

- [1] Parents
- [2] Instructors
- [3] Friends
- [4] brother/ sister
- [70] Other (specify)_____

15. How long did the training last? (Tick one)

- [1] less than six months
- [2] One year
- [3] Two years
- [4] Three years
- [70] Other (specify)_____

16. Did you complete the training?

- [1] Yes
- [2]. No

17. If the answer is No in question 16 above, what was the main reason? (Tick one)

- [1] Failed
- [2.] Failed to pay fees
- [3] Did not like the skill
- [4] Changed the trade
- [70.] Others, specify_____

18. If the answer is Yes in Question 16 above When was the year of your graduation?_____

19. What can you say about the labour market of vocational training graduates?

- [1]There a lot of employment opportunity
- [2] Few employment opportunity
- [3] Very few opportunity
- [4] No opportunity
- [50] Don't know

20. Did the vocational training centre you attend offered other subjects?

[1] Yes

[2] No

If yes mention the subjects_____

21. Other subjects you studied in additional are they useful in your current activities?

[1] yes,

how?_____

[2] No

how?_____

22. Did the vocational training centre you attend offered business education?

[1] Yes

[2] No

If Yes mention them_____

23. Did the trade you studied helping you to do your work and other economic activities effectively?

[1] Yes

[2] No

(a) If Yes, how does it help you?_____

b) If No, why?_____

24. Is vocational activities the main source of your income?

[1] Yes

[2] No

25. If the answer in question 21 above is No what other economic activities do you involve?

[1] Business

[2] Agriculture

[70] Others, specify_____

26. Have you heard about entrepreneurship?

[1] Yes

[2] No

27. Is it helpful for self-employment?

[1] Yes

[2] No

28. What trades do you see as best for the self-employment? Mention them_____

29. What types of vocational training you think are useful?
 [1] Formal
 [2] Informal
 [3] Non formal
 How are they useful? _____
30. What are the obstacle facing vocational training graduates in creating self-employment?
 [1] Lack of capital
 [2] Lack of entrepreneurial skills
 [3] Lack of creativeness ability
 [4] Depending on formal employment
 [50] don't know
 [70] others, specify _____
31. What are the formal employers prefer for the vocation training graduates?
 [1] Multi skilled
 [2] Sex preference
 [3] Job experience
 [4] Formal skills
 [5] Age specific
 [6] Education level
 [7] English language
 [70] Others, specify _____
32. This workshop is belong to
 [1] Yourself
 [2] Group of people
 [70] Others, specify _____
33. If the workshop is yours, have you employed any one?
 [1] Yes
 [2] No
 If Yes how many people have you employed? _____
34. If is belong to the group, how many members are you? _____
35. What suggestions can give to Youth who are seeking formal employment after graduating from vocational training centers?

Thanks for your cooperation

Appendix 2: Questionnaire for Instructors of vocational training centres

- 1 Organizational structure.
 - [1] Training centre part of a government bureaucracy
 - [2] Training centre part of industry
 - [3] Off site away from the plant
 - [4] Part of military service
 - [5] Part of a movement such as worker education or co-operatives
 - [6] Part of religious mission
 - [70] Others, specify _____

- 2 Which subject(s) are you teaching? _____

- 3 What is your level of education for the subject(s) your teaching
 - [1] Trade test grade three
 - [2] Trade test grade two
 - [3] Trade test grade one
 - [4] FTC
 - [5] Diploma
 - [6] Bachelor's degree
 - [7] Graduates degree
 - [70] Others, specify _____

- 4 Are the subjects your teaching relates to the day-to-day activities?
 - [1] Yes,
How? _____
 - [2] No,
Why? _____

- 5 The subject you teach is it appropriate for self-employment?
 - [1] Yes , how? _____
 - [2] No, How _____

- 6 Since when are you teaching the respective trade(s)? _____
- 7 Have you received the training in methodology and entrepreneurship?
 - [1] Yes
 - [2] No

- 8 The vocation graduates get employment after their training?
 - [1] Yes
 - [2] No
 - [50] Don't know

- 9 If the answer is Yes in question 8 above
What percentage do you think were self employed in 2006?
 - [1] Below 10 percent
 - [2] 10-20
 - [3] 20-30
 - [4] 30-40
 - [5] 40 and above
 - [50] Don't know

What percentage do you think were formal employed in 2006?

- [1] Below 10 percent
- [2] 10-20
- [3] 20-30
- [4] 30-40
- [5] 40 and above
- [50] Don't know

10 What trades skills do you think are the best for self-employment?

- [1] Catering
- [2] Motor vehicle mechanics
- [3] painting and sign writing
- [4] Tailoring and dress making
- [5] Secretarial
- [6] Carpentry and joinery
- [7] Masonry
- [8] Driving
- [9] Plumbing
- [10] Electrical and wiring
- [70] Other (specify)_____

(b) Why and how?_____

11 What do you think are the factors that hinder youth to join vocational training Program

- [1] Knowledge about vocational education
- [2] Training costs
- [3] Training duration
- [4] family status
- [5] personal aspects
- [6] Attitudes toward vocational education
- [7] Employers preference
- [8] Parents occupation
- [70] Others, specify_____

12 What are the formal employers' preferences for the vocation training graduates?

- [1] Multi skilled
- [2] Sex preference
- [3] Job experience
- [4] Formal skills
- [5] Age specific
- [6] Education level
- [7] English language
- [70] Others, specify_____

13 What strategies do you think can motivate youth to join vocational programmes?_____

- 14 Is the marketability of trade skills an important component of the training programme?
 [1] yes
 [2] No
 If yes how_____
- 15 Do the skills you taught have acceptance in the community?
 [1] Yes
 [2] No
 [50] Don't know
- 16 Do the trade(s) you taught have contribution to an economy of the area?
 [1] Yes
 [2] No
- 17 What do you think are the problems of youth unemployment?

- 18 What do you think can be the solution of youth unemployment?
- 19 There are other subjects, which are offered in, additional to trades subjects for the preparation of self-employment?
 [1] Yes
 [2] No
- 20 If Yes What other subjects which your trainees study in additional to trade subjects mention_____
- 21 What suggestion do you have to facilitate youth employment after their graduation from training?_____
- 22 Do you think that there is relationship between vocational skills and youths' employment?
 [1]Yes
 [2]No
 If yes how?_____
- 23 Did the training Centre involve in assisting graduates to secure employment
 [1] Yes
 [2] No
 [50] Don't know
- 24 If in question 22 is Yes, how_____

- 25 The education training policy has any strategies in empowering graduates for self employment
[1] Yes
[2] No
[50] Don't know
- 26 If the answer in question 24 is Yes what are the strategies_____
- 27 What are the Education Training policy strategies in improving the training for the self Employment focus_____
- 28 what suggestions can give to stakeholders concerning the issue of youth un-employment?_____

Thanks for your cooperation

Appendix 3: Operational definition of variables and other related terms

Variables	Operational definition
Age	Total number of years in life
Sex	Being a male or female in biological sense
Marital status	The state of having a wife or husband
Occupation wage	Type of work one occupy and earning indices
Education attainment	Number of years in school or skills level of the work force
Employment status	Wage and salaries, self employed, contributing to family workers
Skills/training	Training after school or experience
Experience	Years in vocational activities
Attitude toward VTCs	Personal view on an issue
Training methods	means of delivering training/skills
youth	Female or male 14yers to 29years of age
Training duration	Months, years in school/vocation centre

Figure 2: Operational definitions of variables and other related terms

Appendix 4: Status of employment in construction sector

Category	Status of employment				Total	Percent %
	Permanent		Temporary			
	Male	Female	Male	Female		
Management	32	0	21	0	53	5
Technical	52	1	13	0	66	7
Vocational	193	13	180	3	389	39
Others	99	6	368	11	484	49
Sub total	376	20	582	14	992	100
Total	396		596			
Percent	40		60			
Grand total					992	

Source: (Mjelwa) Labour market survey, SWZ data compilations

Status of hotel employees

Gender/category	Permanent	Temporary	Total	Percent
Male	163	113	276	54
Female	107	130	237	46
Total	270	243	513	100
Percent	53	47	100	

Category of hotels employees.

Category/gender	Male	Female	Total	Percent
Management	64	26	90	18
Technical/professional	33	14	47	9
Operatives/vocational	141	190	331	65
Others	35	10	45	9
Total	273	240	513	100
Percent	53	47	100	

Source: (Mjelwa, 2008)Data Analysis on Labor market Analysis for the hospitality industry.

Employment status in the manufacturing sector

Category	Male	Female	Total	Percent
Management	85	11	96	4
Professional	121	17	138	5
Vocational	501	73	574	22
Others	1026	835	1861	70
Total	1728	936	2669	100
percent	65	35	100	

Source: (Mjelwa, 2008)

Appendix 5: Enrolments and graduates in VET centres by Gender: south West Zone In long and short courses, 2006

SN	REGION	OWNERSHIP	NO OF CENTRE	CAPA CITY	LONG COURSE				SHORT COURSES			
					ENROLLED		GRADUATES		ENROLLED		GRADUATES	
					Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1	RUKWA	VETA	1	532	132	15	127	15	149	3	149	3
		OTHER VET	12	876	387	164	186	64	107	89	96	82
		TOTAL: RUKWA	13	1,408	519	179	313	79	256	92	245	85
2	MBEYA REGION	VETA	1	1,016	236	90	229	90	391	117	391	117
		OTHER VET	49	5,817	1,584	1,079	1,238	790	1,003	1,523	949	1,537
		TOTAL: MBEYA	50	6,833	1,820	1,169	1,467	880	1,394	1,640	1,340	1,654
GRAND TOTAL			63	8,241	2,339	1,348	1,780	959	1,650	1,732	1,585	1,739

Source: (Mjelwa , 2006)

Appendix 6: VETA south west zone, data for education and training for year 2002 2006 (five years)

YEAR	TYPE OF VET	CAPA CITY	LONG COURSE						SHORT COURSE						Total graduates	% of capacity
			Enrolled			Graduates			Enrolled			Graduates				
			Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total		
2002	VETA CENTRES	1,303	482	106	588	461	106	567	526	390	916	514	323	837	1,404	108%
	OTHER VET	6,422	964	522	1,486	693	361	1,054	693	982	1,654	516	816	1,332	2,386	37%
2003	VETA CENTRES	1,268	382	101	483	349	98	447	571	392	963	543	319	862	1,309	103%
	OTHER VET	6,712	1062	531	1,593	780	369	1,149	780	982	1,772	516	896	1,412	2,561	38%
2004	VETA CENTRES	1,268	399	101	500	382	100	482	567	386	953	527	317	844	1,326	105%
	OTHER VET	6,720	1073	536	1,609	790	372	1,162	790	982	1,762	516	896	1,412	2,574	38%
2005	VETA CENTRES	1,268	428	120	548	397	111	508	625	133	758	609	122	731	1,239	98%
	OTHER VET	6,824	1625	852	2,477	1,521	803	2,324	1,112	1,291	2,413	998	1,143	2,141	4,465	65%
2006	VETA CENTRES	1,548	368	105	473	1,424	105	1,529	540	120	660	540	120	660	2,189	141%
	OTHER VET	6,693	1971	1243	3,214	1,465	854	2,319	1,110	1,612	2,722	1,045	1,619	2,664	4,983	74%
	TOTAL	40,026	8,754	4,217	12,971	8,262	3,279	11,541	7,324	7,270	14,573	6,324	6,571	12,895	24,436	49%

Source: (Mjelwa , 2007)