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Articles

An Empirical Analysis of the Determinants of Adoption of Improved Cassava Varieties in Mampong Municipality, Ghana

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Abstract

The main idea behind this study was to ascertain the extent and factors that influence the adoption of improved cassava varieties in Mampong Municipality, Ashanti Region of Ghana. This is because, many years after implementing the Root and Tuber Improvement and Marketing Programme (RTIMP) in Ghana, little evidence exist regarding the extent of adoption and the factors that influence the adoption of improved cassava varieties in Ghana. The study was carried out in the Mampong Municipality in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The study employed a multi-stage sampling technique to select 250 cassava farmers. The Tobit and Multinomial Logistic Regression Models were used to analyse the dataset. Results show that the returns on the local varieties were higher than that of the improved cassava varieties. This might have accounted for the low adoption of the improved cassava varieties. The significant factors influencing the adoption of improved cassava varieties include access to extension services, access to credit, member of farmer associations and educational level. It is recommended that access to extension services should be enhanced, and credit opportunities should be made affordable to farmers. These are likely to increase the extent of adoption of the improved cassava varieties to enhance food security.

Keywords: adoption, Ashanti region, factors, Ghana, improved cassava varieties.

1. Introduction

Food and nutrition security is a global concern. Over the years, the number of people living in hunger has kept increasing in most developing countries (Cooke et al., 2016). Although technological advances in agriculture have been carried out over the years and have contributed massively to the level of production of crops, the demand for food has continually outpaced supply, leading to substantial food deficits (Aidoo, 2009). This discouraging trend, especially for cassava, has mainly been attributed to the low proportion of adoption of improved technologies (Umunakwe et al., 2015). The potential for agriculture is greatest for root and tuber crops like cassava and yam because they are drought-tolerant, have low soil fertility, grow in a variety of climates, are flexible in mixed cropping systems and contribute a lot to household food security. With its increased usage in developing countries, it is likely to significantly affect the global food

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systems, policies and investments (Aidoo, 2009). Also, the absolute utilisation of roots and tubers in developing nations is estimated to increase by 58 %. A lot of the expansion will be 44 % for cassava, potato's 29 % and sweet potato and yam's offer will be 27 %.

Historically, policymakers and researchers have given almost no consideration to root crops, as most of their endeavours have focused on cash crops. Root crops were considered food for poor people and assumed an exceptionally minor function in worldwide trade. This misguided judgment has lingered for such a long time because of the absence of appreciation for the number of individuals who rely upon these root crops and the number of lives spared during starvation or calamities by root crops. The inclination to regard roots and tubers as undifferentiated commodities have clouded their varying uses and performance. It has likewise thwarted examining their roles in the global food framework, blurred comprehension of their future possibilities, and disabled formulation of appropriate policies and approaches to exploit their undiscovered opportunities. In this way, it is imperative to isolate the different roots and tubers as individual food crops for basic examination (Ahmed, 2015).

Adopting improved innovations could increase adopters' incomes (Adofu et al., 2013). Nonetheless, the Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MoFA, 2004) points out that improved cassava varieties introduced to farmers did not directly translate into increased incomes. Though the output gap might have been achieved, it might have led to a price effect; thus, a reduction in producer price. As private investors, cassava farmers would want to maximise their profit and go for varieties that have a ready market. Literature indicates that most cassava farmers are smallholder resource-poor farmers who sell their produce to traditional open markets mainly for processing into food products (Deepa et al., 2015; Food and Agriculture…, 2005). Due to this, the farmers are bound to use local varieties that are low yielding because they are familiar with them and also, there are assured markets.

Research indicates that farmers are often reluctant to adopt the improved cassava varieties if they envisage there will be no ready market for their produce. In Ghana, the level of adoption of improved cassava varieties is low regardless of the effort by the government through RTIMP (Donkor et al., 2014). The issue now is that since most cassava farmers depend on the incomes from sales of their produce for their livelihood, this worrying trend of low productivity despite the several existing improved cassava varieties is worth investigating. Thus, there is the need to quantify the extent of adoption of individual improved cassava varieties and determine the factors associated with the observed levels of adoption and disentangle their individual effects.

Furthermore, existing studies on adopting improved cassava varieties concentrated on the aggregation of the improved varieties as against the local varieties (Ahmed, 2015; Awotide et al., 2014). That is, there is a dearth of literature on the reasons accounting for the adoption of different improved cassava varieties, and the present study investigates differential proportions of adoption of the improved varieties in the Mampong Municipality where the Root and Tuber Improvement and Marketing Programme (RTIMP) has a multiplication and distribution site for providing improved cassava planting materials to producers (MoFA, 2013). Given the importance of cassava to Ghana and to the rest of the world, adopting improved cassava varieties aimed at increasing food production for maximum food security cannot be ignored. Hence identifying the proportion of adoption and factors that influence adoption is vital, and this study seeks to fulfil this task. Therefore, the study's purpose was to ascertain the extent of adoption and the factors influencing the adoption of improved cassava varieties in Ghana.

2. Materials and methods

The study was carried out in the Mampong Municipality in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The Mampong Municipality is one of the six municipalities in the Ashanti Region, with Mampong as its administrative capital. It is also one of the thirty administrative districts in the Ashanti Region, Ghana. The Municipality has an area of 23.9 square kilometres (km^2), and the total population is estimated to be 88,501 (42,653 males and 45,398 females). The major towns in the Municipality include Mampong Krobo, Dadease, Asaam, Kofiase, Adidwan and Apaah (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). The study focused on cassava producers in the Mampong Municipality in the Ashanti Region. The population of cassava producers in the study area is unknown, but according to (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010), about 11,698 people in the study area engage in crop farming, including cassava.

The study employed a multi-stage sampling technique to get the sample size. This technique involves different sampling methods. Here, the respondents were chosen through a process of defined stages. The Mampong Municipality was purposively selected for the study because of its prominence in the production of cassava not only in the Ashanti Region but also in the entire country. The area has also received a lot of interventions in terms of research through the Root and Tuber Improvement and Marketing Programme (RTIMP). The study population was all cassava farmers in the Mampong Municipality. With the aid of Agricultural Extension Agents (AEAs), a list of major producing communities was prepared, after which a simple random sampling technique was used to select eleven (11) communities from the Municipality to provide a fair representation of the views of the diverse nature of respondents through the balloting approach. Communities selected for the study were *Krobo, Kyerimfaso, Mprim, Atonsuagya, Bunuso, Bosomekyekye, Abuomtem, Konkomba Village, Adidwan, Dome and Woraso*.

The farmers were selected through the simple random sampling approach using a list the Agric Extension Agents provided to reduce selection biases significantly. Thus, the simple random technique ensured that all cassava producers in the areas had an equal chance of being selected. In all, a total of Two Hundred and Fifty (250) cassava farmers were selected, comprising a minimum of eleven (11) and a maximum of forty-six (46) depending on the size of the selected communities. Past studies used this sampling approach (*Ayoade, 2013;* Ojo, Ogunyemi, 2014). The data for the study was collected from cassava producers in Mampong Municipality using questionnaires and face-to-face interviews by the researcher. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS v.20), Microsoft Excel and Stata (V. 12) were used to process, document and analyse the data collected. The Tobit Model and return on investment methods were used to estimate the extent of adoption of improved cassava varieties and returns on cassava varieties. *Additionally,* we used the Multinomial Logistic Regression Model to examine the factors and extent of adopting improved cassava varieties.

Analytical Framework

This study employed the Multinomial Logit and Tobit Models to examine the factors influencing the adoption of improved cassava variety and the extent of adoption, respectively.

2.1. Tobit Model

Given

$$\ln L = \ln\left(\prod_{y_i>0} f(y_i) \prod_{y=0} F(0) = \sum_{y_i>0} \ln f(y_i) + \sum_{y=0} \ln F(0) \right) \quad (1)$$

as the likelihood function, since y_i is normally distributed, the log-likelihood function can be expressed in terms of the cumulative distribution and density function as follows:

$$\ln L = \beta\left[\sum_{y_i>0} \ln\left(\frac{1}{\sigma}\phi\left(\frac{y_i - x_i'\beta}{\sigma} \right) \right) + \sum_{y_i=0} \left(1 - \Phi\left(x_i'\beta\right)\right) \right] \quad (2)$$

Where $\Phi(.)$ is the cumulative distribution function of a standard normal distribution and $\phi(.)$ is the corresponding density function.

Equation (3.2) can therefore be rewritten as follows:

$$LA_i = \gamma_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{5} \gamma_i \, INST_i + \sum_{i=6}^{10} \gamma_i \, SOCIO_i + \mu_i \quad (3)$$

where LA_i, the dependent variable represents the land area adopted by the ith cassava producer and measures the extent of adoption. Past studies have measured the extent of adoption using the total land area for improved cassava cultivation (Owusu and Donkor, 2012; Awotide et al., 2014). Again, $INST_i$ and $SOCIO_i$ represent institutional and socio-economic factors as explained earlier in equation (1). γ_0, γ_i and μ_i are the constant term, coefficient of the institutional and socio-economic factors to be estimated and the disturbance term, respectively.

2.2. Multinomial Logit Model

In specifying the multinomial model for this study, the researcher followed (Wooldridge, 2002). Given equation (4) and equation (5) as the probabilities of adopting an improved cassava variety and probability of not adopting an improved cassava variety, respectively.

$$P_{ij} = e^{\sum_{j=1}^{k} \alpha + \beta_{kj} X_{kji}} \quad \ldots\ldots (4)$$

$$P_{ij} = \sum_{1}^{J} e^{\sum_{j=1}^{K} \alpha + \beta_{kj} X_{kji}} \quad \ldots\ldots (5)$$

i and j represent cases and categories accordingly, k denotes the independent variables and P_{ij} represents the probabilities.

Equations (4) and (5) are then rewritten as:

$$ADOPT_i = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{5} \beta_i INST_i + \sum_{i=6}^{10} \beta_i SOCIO_i + \varepsilon_i \ldots\ldots (6)$$

where $ADOPT_i$ which is the dependent variable denotes varieties of improved cassava, $INST_i$ is the institutional factors comprising access to extension service (EXT), access to credit (CR), membership of farmer association (FA), market access (MA) and land tenure (LT). $SOCIO_i$ captures socio-economic factors and include age (AGE), education (EDUC), marital status (MS), household size (HS) and labour (LAB). Again, β_0,β_i(i=1,2,3,...10) and ε_i are the intercept, parameters to be estimated and the error term of the model, respectively.

3. Results and discussion

Extent of adoption of improved cassava varieties

1. Identification of the various improved cassava varieties and proportion of adoption

Despite the introduction of the improved cassava varieties in the area, the study revealed that not all of them had been adopted. Some of the farmers had also not adopted any of the improved cassava varieties. The study showed that the improved cassava varieties that had been adopted in the area were *Bankyehemaa, Essambankye, Nkabom, Abasafitaa* and *Afisiafi*. The result shows that out of the 250 farmers interviewed, only 99 (39.6 %) indicated that they had adopted the improved cassava varieties, and 151 (60.4 %) farmers asserted that they had not adopted the improved cassava varieties but still cultivate the local variety. However, this gives an overall adoption proportion of 39.6 %, which is relatively higher than the 9 % reported by (Owusu, Donkor, 2012).

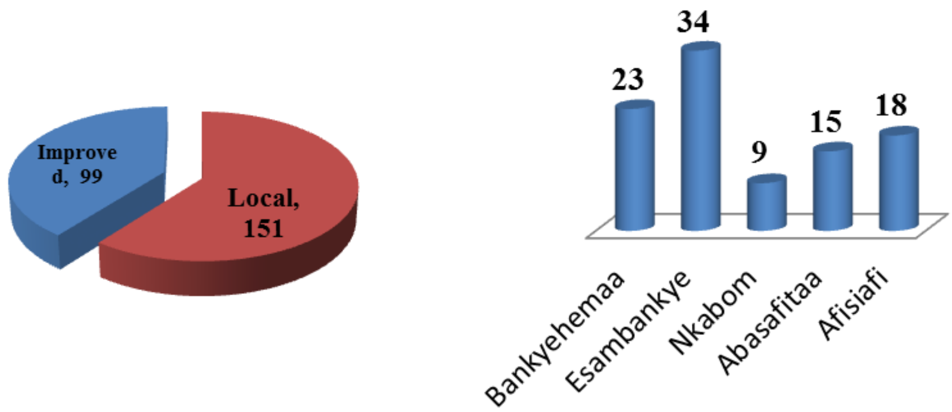

Fig. 1. Proportion of adoption of improved cassava varieties by farmers

From Figure 1, out of the 99 farmers who had adopted these improved cassava varieties, 23 and 34 had adopted Bankyehemaa and Essambankye, representing 9.2 % and 13.6 %, respectively. It was also revealed that 9 farmers representing 3.6 % had adopted *Nkabom*. It can also be inferred that of the improved cassava varieties introduced in the study area, the most adopted variety is the *Essambankye* (13.6 %) and this is followed by *Bankyehemaa* (9.2 %). The least adopted variety is the *Nkabom* which has an adoption proportion of 3.6 %.

2. Extent of adoption of improved cassava varieties

Extent adoption is defined as the total land area used to cultivate improved cassava varieties adopted by farmers. Figure 2 shows the average acres of land used to cultivate improved cassava varieties.

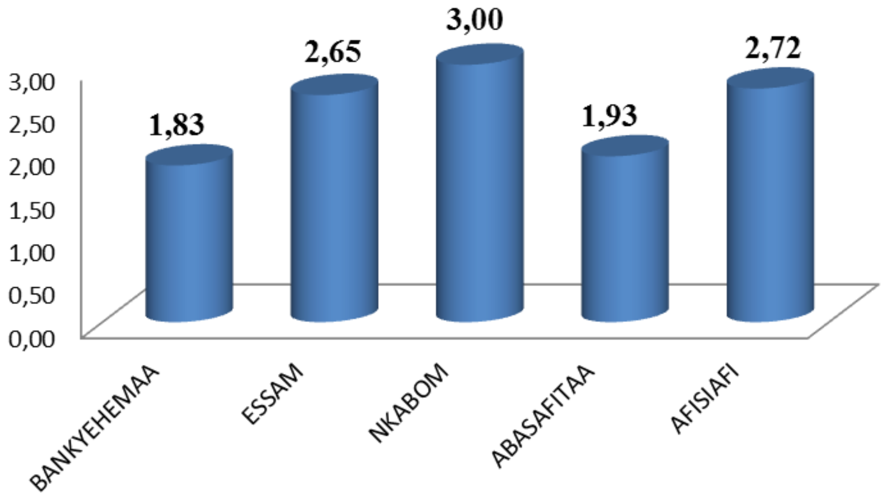

Fig. 2. Average acres of land used in the cultivation of improved cassava varieties

Figure 2 shows that *Nkabom* had the highest average land (3.0 acres) for cultivation in the study area, followed by Afisiafi, with an average farm size of 2.72 acres. *Bankyehemaa* had the least acre of land with a value of 1.83 acres. *Nkabom* having the highest average acre of land for cultivation compared with *Essambankye*, which had the highest adoption proportion, could be attributed to the fact that though the proportion of adoption was low for *Nkabom,* the farmers had large farm sizes compared with farmers who adopted *Essambankye*.

3. Returns on adopting improved cassava varieties

Regarding the returns on the improved cassava varieties cultivated in the study area, the researcher computed the total cost of cultivating the improved cassava varieties in the previous season and the returns obtained from selling the output. The average returns (net income) for each variety, return on investment (ROI) which measures the gain or loss on investment in cassava production given the total amount invested in cultivation and profit margin (PM), which measures how much out of every Cedi of sales a farmer actually keeps in earnings were computed. The results are presented in Table 1. Among the five improved cassava varieties adopted in the study area; *Bankyehemaa, Essambankye, Nkabom, Abasafitaa* and *Afisiafi,* the average net income ranges from USD 3349.50 to USD 9955.00 as the minimum and maximum values respectively. The variety that has the highest net income is *Essambankye,* with an average net income of USD 9955.00, followed by *Afisiafi,* with an average net income of USD 8822.00. The variety with the least net income is *Nkabom,* with an average net income of USD 3349.50. Therefore, it is unsurprising that Essambankye had the highest adoption rate (13.6 %) while Nkabom had the least (3.6 %).

Table 1. Returns from Improved Cassava Varieties (ICV) and local varieties

Variety	ATC (USD)	ATR (USD)	NI (ATR - ATC) (USD)	ROI (%) (NI/TC x 100%)	PM (%) (NI/TR x 100%)
Improved Varieties					
Bankyehemaa	6985	14135	7150	102	51
Essambankye	6985	16940	9955	143	59
Nkabom	6985	10334.5	3349.5	48	32
Abasafitaa	6985	15323	8338	119	54
Afisiafi	6985	15807	8822	126	56
Local Varieties					
Garibankye	6572.5	11011	4438.5	68	40
Debobankye	6572.5	20009	13436.5	204	67
Kuffourbankye	6572.5	16885	10312.5	157	61

Notes: ATC – Average Total Cost; ATR – Average Total Revenue; NI – Net Income
ROI – Return on Investment; PM – Profit Margin.
Source: Field Data

Regarding the return on investment and profit margin figures, the result further revealed that *Essambankye* has the highest return on investment, about 143%, concerning the amount invested in the cultivation processes. This means that a farmer will get more than double the amount invested in *Essambankye* cultivation. The variety with the second highest ROI is *Afisiafi,* with a return on investment value of 126 %, also indicating that a farmer who invests in Afisiafi will get double the amount invested. Again, *Nkabom* has the least ROI, with a value of 48 %, indicating the profit a farmer will get from *Nkabom* will not be up to half of the amount invested. The same can be said about the profit margin figures. *Essambankye* had the highest profit margin (59 %), followed by *Afisiafi* (56 %), and the least was *Nkabom* (32 %). This means that for every Cedi a farmer invests in *Essambankye, Afisiafi* and *Nkabom*, a profit margin of USD 3.25, USD 3.25 and USD 1.76 will be generated, respectively. Regarding the local varieties (*Garibankye, Debobankye,* and *Kuffourbankye), Debobankye* has the highest net income (USD 13436.50), followed by *Kuffourbankye* (USD10312.50), and the least being *Garibankye* (USD 4438.50). The ROI and PM values also show that *Debobankye* has the highest returns, followed by *Kuffourbankye,* and the least was *Garibankye.*

Table 2. Estimated results for the Tobit Regression Model

Variable	Coefficient	Rob. Std. Err.	Marginal Effect	Prob. Value
EXT	3.2395	1.0770	3.2395***	0.0029
CR	1.2022	0.8478	1.2022	0.1575
FA	3.6246	1.0387	3.6246***	0.0006
MA	-1.1042	0.8418	-1.1042	0.1909
LT	0.0288	0.7920	0.0288	0.9710
AGE	-0.0677	0.1749	-0.0677	0.6992
AGE squared	0.0014	0.0017	0.0014	0.4062
EDUC	0.2085	0.0978	0.2085**	0.0341
MS	0.6674	1.1649	0.6674	0.5673
HS	-0.4504	0.2944	-0.4504	0.1274

HS squared	0.0145	0.0093	0.0145	0.1217
LAB	0.1774	1.6687	0.1774	0.9154
Constant	-4.4581	5.0926	-	0.3822
Number of observation = 250 F (12, 238) = 3.92		Prob > F= 0.0000 Pseudo R squared = 0.0820		

Notes: Dependent variable is Total Land Area (LA) cultivated for Improved Cassava Variety. Reference categories of the dummy independent variables: EXT (No access to extension contact); CR (No access to credit); FA (Not belonging to Farmer association); MA (No market accessibility); LT (Land not owned); MS (Not married; single, divorced, separated, widowed); LAB (Hired labour). Other independent variables: Age and Age squared (In years); EDUC (In years); HS and HS squared (Number in a household).

Regarding the extent of adoption of the improved cassava variety, the estimated Tobit results are presented in Table 2. Except for access to extension service, farmer association and education, the rest of the independent variables were not statistically significant from the results. It was found that having access to extension contact increases the total land area used for cultivating the improved cassava varieties, which was significant at a 1 % significance level. Specifically, having access to extension contact increases the extent of adoption by 3.24 %. By implication having access to extension, contact brings improvement in production in the sense that the farmers will be educated on best farming practices and also be informed on the importance of the improved cassava varieties over the local varieties. Farmers understanding these issues then see the need to increase the land area for the improved cassava varieties cultivation compared with the land area cultivated by farmers who do not have access to extension contact. This outcome is consistent with the finding by (Awotide et al., 2014), who reported that having access to extension services increases the adoption of improved cassava varieties.

As expected, the results showed a positive relationship between the extent of adoption and farmer association. That is, a farmer belonging to an association increases the extent of adoption by 3.62 % and is statistically significant at a 1 % significance level. By implication, farmers who belong to associations are more likely to get enough information regarding the improved cassava varieties, and this is also likely to influence the extent of adoption compared with counterparts who do not belong to any association, all other things being equal. Again, information related to the improved cassava varieties and best farming practices is more likely to be shared during association meetings. Hence, improving farmers' production capacities and increasing the land area used to cultivate the improved cassava varieties. This result agrees with the study in Ghana by Owusu and Donkor (2012), who reported similar findings.

The result further revealed a positive correlation between the extent of adoption and education, as expected. That is, increasing the number of years a farmer spent in school increases the extent of adoption of improved cassava varieties. Specifically, a unit increase in the number of years a farmer spends in school increases the extent of adoption by 0.21 % and is statistically significant at 5 % significance level. The positive correlation could be attributed to the fact that increasing school years enhances farmers' knowledge and facilitates the acquisition and adoption of new technologies and farming practices. On the other hand, farmers with few years in school may find it difficult embracing new technologies as well as its adoption and this is likely to influence the adoption. Again, farmers who spend more years in school are more likely to use new and improved farming methods, which is likely to influence the total size of land (acres) to be used for the production of improved cassava varieties compared with counterparts who spend little years in school. Again, this result is consistent with past studies (Adofu et al., 2013; Owusu, Donkor, 2012).

However, the insignificant relationship between the extent of adoption and the other variables: access to credit, market accessibility, land tenure arrangement, age, marital status, household size, and source of labour does not mean the relationship does not exist; instead, it is absent in the current study. It also means that considering the study area, these variables do not influence the extent of adoption of improved cassava varieties but might influence it in other localities and settings.

4. Analysis of factors and extent of adoption of Improved Cassava Varieties

As expected, the results revealed a positive relationship between access to extension services and adoption of an improved cassava variety. Access to extension contact exhibited a positive and significant relationship in all the five improved cassava varieties. That is, farmers who have access to extension services relative to those not having access are more likely to adopt the improved cassava variety relative to the local variety. Specifically, farmers who have access to extension services relative to those who do not have access are 6.8 times, 3.0 times, 3.4 times, 11.7 times and 6.0 times more likely to adopt *Nkabom, Essambankye, Bankyehemaa, Afisiafi and Abasafitaa* accordingly relative to local varieties and these are statistically significant at 1 % and 5 % significance level, respectively for *Nkabom* and *Essambankye* and 10 % significance level for *Bankyehemaa, Afisiafi* and *Abasafitaa*. By implication, having access to extension contact means that farmers will have enough information regarding the improved cassava variety, such as the advantages of the improved variety over the local variety, and this enhances their adoption, all things being equal. On the other hand, farmers who do not have access to extension contact may lack such information, which hinders the adoption of the improved varieties. This result is consistent with past studies (Ojo, Ogunyemi, 2014).

Table 3. Estimated results for the Multinomial Logistic Regression

Variable	Coefficient	Rob. Std. Err	Relative Risk Ratio	Prob. Value
Bankyehemaa				
EXT	1.2341	0.7486	3.4352*	0.0992
CR	1.0282	0.5377	2.7961*	0.0558
FA	1.1183	0.5855	3.0597*	0.0561
EDUC	0.1863	0.0527	1.2048***	0.0004
MS	-1.7042	0.7946	0.1819**	0.0320
HS squared	0.0079	0.0046	1.0079*	0.0904
Constant	-6.9273	3.4396	0.0010	0.0440
Essambankye				
EXT	1.1016	0.4922	3.0089**	0.0252
FA	1.9384	0.5255	6.9476***	0.0002
MA	-1.0649	0.4729	0.3448**	0.0243
Constant	-0.5790	2.5487	0.5605	0.8203
Nkabom				
EXT	15.7327	0.4746	6.80e+06***	0.0000
EDUC	0.1273	0.0547	1.1358**	0.0200
MS	14.5420	0.6056	2.07e+06***	0.0000
LAB	-14.3705	0.7376	0.0000***	0.0000
Constant	-36.4181	5.8499	0.0000	0.0000
Abasafitaa				
EXT	1.7913	0.9997	5.9971*	0.0732
FA	1.2322	0.6277	3.4288**	0.0496
Constant	-8.0855	3.5271	0.0003	0.0219
Afisiafi				

EXT	2.4582	1.3517	11.6840*	0.0690
CR	1.2509	0.6500	3.4934*	0.0543
MS	-2.4262	0.6730	0.0884***	0.0003
Constant	-6.6720	3.2034	0.0013	0.0373
Number of observation = 250 Wald chi squared (60)= 1985.06			Prob > chi squared = 0.0000 Pseudo R squared = 0.2138	

The results further revealed a positive correlation between access to credit and adoption of improved cassava variety as expected and significant in the cases of *Bankyehemaa* and *Afisiafi*. That is, farmers who have access to credit relative to those who do not have access are more likely to adopt improved cassava variety related to the local variety. Specifically, farmers with access to credits are 2.8 times and 3.5 times more likely to adopt *Bankyehemaa* and *Afisiafi,* respectively, relative to local varieties and are significant at 10 % significance level. The positive correlation could be attributed to the fact that farmers who have access to credit are more likely to purchase more farm inputs and planting materials related to the improved cassava variety for their production compared with counterparts who do not have access to credit which hinders their purchasing abilities. Therefore, having access to credit in a way enhances the adoption of improved cassava variety by the farmers, all other things being equal. This finding is consistent with the result by Owusu and Donkor (2012) in Ghana but contradicts that of (Afolami et al., 2015) in Nigeria, who reported a negative relationship between the adoption of improved cassava variety and access to credit though it was insignificant.

Regarding the relationship between farmer association and adoption of improved cassava variety, it was found that farmers who belong to associations relative to those who do not belong to associations are more likely to adopt improved cassava variety relative to the local variety. Precisely, farmers who belong to farmer associations are 6.9 times, 3.4 times and 3.1 times more likely to adopt *Essambankye, Abasafitaa and Bankyehemaa,* respectively, which are statistically significant at 1 %, 5 %, and 10 % significance level accordingly. The relationship could be ascribed to the fact that farmers who belong to associations are more likely to get information regarding the improved cassava variety, and for that matter, the probability of adopting it will be higher compared with farmers who do not belong to any association. Again, it could also be assumed that the advantages of improved cassava variety over the local variety would be discussed and shared during association meetings, enhancing adoption. Studies by Ojo and Ogunyemi (2014) and Johnson and Silveira (2014) reported the same finding in Nigeria and Southern Sierra Leone, respectively. Awotide et al. (2014) also examined factors influencing the adoption of improved rice varieties (IRV) in rural Nigeria using the Tobit Regression Model, where the dependent variable (intensity of adoption) was defined as the proportion of farmland allocated to improved rice variety. Their empirical results identified factors such as membership in a Farmer-Based Organization (FBO), the level of training and distance to the seed input shop that positively and significantly affects IVR's intensity.

The results of market accessibility and adoption revealed a negative relationship that contradicts the a priori expectation and is significant only in the case of *Essambankye*. That is, farmers who have access to market for their products relative to farmers who do not have access are less likely to adopt *Essambankye* relative to the local variety. Farmers who have market access are 0.3 times less likely to adopt *Essambankye* compared with counterparts who do not have access and is statistically significant at 5 % significance level. The result is surprising because having access to the market for produce should positively influence the adoption of improved variety, all other things being equal. This notwithstanding, it could be because farmers in the study area do not put much emphasis on market accessibility before adopting *Essambankye*. It could also be attributed to the preference for *Essambankye*. If there is market accessibility and the preference for it is absent, the probability of adopting it will be lower as a result has shown.

Table 3 shows a positive relationship between education and adoption of improved cassava varieties as expected. That is, spending more years in school increases the probability of adopting improved cassava variety. Specifically, farmers who spend more years in school compared to those who spend little years in school are 1.2 times and 1.1 times more likely to adopt Bankyehemaa and Nkabom, respectively. Accordingly, these are statistically significant at 1 % and 5 % significance levels. By implication, spending more years in school improves the skills of farmers, enhancing their knowledge and understanding more than uneducated farmers or spending fewer years in school. Formal education enlightens the farmers' view on adopting improved cassava varieties; for that matter, it enhances the adoption of improved cassava varieties. Again, spending more years in school facilitates using new technologies and farming practices, increasing the likelihood of adopting the improved variety given its advantages over the local variety. Previous studies by Ehinmowo and Fatuase (2016) reported a positive relationship between education and the adoption of improved cassava variety. Gebresilassie and Bekele (2015) found that farmers with higher years of formal education have a higher probability of allocating a significant proportion of their farmlands to an improved variety of wheat seeds. This is because educated households are better skilled and can quickly synthesise production technologies and market information.

The results revealed a mixed relationship between marital status and adoption of improved cassava varieties. The relationships between adoption of *Bankyehemaa* and *Afisiafi* and marital status are negative and are statistically significant at 5% and 1% significance levels, respectively, while that of adoption and *Nkabom* is positive and significant at a 1% significance level. This implies that farmers who are married relative to those who are not married (single, separated/divorced, widowed) are 2.1 times more likely to adopt *Nkabom* relative to the local variety. Again, farmers who are married are 0.2 times and 0.1 times less likely to adopt *Bankyehemaa* and *Afisiafi,* respectively relative to the local variety. By implication, farmers who are married are more concerned about food security and family welfare. For this reason, they are more likely to adopt *Nkabom* to have enough food to feed the family and ensure food security. Again, married farmers will want to increase returns to be able to cater for the family in terms of finances and are more likely to adopt Nkabom, an improved variety with higher yield relative to the local variety. In other studies, Afolami et al. (2015) and Johnson and Silveira (2014) reported a positive relationship between the adoption of improved cassava varieties and marital status in Nigeria and Southern Sierra Leone, respectively.

On the other hand, the negative relationship between marital status and adoption of *Bankyehemaa* and *Afisiafi* could explain that married farmers might have noticed or experienced something (bad taste, chemicals) about the improved varieties, reducing their likelihood of adopting it relative to the local variety. This could be true as many people have raised concerns about the negative implication on health regarding the introduction of new and improved varieties of crops and other plants in the country. Again, it could also be attributed to the fact that married farmers who are much concerned about the family health might consider the negative effect of such improved variety and, for that matter, less likely to adopt it. Previous studies have reported a negative relationship between marital status and adoption of improved cassava variety (Ojo, Ogunyemi, 2014).

The results in Table 3 further showed a positive relationship between the adoption of improved varieties and the size of household size. That is, an increase in household size (to a certain threshold) increases the likelihood of adopting *Bankyehemaa*. Farmers with greater household size are 1 point more likely to adopt Bankyehemaa relative to local variety, which is significant at 10 %. Farmers with greater household sizes will have more labour to cultivate *Bankyehemaa* should it be adopted. Therefore, farmers with larger household size are more likely to adopt it as more labour (especially within the active labour group) are generally needed for farming activities. A larger household size could also help cultivate a larger land area to feed the family and ensure food adequacy since members are likely to assist in farming activities. This finding is consistent with that of previous studies by Owusu and Donkor (2012) but contradicts the result by *Amao and Awoyemi, 2008*.

Regarding the source of labour and adoption of improved cassava varieties, the study revealed a negative relationship which contradicts the apriori expectation. Farmers who use owned labour or their labour for their cultivation relative to those who hire labour are 0.0001 times less likely to adopt Nkabom relative to local variety and is significant at a 1% significance level. This implicitly means that farmers who hire labour for cultivation are more likely to adopt improved cassava varieties. The negative relationship could mean that farmers' own labour might not be enough for farming activities compared with farmers who hire labour and, for that matter, might have enough labourers for farming activities. This, therefore, reduces the likelihood of adopting *Nkabom* as revealed by the result. This result agrees with the findings by Awotide et al. (2014), who reported that farmers who hire labour for farming activities are more likely to adopt improved cassava variety than farmers who use their labour for cultivation.

4. Conclusion

Given the results obtained and the discussions, the study has the following conclusions:

First, the proportion of adoption of improved cassava varieties was generally low. Essambankye was the most adopted variety in the study area among the improved cassava varieties. The returns on the local varieties were higher than that of the improved cassava varieties. This might have accounted for the low level of adoption of the improved cassava varieties. Thus, the studies found that returns influenced adoption. The significant factors that increased the adoption of improved cassava varieties are access to extension services, access to credit, membership in farmer associations, educational level, marital status, and household size. Access to extension services, membership in farmer associations and educational level increase the adoption of improved cassava varieties. We recommend that due to the advantages of the improved cassava varieties, such as higher output over the local varieties, awareness and education on improved cassava varieties should be intensified so that the farmers will adopt them.

Secondly, we recommend that the government, through MoFA, improve access to extension services and make credit affordable to farmers in the study as the study has revealed that farmers who have access to these are more likely to adopt the improved cassava varieties. This will likely motivate farmers to cultivate on larger land areas to ensure food security and get higher returns, all other things being equal. Enhancing access to extension services is also likely to increase the extent of adoption, as revealed by the study. Again, the study has revealed that about 196 (78.4%) farmers do not have access to credit, so if this is addressed, the proportion of adoption of improved cassava varieties will be improved considering the 39.6% adoption rate revealed by the study. The study has shown that farmers who belong to farmer associations were more likely to adopt improved cassava varieties. It is recommended that farmers in Mampong Municipality should be sensitised on the importance of belonging to the farmer association and encouraged to join.

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6. Declaration of Competing Interest

The manuscript's authors declare that there is no interest in conflict, and all reference materials were dully acknowledged.

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None.

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Capacity-Building for Improved Functioning of Higher Learning Institutions: Transformation of Ardhi Institute to a Full-Fledged Ardhi University

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Abstract

One of the challenges confronting higher learning institutions in the global south is the constrained capacity to carry out research, expand student enrolment and address pertinent problems facing local communities. This challenge has compelled institutions to solicit resources and forge partnerships to build the needed capacity for improved functioning as viable academic entities nationally and internationally. This paper analyses the capacity-building programme that has been and is still being implemented by Ardhi University in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania and examines its impacts. The methods employed in examining capacity included a literature review, programme documents, reports from the University website, workshop proceedings, evaluation and facts and figure reports. Empirical evidence from these reports indicates that the capacity-building programme has increased staff with Doctoral (PhD) qualifications, increased student enrolment, research projects and publications, and national and international collaboration links. On a broader scale, the capacity built has increased Ardhi University's contribution to the national development agenda, increased national and international relations and innovative approaches to addressing community problems. This paper recommends continued capacity-building to sustain the achievements registered over the two decades and contribute to national development.

Keywords: Ardhi University, capacity-building, higher learning institutions, national development.

1. Introduction

The role of Universities in national development cannot be overemphasised. This is mainly because several challenges emerge and call for innovative approaches to addressing them in a global world. Traditionally, the primary functions of universities have been to transmit knowledge from one generation to another and contribute toward national development (Fromhold-Eisebith, Werker, 2013). Increasingly, it is now accepted that higher education investment contributes immensely to national development and, more so, to solving community problems (Fromhold-Eisebith, Ghaed-Sharafi, Ramazan Pour Nargesi, 2020). Countries with developing economies require a high level and skilled human resource capacity to identify and leverage opportunities espoused by unexploited natural resources and intellectual capital. Equally important is to take advantage of developments in technology and contribute to innovations and higher level research knowledge for the improved livelihood of the society. In the context of globalisation and the

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internationalisation of education, an increased capacity becomes one of the prerequisite factors to sustain competitiveness and efficiency (Ardhi University, 2021).

Universities have also been centres for advanced knowledge frontiers through research and innovation; and providing a high-quality workforce to serve society (Jega, 2007). Jega defines universities as: “Sites and systems of knowledge production that help men and women enjoy a richer and more meaningful life. A University prepares people for professional careers as doctors, engineers, lawyers, or teachers. It also gives a better appreciation of such fields as art, literature, history, human relations and science. In doing so, a university or college education enables individuals to participate with greater understanding in community affairs” (Jega, 2007). It is, therefore, implicit that capacity-building in terms of advanced training of academicians who are supposed to teach, conduct research and provide public services is over and above the concern of any university (Latha, 2020). The underlying assumption is that increased human resource capacity will directly affect improved functioning, efficiency and quality in teaching, research and delivery of public services.

This observation is more relevant in current times because of the transition from traditional modes of production to knowledge economies, where research and innovation are key attributes of national development (Phillips et al., 2017). Contemporary developments in both industrialised and less industrialised countries have brought up global environmental, social, political, cultural and more glaring challenges in recent times; impacts emanating from climate change and the Coronavirus pandemic. There has also been a shift from Universities being run by governments as public institutions to private universities emerging where some level of the commodification of education has been imminent (Shukry, 2017; Plante, 2015). Despite these shifting trends, Universities are expected to play a key role in applied research and coming up with innovative solutions to the increasing complexity of community problems. As centres for advanced training, universities are also expected to train qualified professional staff with the requisite skills to fit into the changing labour market and participate effectively in national and international development programmes.

Tanzania’s state of higher learning institutions (mainly universities) is still inadequate. There is a concern regarding the role of education, science and technology in national economic and social development (United Republic of Tanzania, URT, 2017). So far, Tanzania has not seen a significant impact of higher learning institutions that trickles down to people’s day-to-day lives. Poverty, diseases and ignorance are still raving communities on a considerable scale while agricultural productivity and outputs have remained at the peasant level. This has continued to perpetuate occasional famine, recurrent food shortages and disease-prone populations. Malnutrition among children and adults still prevails in many societies (URT, 2010a).

To analyse the condition of higher learning institutions in Tanzania in a more elaborate context, it is essential to review the current state of supply in terms of the number and capacity of these institutions to offer such education and its demand. Also, it is key to explore the number of prospective candidates expected to join universities. In 2004, the Government of Tanzania launched the Secondary Education Programme (SEDP) to respond to the expanded completion and pass rates at primary school vis-à-vis the participation rate in secondary education, which was one of the lowest in sub-Saharan Africa. In 2004, the transition rate from Sub-Saharan countries was recorded to be 9.4 percent for Tanzania, 23 percent for Kenya, 12 percent for Uganda, 23 percent for Liberia, 20 percent for Lesotho and 34 percent for Namibia (URT, 2010b). Member states of the East African Community have set a target of 15 to 20 percent by 2025. These targets and increased student enrolment had profound implications in terms of continued training of staff to cope with the actual and anticipated increase in the number of students. Based on these targets, the total number of students enrolled in Universities and University Colleges rose from 37,667 in 2004/05 to 95,525 in 2008/09, an increase of 153 percent. Despite the increase, this is only 3 percent transition rate from secondary to university education (URT, 2010b).

Advanced training for PhD qualifications has been considered in many countries as prerequisites for university lecturers. The underlying assumption has been that at such a level of qualification, one can conduct research independently and mentor the young. PhD qualifications have been viewed as the minimum qualifications for a university teacher to impart requisite skills and research knowledge to students. As was the case for the participation rate, the number of teachers with PhD qualifications in most Tanzanian higher learning institutions was quite low. With the exception of a few old Universities, the proportion of staff with PhD qualifications in most

Universities was less than 20 percent (URT, 2010b). Based on the preceding premises, it is apparent that continued capacity-building in terms of training academic staff members to higher degree qualifications remains one of the pre-occupations Universities will have to endeavour to achieve the anticipated goals.

The historical context of Ardhi University (ARU)

The present Ardhi University (ARU) started as a Survey Training Centre (STC) in Dar es Salaam in 1956. In 1960, STC was moved to the present location called Observation Hill, nearby the University of Dar es Salaam. The first intake of students occurred in 1964 when 11 forms four leavers were enrolled for the survey technician course. In the first cohort, only seven students managed to complete the course and were awarded a survey technician certificate. In 1972, the mandate of STC was expanded, and the Centre was renamed Ardhi Institute (ARI). The expansion aimed at addressing the demand for middle-level human resources in the disciplines of land use planning and management. In 1972, two-year diploma programs in the fields of Land Surveying and Land Management and Valuation were established. In the same year, a three-year Diploma course in Urban and Rural Planning was established. In 1979, the Centre for Housing Studies (CHS); a joint project between the governments of Tanzania and the Netherlands, was established. The initial focus of CHS was to offer short courses and carry out research in housing, planning and building. Ardhi Institute became a Constituent College of the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM) in 1997. It was named the University College of Lands and Architectural Studies (UCLAS). The move of affiliating Ardhi Institute with the University of Dar es Salaam aimed at nurturing the new college to grow and become a full-fledged university producing land-based professionals. In the year 2007, UCLAS was further transformed into Ardhi University (ARU). The new university started with a total of 1,366 students enrolled in 39 academic programmes.

At the time of affiliation with the University of Dar es Salaam in 1996, UCLAS (now Ardhi University) had only four (4) academic staff with PhD qualifications. The need to train academic staff with PhD qualifications was one of the priority issues under capacity-building strategies for UCLAS and later ARU. Deliberate efforts for training academic staff were made and implemented with great support from development partners, including Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA), The World Bank, the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA), the European Union (EU), the Norwegian Agency for Development (NORAD), the Australian Aid and International Development (AusAID) and the United States Aid and International Development (USAID). Until 2018, there were 76 academic staff members with PhD qualifications out of 252 academic staff members (ARU, 2018). Other results of the capacity-building programme are notable in many ways, including improved quality in teaching, research and public service delivery. Staff members who have graduated with PhD qualifications have been serving as academic leaders in various units within the university, and others have been appointed as leaders in many sectors of the Government.

2. Materials and methods

This paper presents the capacity-building processes at Ardhi University, focusing on PhD training programmes. The key method that was used in collecting facts was a literature review through desk research. This included reviewing progress reports, activity plans, programme terminal reports, and programme evaluation reports of some programmes. ARU Facts and Figures reports provided valuable data for establishing spot and trend data. An additional literature review was carried out in developing the conceptual framework that guided subsequent analysis and synthesis. Evaluation and Programme Progress Reports were useful in drawing facts on the position of ARU with regard to its role in contributing to the national development agenda, policies and programmes. In addition to the literature review, the authors participated in workshops and meetings on programme design, implementation and review.

Conceptualising capacity

Since the late 1980s, capacity as an outcome and capacity development as a process has been recurrent in terms of international development and cooperation (Baser, Morgan, 2008). Conceptualising capacity development becomes an essential benchmark for discussing capacity-building in higher learning institutions. The United Nations Development Programme (2008) sees capacity as the ability of individuals, organisations and societies to perform functions, solve problems and set and achieve goals. In a broader perspective, the United Nations Development

Programme views capacity as the ability of individuals, communities, institutions, organisations and social and political systems to use the natural, financial, political, social and human resources available to pursue sustainable development. Capacity has also been regarded as the values, contacts, organisations and technical skills enabling countries, institutions, organisations and individuals to perform their tasks and achieve their development objectives (The Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2000). Similarly, capacity as an overall concept includes conditions that must be in place (such as knowledge, competence and effective development-oriented organisations and institutional frameworks) to make development possible (Sida, 2000). Similarly, other authors define capacity as the ability of people, organisations and society to manage their affairs (Land et al., 2007).

Capacity as a dynamic variable is an emergent concept. It grows through self-organisation and interplay of various contextual, managerial, economic, social and human factors (Gomez, 2009). It can be realised at multiple levels ranging from individuals to countries that capacity has to do with achieving set objectives using available resources. Many practitioners view capacity as a human resource issue with skills development and individual training. Capacity as skills is also widely held by both international development agencies and country governments. Therefore the critical focus in discussing capacity as a dynamic concept should be on capacity development or capacity-building (Gomez, 2009).

Capacity development/building is a new concept as it emerged in academic currency in the 1980s (Gomez, 2009). As used today, it has its origin in the fields of technical assistance and development cooperation. Capacity development is complementary to other concepts such as institutional building, institutional development, human resource development, development management and institutional strengthening. Over the past decade, capacity development has become a concept – an idea – that has captured many ideas and lessons from past development activities (Lusthaus et al., 1999). This concept emerged in reaction to the perceived failures of earlier technical cooperation activities and has quickly gained acceptance as the core objective of development partners' assistance programs (Organisation for Economic..., 2005).

Capacity development or capacity-building is a gradual holistic process of change that strengthens the capacities of individuals, organisations (public and private) and societies to make effective and efficient use of their resources to achieve their own goals on a sustainable basis (GTZ, 2007; Ministry of Water and Irrigation, 2008; Whyte, 2004). Within the many definitions, there seems to be an emerging consensus that capacity development is a process of change that involves the long term, focused on improvements to attain sustainable social and economic development. Capacity-building is demand-driven and takes place at different levels. These levels have been classified into micro (individual and project team), meso (organisation) and macro (national institutions) (Lusthaus et al., 1999). A consistent discussion on capacity as a concept has been put forward by Morgan (2006) in his report, "Study on Capacity: Change and Performance". Morgan suggests five key variables that characterise capacity as a concept. The first variable is empowerment and identity, which refers to properties that allow an organisation or system to survive, grow, diversify and become more complex.

Morgan argues that systems need power, control and space to evolve in such a way. Thus, capacity implies that people act together to take control of their own lives in some fashion. The second variable relates to collective ability, a combination of attributes that enables a system to perform, deliver value, establish relationships and renew itself. In other words, it refers to abilities that allow systems namely; individuals, groups, organisations, and groups of organisations – to be able to do something with some intention, with some sort of effectiveness, and with some sort of scale over time. A focus on abilities or, as we call them in this paper – capabilities – can help provide more operational and specific ways to deal with the broader concept of capacity. The third component of capacity refers to the state or condition inherently as a systems phenomenon. In this context, capacity is viewed as an emergent property or an interaction effect. It comes out of the dynamics involving a complex combination of attitudes, resources, strategies and skills, both tangible and intangible. It emerges from the positioning of a system within a particular context. And it usually deals with complex human activities which cannot be addressed from an exclusively technical perspective.

Additionally, the fourth variable of capacity is a potential state that is elusive and transient. It is about latent as opposed to kinetic energy. Performance, in contrast, is about execution and implementation or the result of the application/use of capacity. Given this latent quality, capacity is dependent to a large degree on intangibles. It is thus hard to induce, manage and measure. As a state or condition, it can disappear quickly, particularly in smaller, more vulnerable structures. This potential state may require different approaches to its development, management, assessment and monitoring. The fifth variable refers to the creation of public value. Capacity in this report refers to a group or system's ability to contribute to public life positively. In most countries, different capacities compete for power, control and resources (Morgan, 2006).

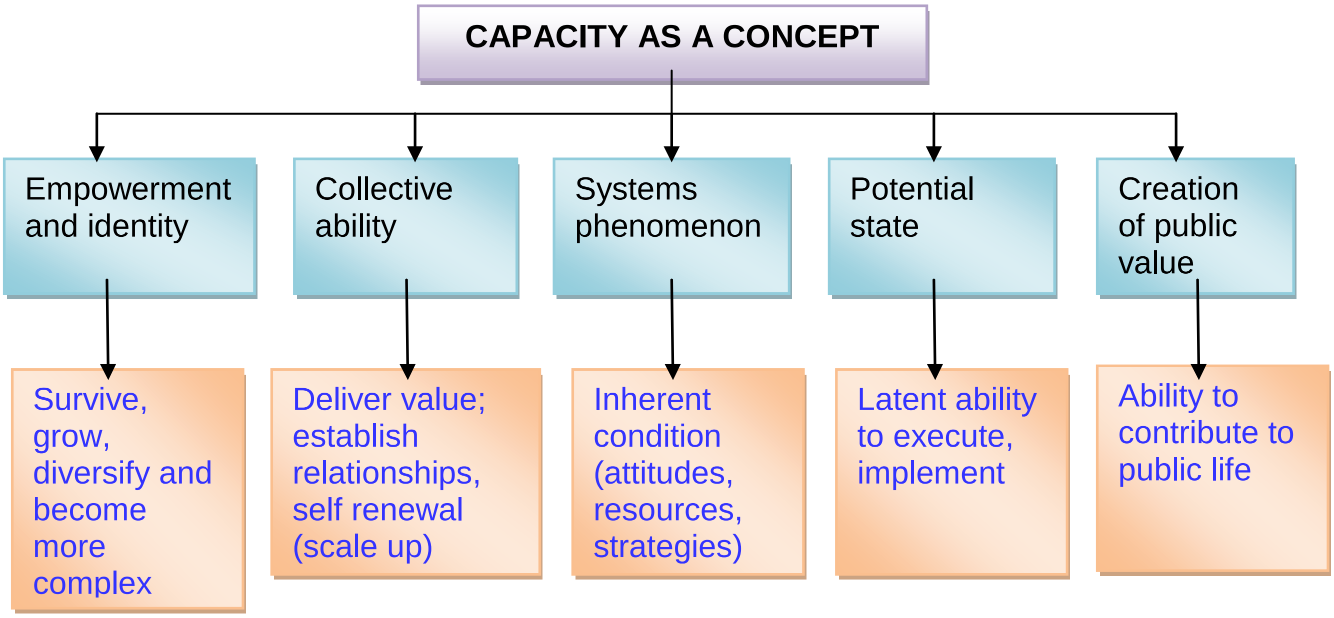

Fig. 1. Capacity as a Concept (Morgan, 2006)

3. Results

Capacity-building and funding support

Over the years, Ardhi University has received support from the Tanzania Government and various development partners to implement its functions. The support has covered training in terms of human resource development, research grants as part of knowledge generation, procurement of equipment for training, physical infrastructure improvement and collaborative links through staff and student exchange programmes. Current partners who have been supporting these functions of the university include the Word Bank through the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, the Swedish Government through Sida support, and the Royal Government of Norway through the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD). Other funding agencies include the Australian Aid Agency for Development Cooperation (AusAID) and the Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA), the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), and the European Commission under its various framework programmes.

Training of staff and diversification of programmes

In analysing the growth of the Ardhi University, it is essential to look back to 1996 when the then Ardhi Institute was affiliated with the University of Dar es Salaam (UDSM). The Institute changed its status and became a constituent college of the University of Dar es Salaam to nurture the College to grow into a full-fledged university. During the time of affiliation, Ardhi Institute had only six (6) Academic Departments and one Institute providing higher education at the Advanced Diploma Level in Land and Human Settlement Development and Environmental Management. By transforming the Institute into a Constituent College of the University of Dar es Salaam, the academic programmes were re-structured, and other new programmes were developed. For example, while in 1996 there were only six (6) programmes offering Advance Diploma Certificates, by 2007/08 the number of academic programmes had increased to 44. These were categorised into Bachelors, Postgraduate Diploma, Masters and PhD Programmes. When Ardhi became a College of the University of Dar es Salaam, it embarked on training her academic staff to PhD levels as one of the requirements for university accreditation*. The training of PhDs was primarily and is still being undertaken at various universities outside Tanzania. At the same time, a small number are trained at local universities, especially the University of Dar es Salaam. The University College of Lands and Architectural Studies (UCLAS) registered significant achievements during the ten (10) year period of its existence.

Increased number of Staff with PhD qualifications

Through the capacity-building programme, the number of academic staff with PhD qualifications at ARU increased from four (4) in 1996 to 60 (Facts & Figures 2009/10) by 2009. The number of PhDs has continued to grow and reached 86 in 2014/15. However, this figure dropped in 2014/15 and 2015/16 from 86 to 76 because of the transfer of some staff from ARU to the Central Government (Figure 2).

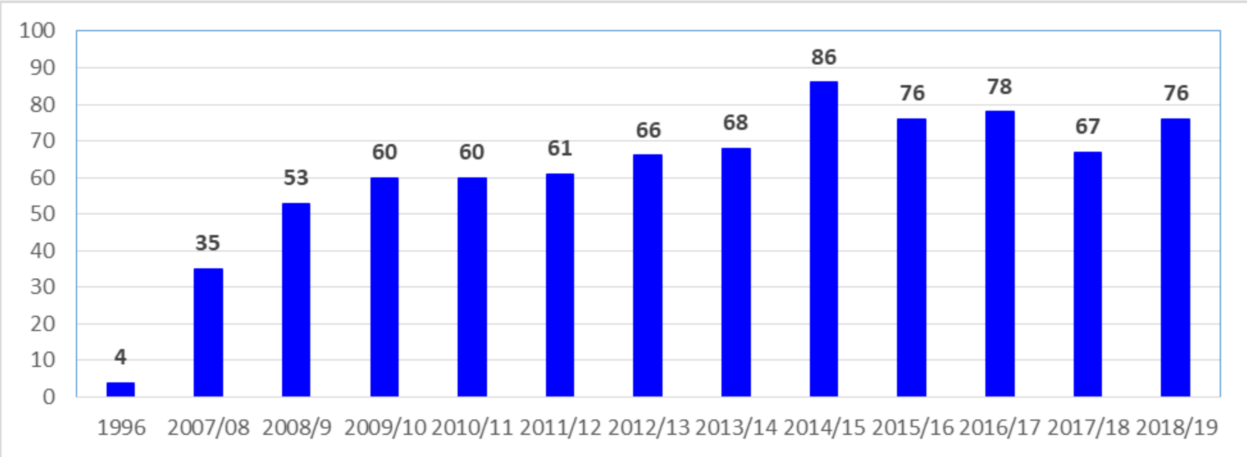

Fig. 2. Trend of increase in the number of Staff with PhDs (1996–2018/19)

Increased number of academic programmes

Ardhi University is the only training institution offering land-based disciplines at the degree level in Tanzania. The aim of transforming the programmes was to widen the scope of knowledge and professionalism consistent with state-of-the-art in technological advancement both locally and internationally. The capacity built through advanced training (PhD training) has contributed towards establishing new programmes, including transforming traditional ones. By 1996 when Ardhi Institute was affiliated with the University of Dar es Salaam, there were only six (6) academic programmes. These programmes increased to 44 in 2007 when Ardhi University was established and 50 in 2014/15. Some programmes were later de-established, resulting in a reduced number to 40 in 2018/19 (Table 1). The programmes offered at ARU include diploma, undergraduate, postgraduate diploma, master and doctoral programmes. The general trend shows an increase even though some programmes (for example, Postgraduate Diploma programmes designed as transitional requirements for an applicant to qualify for Master's Programmes) were phased out.

Table 1. Trend in an increase in the number of programmes

Programmes	**1996**	**2007/08**	**2014/15**	**2018/19**
Undergraduate	6	21	24	20
Postgraduate Diploma	-	7	7	0
Masters Programme	-	10	13	13
PhD Programme	-	6	6	7
TOTAL	**6**	**44**	**50**	**40**

* The recommended minimum number of staff with PhD qualification as per Tanzania Commission for Universities Guidelines (TCU, 2014) for establishing a new University is 5. However, for Ardhi University that had two Faculties and 6 Departments required approximately 20 staff with PhD qualifications by 2007.

Source: ARU Facts and Figures (2019)

Increased enrolment of students

The built capacity has contributed significantly to an expanded enrolment of students at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. This has been observed by a steady increase in the number of students between 2007 and 2019. Taking a student enrolment of 1448 for the base year 2007/08, the total enrolment for the academic year 2018/19 of 4,122 represents an increase of 185 percent (Table 2). Although several factors come into play for this increase, academic staff training has had a share in the growth, especially for postgraduate students. Instructors with PhD qualifications play a key role in teaching and supervising research projects for postgraduate students.

Table 2. Increase in student enrolment (2007–2019)

Year	Undergraduate students	Postgraduate students	Total enrolment	Percentage increase
2007/08	1324	124	1448	0
2008/09	1503	170	1673	16
2009/10	1996	120	2116	46
2010/11	2651	139	2790	93
2011/12	3195	191	3386	134
2012/13	3549	203	3752	159
2013/14	3667	189	3856	166
2014/15	3700	288	3988	175
2015/16	3771	336	4107	184
2016/17	3898	270	4168	188
2017/18	3993	237	4230	192
2018/19	3868	254	4122	185

Source: Facts and Figures Reports (2007/8 and 2018/19)

Increase in the number of publications

Concurrent with the increased number of programmes and students, improved capacity has contributed to increased publications. Scholarly publications in the form of published dissertations, journal articles, books, book chapters and workshop and conference proceedings are key attributes that contribute to increased university visibility. For example, while in 2006, the total number of publications was only nine (9), the total number increased to 203 in 2017/18 (Figure 3). Although the trend fluctuates, the general pattern indicates growth and an increase. The increasing number of publications has promoted the university on the world map of universities and, to some extent, opened up opportunities for expanded collaboration with peer institutions. Increased publications have also resulted in an increased number of senior academicians who have been promoted to higher ranks serving as Senior Lecturers or Professors.

Increased number of research projects

Improved capacity has culminated in improved research culture and an increased number of research and public service projects. More staff who have graduated with PhD qualifications are increasingly winning fundable research projects with corresponding outputs in an increase in the number of publications. Although there was a downfall in the number of projects in the years between 2008/09 and 2010/11, there was an upsurge from 2011/12 to 2013/14, increasing from 71 to 101 projects and from 101 projects in 2017/18 to 118 projects in 2018/19 (Figure 4).

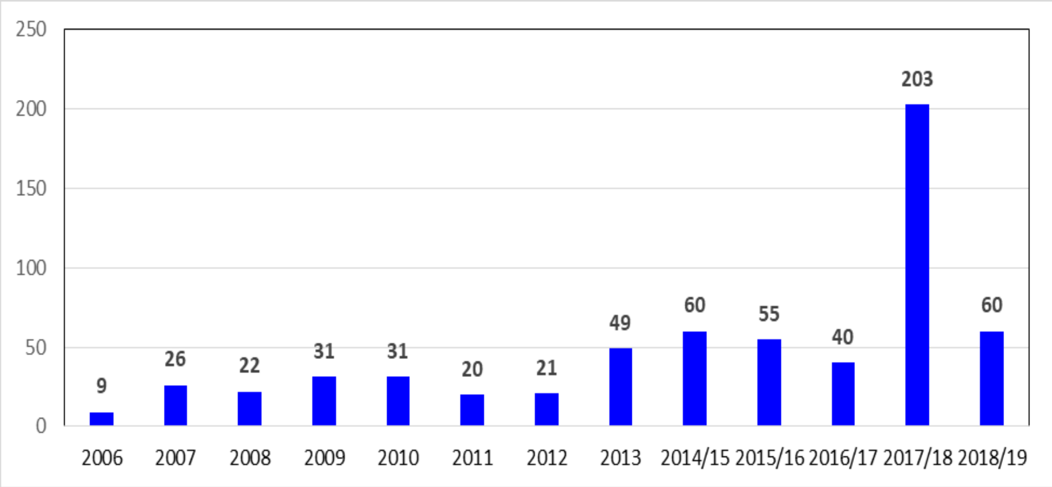

Fig. 3. Number of publications (2006–2018/19)
Source: ARU Web page (www.aru.ac.tz; accessed 22nd May 2021 and Fact and Figures 2018/19)

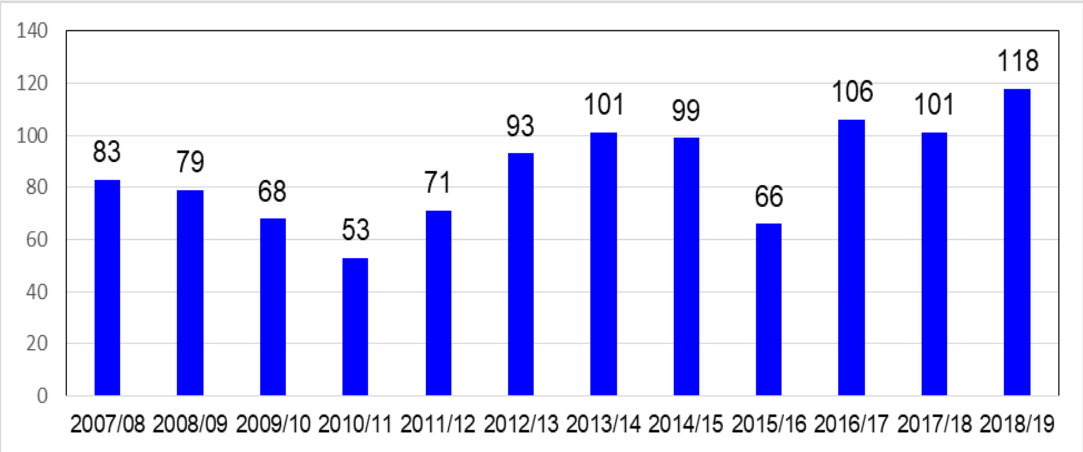

Fig. 4. Trend in number of research projects (2007/08–2018/19)

Consultancy/public service projects

Public services constitute one of the core functions of Ardhi University. Apart from contributing revenue to the university, it has been deployed as a window that links the University's functions and the industry. Although the number of projects has shown a decreasing trend (Figure 5), the contribution of ARU to strategic projects of national importance has remained the same. ARU has contributed to surveying and laying down of the gas pipeline from Somanga to Dar es Salaam, design and supervision of the construction of the University of Dodoma, Environmental Impact Assessment of major projects in Tanzania, Flood mitigation plans in Kilosa town, Feasibility studies for Dar es Salaam Rapid Bus Transport (BRT) project, Surveying and valuation of the standard gauge railway, the East African Crude Oil Gas Pipeline (EACOP) project, valuation of properties for both investment and compensation purposes, monitoring of sea waves for climate change mitigation and adaptation in Tanga and review of the Dodoma National Capital City Master Plan (2019–2039).

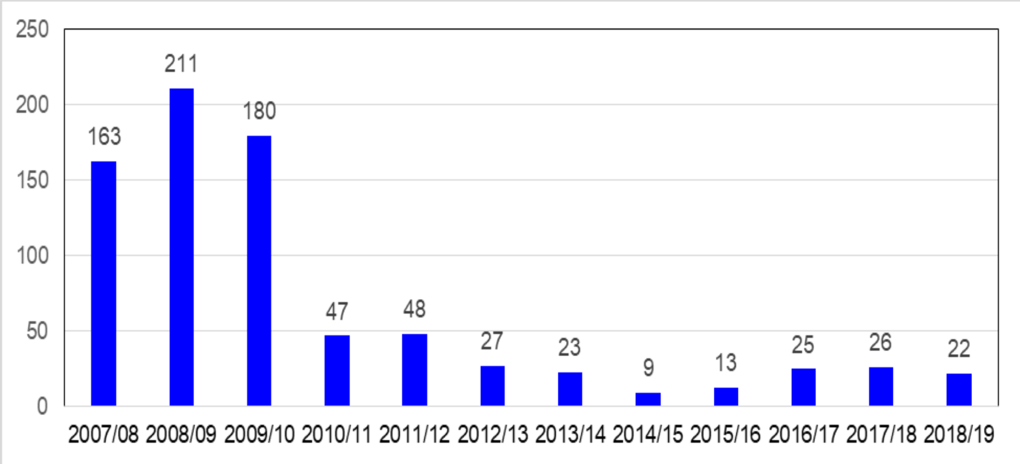

Fig. 5. Trend in number of public service projects (2007/08–2018/19)

International links and students

Ardhi University has collaborated with national and international institutions in teaching, research and public service delivery. While in 2009, there were 26 national and international links, in the year 2018/19, the number of links had increased to 49. As a result of capacity-building, ARU has continued to attract international students despite having fewer numbers in various postgraduate and undergraduate programmes. The trend shows that there were eight (8) students in 2014/15, and in the year 2018/19 the number of students who were registered in postgraduate programmes increased to 31. For collaborative or joint programmes, students come from all over the world. From a regional perspective, ARU attracts students from Swaziland, Malawi, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Rwanda, Gambia and Uganda. The university has also collaborated with national and international universities (in Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Germany, the Philippines, Chile, Ghana and Finland) in conducting multidisciplinary research and running joint education programmes and research projects.

4. Discussion

It is imperative from the results that capacity-building has significantly contributed to ARU's growth as an academic institution to cope with the demands and challenges of higher education in the 21st century. Recapitulating Morgan's (2006) argument on *empowerment and identity,* institutions' capacity-building ought to lead *organisations* or systems to survive, grow, diversify and become more complex. This is apparent from the results presented that ARU has survived as an entity of higher learning institutions for a long time. Besides, it has grown from a constituent college of the University of Dar es Salaam in 1996 to a full-fledged university in 2007. ARU has diversified its programme from traditional land-based to new academic disciplines, including economics, business studies, community development, civil engineering, banking and financing, public policy, programme management, information system management, climate change and disaster risk management. Apart from contributing to increased student enrolment, programme diversification has opened up new areas for ARU to further contribute to national development.

Prior to embarking on capacity-building initiatives in the late 1990s, ARU's contribution to societal development was largely inclined towards addressing practical problems with a lesser focus on generating knowledge through research and dissemination. It is worth noting that capacity-building undertaken at ARU with support from development partners has culminated in improved research culture depicted by the increase in research projects and publications. This impact is also reflected in the improved capacity of researchers to formulate fundable proposals. Although a change in culture and attitude cannot be explicitly measured and takes a bit longer, the foregoing observations provide a generalised picture of attitudinal change towards knowledge creation. This tallies well with Morgan's argument on the dynamics of a complex combination of attitudes, resources, and strategies during the capacity-building process.

One of the objectives of universities is to position themselves on the international map of academia by establishing links and attracting international students. This objective can only be achieved if such entities have developed adequate capacity to reach such levels of academic excellence to gain recognition and associate with peers. As a result of capacity building, ARU has transformed itself and developed links with national and international peers. This has been facilitated by establishing collaborative training programmes that have attracted international students worldwide. Through capacity-building, it has also been possible to forge collaborative links with other national and international universities. This is a reflection of several authors who believe that capacity is the reflection of individuals, organisations and societies to perform functions, solve problems and set and achieve objectives (Morgan, 2006; Baser, Morgan, 2008; Gomez, 2009; UNDP, 2008).

The ARU has assumed an increasing role in developing innovative approaches to addressing community and environmental problems on innovation and technological frontiers. Through capacity-building and community-driven research projects, ARU has developed a method of purifying water using local plants that rural communities can quickly adapt. Similarly, another research project has developed an innovative approach to using herbal plants to extract heavy metals from polluted soils, mainly in mining areas. All these projects have contributed to an improved public life by using locally available resources (Morgan, 2006).

Traditionally, ARU has endeavoured to contribute to public life through teaching, public service and research undertakings. Examples of critical areas where ARU has played a key role include; the production of skilled human resources in the disciplines of land, human settlements development and environmental management sectors. ARU has undertaken surveying, land value assessment for compensation of the gas pipeline project from Mtwara to Dar es Salaam, efficient liquid waste management for ARU and communities in Dar es Salaam, development of various policies and guidelines for land development-related sectors and proposal for reducing traffic congestion in Dar es Salaam. ARU has also participated in preparing the State of the Cities Report (2013) that has been used for benchmarking, comparing cities' performance and formulating development strategies for increased competitiveness and inclusion in cities. The Government has engaged staff members from ARU to design and supervise the construction of buildings. A good example is building Regional Courts constructed countrywide using locally available building materials. In so doing, the University has forged a good relationship with the Government and the industry through public service and community outreach projects.

5. Conclusion

This paper has empirically shown that capacity-building has immensely contributed to ARU's growth, diversification and contribution as an academic institution to the national development agenda. This has manifested in the form of increased student enrolment and staff with PhD qualifications, an expanded number of training programmes, research and publications, national and international links, and innovative research projects that contributed to improved public life. While these achievements have been partly facilitated by financial support from development partners, the Government played a key role in providing a conducive environment and financial support for programmes to materialise. Notable impacts emerging from these initiatives include the increased contribution of ARU in various national projects and programmes, increased national and international links and innovative approaches to addressing local community problems. For ARU to continue playing the key roles and survive as a viable national and international academic institution, the developed capacity has to be sustained and developed further through staff succession and increased financial and technical support to conduct research and disseminate research findings through community outreach.

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7. Declaration of Competing Interest

The manuscript's authors declare that there is no interest in conflict, and all reference materials were dully acknowledged.

8. Funding
None.

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Conceptual Analysis of Transformational Leadership Approach as a Productive Management Process in Universities

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Abstract

From all indications ranging from literature, observations and experience, the university system is faced with multifaceted challenges. Among these challenges are organisational conflict, student unrest, unethical politicking, and attrition rate. This problem has negatively affected university productivity and calls for attention. This study proposed the transformational leadership approach as an alternative to the university management process for effective productivity to answer the question: how can transformational leadership theory be presented as an alternative to effective management of the university system? This argument is located within the interpretive paradigm to guide the argumentative interpretation of the theory toward providing solutions to the challenges. The study presented transformational leadership theory and adopted conceptual analysis to interpret the approach and its assumptions and how they could affect the operating system of universities. The study concluded that the transformational leadership approach, through its assumptions (inspirational motivation, exemplification of moral standards and unity of purpose), is the best managerial approach to ensure unhindered university operations towards productivity. Hence, the study suggests that inspirational motivation, exemplification of moral standards and unity of purpose should be made a fundamental practice among the leaderships of various university departments.

Keywords: conceptual analysis, leadership, management process, transformational leadership approach, university productivity.

1. Introduction

Universities worldwide are faced with various challenges, among which are an increase in organisational conflicts, student unrest, power differentials, poor or lack of effective communication, and staff attrition, among others (Abiodun, 2014; Fomunyam, 2017; Htun et al., 2016; Odebode, 2019; White et al., 2011; Sadia et al., 2018; Samuel, Chipunza, 2013). According to existing literature, these problems have led to poor university productivity, such as distraction among university staff due to interpersonal conflict and indiscriminate closure of universities from student unrest. Furthermore, it has led to a break of productive relationships between subordinates and superordinates, poor communication flow in the system and loss of human resources as a result of staff migration (Ayatse, Ikyanyon, 2012; Arikewuyo, 2009; Kyaligonza, Kamagara, 2017; Laws, Fiedler, 2012; Rao, Wasserman, 2017). According to this study, all of these have been linked to the lack of effective management styles of various leadership positions in the university system,

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which constitute what is defined as the management process. In this study, university management or management process refers to the leadership's disposition and how the system is run. This is not far from what is defined as an internal mechanism or the ways of doing in the system (Francis, Imiete, 2018). The management process covers universities' administrative, leadership, politicking, and governance systems.

This perpetual monster affecting university operations is not continent or country-specific nor limited to a geographical location. For example, a study conducted in the United States shows organisational conflict exists in its university system (Min, 2017). Also, student unrest, one of the types of disputes in the university system, is a monster that has eaten deep into the fabric of African universities (Fomunyam, 2017; Nyamnjoh et al., 2012; Uleanya, 2019). In the same vein, the issue of staff attraction leaderships styles which could be linked to unethical power relationships also surfaces in a study conducted in Australia (Berman, Pitman, 2010; Marginson, Considine, 2000) while poor communication flow between the management and university staff constitutes one of the major reasons for poor productivity in Nigerian and United Kingdom universities (Fashiku, 2016; Kinman, Jones, 2008). In South Africa, the lack of university transformation and effective decolonisation of the system has become a significant issue leading to a serious conversation on how the university can be transformed and decolonised to ensure the production of employable and productive graduates (Holmberg et al., 2012; Sonalitha et al., 2021). This analysis shows that the ineffective university management process issues are not sectional and need a practical and non-sectional approach. Hence, there is a need for an approach that could solidify the managerial process of the universities towards overall effective and efficient productivity.

This article joins the host of transformational agitators towards ensuring a managerial process that could enhance the holistic development and productivity of the universities. This is expedient because the researcher's experience indicated that many university leadership and management processes are autocratic, inconducive, and demotivating, affecting employees' efficiency and effectiveness. This assertion is supported by Chukwusa (2018) in his argument that university leaders mostly result in autocracy in administrative endeavours, which may not go well with their subordinates, leading to insubordination. Furthermore, Alkhasawneh (2018) and Idiegbeyan-ose (2018) also confirm that adequate motivation is not provided for academic staff, which usually leads to system conflicts. Also, there are ambiguous communication processes in the passage of communication between and among the stakeholders of universities (Fakunle et al., 2021). Based on this, it is not out of place to argue the need for a better management system for universities' management structures such as faculties, units, centres and departments.

Therefore, updating the leadership styles of various units in the system is one way to improve and ensure effective and efficient university management. Since the idea behind broad levels of management is to ensure that all university operations positively affect/reflect on the university goals and objectives. In this perspective, university management includes academic managers, university leadership (represented by the university board), university personnel, and the university's central services (like the university registrar's office). Academic managers include deans, heads of departments (HODs), and all faculty staff. University leadership ideally represents the interests of the entire university community and its governing body – the Senate. For leadership transformation to occur, leaders need to know what happens at their leadership level and its implication for university productivity. Such awareness will enable them to be more effective in their duty dispositions. To address this, implementing a transformational leadership approach is imminent, thereby projected as an alternative to effective management of the university system towards efficient productivity.

2. Materials and methods

The study was grounded on the interpretive paradigm. Interpretivism believes that what people experience and learn from their experiences influences their understanding of the world around them through their subjective views (Cuthbertson et al., 2020). They describe this as a paradigm because it is not just a single theory or method but a way of studying concepts to understand different societal phenomena (Antwi, Hamza, 2015). Interpretivism seeks to explain how humans create meaning by applying personal thoughts to their world (Thanh, Thanh, 2015). The knowledge found by interpretations of concepts would then lead to a more extensive understanding of the phenomenon in different societies, for example, an organisation, a religion or a political system. Interpretivism has been used to explain culture, language and social interaction within forms of media such as literature and art (Ward Sr et al., 2022). Therefore, it describes how subjective experiences (researcher's views) influence people's learning about the world around them.

Additionally, the interpretive paradigm explains how an effective management process could be achieved from my perspective rather than testing theories with quantitative methods, leading to a broader understanding of these topics. This is consistent with Junjie and Yingxin (2022) argument that the paradigm believes that social reality is interpreted based on individual ideological positions. That is, transformational leadership theory was presented and interpreted based only on ideological views coupled with my experiences and knowledge of management.

Furthermore, to ensure a coherent argument, the study adopted conceptual analysis as a tool to analyse and interpret the theory for meaning-making. This analysis was appropriate because it allowed for clarifying ideas based on deductive reasoning. Concept analysis was appropriate in this case (Kendler, Neale, 2010). It is possible to use concept analysis to figure out the actual meaning of concepts and linguistic expressions (Novaes, 2012). This was accomplished by presenting transformational leadership theory, its ideas, premises, and making sense of the assumptions in light of how they might enhance transformational leadership toward university productivity. This methodological process was implemented below.

Presentation of Transformational Leadership Theory

Transformational leadership began with James V. Downton in 1973 and was developed further by James Burns in 1978 (Ladkin, Patrick, 2022; White, 2018). Researcher Bernard M. Bass extended the idea in 1985, adding strategies for assessing transformational leadership's success, and it became one of the most common leadership theories used worldwide (Hassen Yimam, 2022). According to these theorists, transformational leaders motivate others to achieve a goal while enthusiastic about the proposed goal or mission (Pawar, 2016; Stenling, Tafvelin, 2014). This set of leaders possess certain characteristics that make them unique such as being charismatic, intellectual skills, visionary, articulate in speech, humble with empathy, inspirational and motivational skills, integrity, self-confidence, risk-taking abilities, effective communication ability, expertise and knowledge, conflict handling skills or problem-solving abilities and finally, they can contribute ideas or suggestions to organisational goals and objectives (Button, 2003; Baroody, 2021; Fioravante, 2013; Guse, 2021; Reave, 2005). In line with this, Montaudon-Tomás et al. (2021) also argue that transformational leaders seek personal satisfaction from their work and do not expect recognition for their accomplishments. Therefore, transformational leadership theory seeks to understand the transformational leader's character and ability to connect with their subordinates and inspire and motivate them by creating a vision that they will share. Transformational Leadership Theory looks at how leaders influence others through motivation, change, growth, and creativity towards actualising organisational goals.

Transformational leadership is one of the most studied leadership models used in management practices today (Bass, Riggio, 2006). These transformational theories based their argument on the earlier theory called charismatic leadership. Early research on this topic was done by Bass (1985), who defined this form of leadership as the process of arousing employees toward the attainment of organisational objectives. That is, transformational leadership is based on a style where leaders can influence those around them by inspiring them to want to accomplish their goals. One can then argue that transformational leaders do not rely as much on power but instead uses inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and high regard for subordinates' personal growth to promote a group cohesiveness that leads to increased performance. This type of leadership is usually observed in business organisations, and it has been found that good transformational leadership leads to a better corporate climate (Erkutlu, 2008; Strukan et al., 2017). This further confirms that transformational leaders' main goal is motivating others to accomplish tasks while being enthusiastic about the task. This is based on the belief that followers will achieve more when positively committed to a vision or goal.

This theory is relevant in ensuring an effective management process in the university system because it creates an environment where staff members want to take responsibility, and management ensures they have the tools and resources needed. On the other hand, it also helps leaders create a corporate culture shared with common goals and leadership responsibilities outlined clearly to strengthen team spirit. My argument here is consistent with the definition of Bass (1999) and Avolio et al. (2004) that transformational leadership is a process in which managers and employees work together for mutually beneficial results by creating a vision and empowering individuals to embrace that vision. It is believed that leaders who use this type of power inspire leadership style, and their followers will do better than what would normally be done without the style. Since transformational leadership theory seeks to achieve a goal which is to see the subordinate or employees doing the best they can, it empowers both the leaders and followers (university staff) to be more than what they are capable of and aim for them to reach new heights in their efficiency. This may have informed Hassen Yimam (2022) finding that transformational leadership contributes to organisational success as it increases productivity, fosters commitment, aligns values, inspires creativity, and enables change where necessary. The below forms the assumptions that were deduced from the theoretical presentation.

Theoretical Assumptions of Transformational Leadership Theory

Based on the theoretical presentation above, one can deduce that transformational leadership is based on three major assumptions: inspirational motivation, moral standard, and unity of purpose. This is discussed in the following sub-headings: Inspirational motivation, exemplification of moral standards and unity of purpose.

Inspirational motivation: Deducing from theoretical presentations, leaders' motivation to inspire subordinates is important and constitutes one of its major cardinal points. This agrees with the argument that motivation is a good leader's weapon to ensure productivity (Masi, Cooke, 2000; Ratnaningtyas et al., 2021). In the same vein, findings showed a relationship between organisational performance and motivation (Tarliman et al., 2022; Usmany et al., 2022). That is, when employees are motivated positively, it will reflect on the performance of such a system. This is perhaps the brain behind the formulation of transformational leadership theory because it is premised on the motivation of stakeholders towards productivity, while motivation itself has been severally proven as the engine of productivity and performance of either employee and their organisations. The idea here is that positive motivation in organisation is an inspiration for the receiver to perform beyond expectations.

Exemplification of moral standards: The argument is confident that transformative leadership theory promotes and encourages moral behaviour within organisations. The theory fosters an ethical workplace environment with clear values, priorities, and standards of conduct. This is evident in its quest for good conduct and leadership by example (Timmonsa, 2022). This is considered an essential reason for organisational success because it builds team culture by getting employees to embrace a selfless attitude instead of self-interest. This kind of leadership provides coaching and mentoring while allowing workers/subordinates to take responsibility for their tasks. This kind of attitude promotes innovation and instigates leaders to remain on top of the job.

Unity of purpose: According to the theoretical presentation, it is evident that transformational theory routed unity among the organisational stakeholders. Leaders in this category are mandated to connect with their subordinates by creating a conducive organisational procedure that could make people stick to the organisation's vision. This could also be viewed as establishing productive relationships and collaboration among stakeholders to achieve common goals and objectives. This aligns with Lee and Esteve (2022) that a collaborative management system is good and should be encouraged because it enables people to work together towards actualising the system's set predetermined goals and objectives. In a nutshell, transformative leaderships preach that leaders should be conversant with how people could be made to work together towards a common goal.

The Relevance of the Assumptions to Management Processes in Universities

This section argues the relevance of the assumptions as it applies to the university leadership and followership relationships towards university productivity. This was presented under the following constructs: inspirational motivation and university productivity, exemplification of moral standard and university productivity, and unity of purpose and university productivity.

Inspirational motivation and university productivity

The above exploration has ascertained that the all-around motivation system inspires subordinates to want to do more towards actualising their goals and objectives. Such motivations in the university system include the provision of good working environments, recognition, commensurate remuneration, acknowledgement and respect (Biles et al., 2022; Hanaysha, 2016a; Hanaysha, 2016b; Oludeyi, 2015; Pitaloka, Sofia, 2014; Suleman et al., 2022). When these are adequate among university staff, there are tendencies for staff to be effective and efficient in their duties which will automatically translate into university performance and productivity. This is consistent with the findings that motivation in the form of rewards, good salary pay, respect and safety in the university system leads to staff commitment to duties and eventually contributes to the overall university goal (Iwu-James, 2011; Malik, 2010; Siregar, Suma, 2022). Furthermore, motivation was also a predictor of a peaceful university system. Therefore, when all subordinates, including the students, are provided with necessary stimuli, it will quench their urge for protest and other agitation. A peaceful university system will give ways to actualise its goals and objectives. Therefore, the transformational leadership approach inspires productivity in the university system through motivation.

Exemplification of moral standards and university productivity

From the above presentation and the assumptions of transformational leadership theory, the place of moral value and ethical disposition of leaders within a university goes a long way in achieving university productivity. This is not far from the popular definition of leadership to influence followers towards organisational commitment (Meng, Neill, 2022; Voon et al., 2011). Being honest and trustworthy could influence and make subordinates trust the leaders. Thist Tigre et al. (2022) that trust among organisational stakeholders predicts the level to which they can work and achieve together. This is also in consonance with the finding that moral and ethical behaviour among university stakeholders promotes dignity and values in the larger society (Rezaee et al., 2001; Tigre et al., 2022). The argument here is that the leadership of various departments in universities should ensure that their activities reflect the true ethical values set by the university. This is because it is likely to influence subordinates through leaders' dispositions of morals. Therefore, the transformational leadership approach, through exemplifying the moral standard, will enhance the actualisation of its goals and objectives.

Unity of purpose and university productivity

Owing to the analysis of transformational leadership theory, the place of unity of purpose is imminent and fundamental to university productivity. This unity is viewed from collaboration, togetherness, connections and relationships between departmental leadership and subordinates. Research has also demonstrated that collaboration among university stakeholders, working together towards actualising university goals and relationships devoid of power differentials, positively correlates to university productivity (Jung, 2012; Ponomariov, Boardman, 2010; Spicer, 2018). This is also in consonance with the recommendations that leaders in universities should influence their subordinates by bringing them together and recognising them by delegating authority and teamwork among them (Sanyal, Hisam, 2018). This will solidify staff commitment toward duty, and everyone will work unanimously. Therefore, one of how transformational leadership could be implemented in universities is to design ways for the unity of purpose among the subordinates.

3. Conclusion and Recommendations

The study established various challenges (organisational conflict, student unrest, unethical politicking, attrition rate, among others) that have affected university productivity. Using the interpretive worldview, transformational leadership theory was proposed and analysed as a veritable tool to mitigate possible hindrances to university productivity. Based on the analysis and subsequent arguments, the study concluded that inspirational motivation, exemplification of moral standards and unity of purpose are transformational factors that could transform universities towards actualising university goals and objectives. Based on this, it is recommended that leadership at all levels in universities should look into the beauties of transformational leadership theory and apply them to their management operations. Leaders should motivate and inspire their followers, lead by example and promote the unity of purpose.

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Exploring the Realities of Social Justice in South Africa: A Review of the Case of Rural Learners' Transition to Higher Institutions

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Abstract

Social justice is undeniably a significant pillar of democratic government, and it's pertinent to measure the post-apartheid achievements of South African democratic governments. This study explores the efforts to make education available to all learners at universities of their choice to eradicate ostracism and exclusionary practices that had permeated the apartheid era. Critical Race Theory is used as a theoretical framework to underpin this discourse analysis, while the study adopted the review method. The researchers argue that inequalities exist between rural and urban universities, as well as between rural and urban learners. The study affirms that learners from rural areas experience inadequate access to education and lack opportunities to attend better-resourced urban universities. This paper views social justice in a democratic system as equal access to social benefits and resources among citizens. Hence, the limitations of rural learners to rural universities and inadequate resourcing of rural universities negate social justice. In accordance with the realities of social justice, the education system should be accessible to all learners of the same quality at any university of their choice and equity of learning resources should be enhanced at learners' residences regardless of their human diversity.

Keywords: critical race, human diversity, realities, rural learners, social justice.

1. Introduction

Rural learners are usually marginalised in different ways considering the quality of education provided to them (Uleanya et al., 2020). According to Uleanya et al. (2020), the lack of the desired infrastructure needed for teaching and learning tends to affect the learning abilities of learners. These challenges have led to issues such as an increase in drop-out rates (Rakoma, Schulze, 2015). In the meantime, education is not supposed to be a privilege but a fundamental human right (Right to Education Initiative, 2021; United Nations..., 2020). This position implies that social injustice becomes the case where some learners are excluded due to their geographical position. Meanwhile, on the other hand, social justice is a significant pillar of democracy in any democratic country (Frattura, Tropinka, 2006). It serves as one of the measures for successful democratic governments.

According to Wilson-Strydom (2011), "the South African higher education policy context, since the early 1990s, has supported increasing and broadening access to university study as well as the promotion of social justice in the system" (p. 407). This claim that post-apartheid education

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policies have been made to correct the apartheid educational imbalances that restricted equity in education. Several policies have been enacted to promote the participation of human diversity. The policies and legislative reforms include the National Plan for Higher Education and the Education White Paper 3 (Bengu, 1997) to transform higher education. Thus, changing many structures and designs in the education sector. However, mass access to higher institutions in South Africa indicated that access to higher education is still unequally distributed among the races (Council on Higher Education, 2000; Mzangwa, 2019). This suggests the need to increase black learners' enrollment in higher education for equity (Council on Higher Education, 2000; Mzangwa, 2019). This implies that increased and broad university access translates to the realities of social justice.

The National Learner Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS) was established to effect social redress for poor students whose socioeconomic, racial background and other factors can limit them from accessing higher education (Soudien, 2010). Evidently, studies have shown that rural learners continue to experience social injustice in their access to resourced universities and learning resources (Dube, 2020; Hlalele, 2012). Seemingly, Dube (2020) states that rural learners are caught up in the digital divide that limits their full potential in learning experiences. In addition to the social-economic status of these learners, this digital divide hinders their effort to access higher education in their choice of universities.

The rationale for this paper is to explore the cause for social justice in South African higher education with the following questions: To what extent does social justice exist in higher education? What factors of social exclusion prevent rural learners from accessing equal education? What strategies can enhance equity in access to higher education? The researchers aim to contribute to the discourse on social justice in all higher education institutions and, most importantly, the rural learners who experience this gap and further open up new research spaces in this challenging terrain.

2. Theoretical framework

Critical Race Theory (CRT) is adopted into this study to understand social justice in post-apartheid democratic South Africa. South Africa has gone through a long phase of segregated systems that absolutely and significantly disadvantaged the blacks from accessing or benefitting from socioeconomic, political and education systems (Conradie 2015, 2016; Soudien 2010). According to Soudien (2010), Conradie (2015) and Conradie (2016), it is pertinent to dismantle the structural legacies of apartheid which includes socioeconomic limitations to equal access to South African universities. Similarly, Vincent (2008) and Erwin (2012) affirm that apartheid had significantly segregated the people into various unequal categories. Meanwhile, social justice in education can thrust South Africans together to negotiate this situation, notably since a great deal of difficult work towards equality remains to accomplish diversity in unity. Thus, the tenets of CRT provide deeper insights into the realities of social justice within the post-apartheid South African higher education system.

The CRT is a framework that provides deep insights into systemic inequality in racism and how this disadvantage some people based on racial descriptions (Leonardo, Porter, 2010; Sue, 2013). Scholars like Steyn and McEwan (2013) and Mattes (2012) noted that the inclusion of CRT into educational practices explains how apartheid experiences in South Africa are pertinently disadvantaged. To them, these educational practices show the racialised structure and how and why the dismantling of the structures in post-apartheid society is needed. Bock and Hunt (2015) opine that race should not be the basis of the social construct to disadvantage some people. However, Conradle (2015) agrees that races connote symbolic association with progress, order, and intelligence, but the impact on others should be discouraged. Conradle (2015) concurs with Leonardo and Porter (2010) and Sue (2013) that CRT is premised on: an approach to racism, the dismantling of racism prevailing ideologies, commitment to social justice and experiential knowledge. Though South Africa has undergone many post-apartheid transformations in different sectors, CRT states that racism must be erased in all forms; as racial hierarchy and discrimination still exist (Bonilla-Silva, 2015; Jain et al., 2011; Yosso et al., 2009). Hence, CRT seeks to dismantle the existing structural disparity and diverse interpersonal prejudice. These still manifest in the unequal distribution of wealth as well as unequal access to quality higher education driven by historical structures and "racialised" educational institutions (Cloete, 2014; Mattes, 2012; Slater, 2014; Vincent, 2008).

Studies affirm that racism persists in South African contexts, though not significantly pronounced. Still, the existing structures reflect some atoms of racial segregation in higher education structures where some resourced and under-resourced institutions are differently dominated by some citizens (Modica, 2012; Soudien, 2010; Steyn, McEwan, 2013; Verwey, Quayle, 2012). These wide disparities in the education sector affect learners' academic engagements and achievements in these higher institutions (Gillborn et al., 2012; Yosso et al., 2009). Soudien (2010) opines that learners' experiences at various South African higher education institutions are shaped by their race in these public institutions. Thus, CRT encourages appropriate and significant attempts to address and erase racial interplay that can disadvantage some learners in accessing quality education. Hence, CRT seeks to possibly dismantle all factors that can disadvantage some groups of people based on their racial descriptions.

3. Materials and methods

A literature review method was employed for this study. This was based on the notion that such a method allows researchers to explore, review and present various published works of other authors in a specific field. Thomas G. Carpenter Library (2021) states that literature review allows researchers to assess the recent trend of discussion on a particular subject matter. It also identifies the main topics in the area and main question(s) about a specific topic (Thomas G. Carpenter Library, 2021). Also, other related areas needing further investigation can be identified through this approach (Snyder, 2019; Thomas G. Carpenter Library, 2021).

3. Discussion and results

Additionally, according to Snyder (2019) and Lewthwaite (2015), a literature review for research, especially for the social sciences, allows critical appraisal of diverse opinions of various scholars on a specific subject matter. Hence, this study explored the works of different scholars on the realities of social justice in South Africa, as it concerns the transition of rural learners' from high school to tertiary institutions. Table 1 summarises the areas of pertinent scholars, search terms and review literature for this study. Following this, the findings from the study are discussed.

Table 1. Areas covered in the study and search terms

Area covered	Search Item(s)	Study
Rural learners	Rural learners and quality education, the Drop-out rate	Uleanya et al. (2020); Rakoma and Schulze (2015)
Education and Human right	Education: fundamental human right	Right to Education Initiative (2021); UNESCO (2020)
Social Justice	Social Justice Ideal Social Justice	Frattura and Tropinka (2006); Gerwitz et al. (1995); Hlalele (2012); Tikly (2010); Tsanoff (1956)
Theoretical Framework	Critical Race Theory (CRT)	Soudien (2010); Conradie (2015, 2016)
Policies	The South African higher education policy. Policies, legislative reforms cum transformation of higher education	Wilson-Strydom (2011) Bengu (1997)
Access to education	Access to higher education	Mzangwa (2019); Council on Higher Education (2000); Soudien (2010)
Factors hindering social justice in South African higher education	Poverty Educational Facilities	Du Plessis and Mestry (2019); Iwaloye et al. (2019); Uleanya et al. (2020); Misselhorn (2018) Geduld and Sathorar (2016); Koopman (2013); Bower (2010); Misselhorn (2018); Parliamentary Monitoring Group (2020); Uleanya and Gamede

	Lack of ICT knowledge	(2018); Mbatha (2016); The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996b), The South African Schools Act (Republic of South Africa, 1996a)
	Parental Backgrounds Loss of parents Learners as breadwinners	Ajani (2020); Cristobal-Fransi et al (2020); Dube (2020); World Bank (2020, 2018); Ajani and Govender (2019); Du Plessis and Mestry (2019); Mbatha (2016); Parliamentary Monitoring Group (2015); De Clercq (2013)
	Limited spaces at rural universities	Du Plessis and Mestry (2019); Uleanya and Rugbeer (2020); Lucier (2019)
	Medium of Instructions	Du Plessis and Mestry (2017); Mestry (2019); Malhoit (2005)
		Dani and Shah (2016); Ebrahim (2009) Jansen (2015); Hendricks (2012)
		Fleisch et al. (2010); Jansen (2015, 2012); McQuaide (2009); Spreen and Vally (2006); Seepe (2004) Dube (2020); Uleanya, Iwaloye and Gamede, 2020); Uleanya, Rugbeer and Olaniran (2019); Du Plessis (2017); The Constitution (1996); Phathutshedzo (2016);

The Ideal Social Justice

As mentioned earlier, social justice is a key concept in democratic governance. According to Tsanoff's (1956) view, the word 'justice' comes from the Latin phrase 'suum cuique', which is interpreted as "to receive just due". Seemingly, it has been explained further to mean the distribution of fair justice to all in all spheres of life. Others opine that social justice encompasses redistributing institutionalised structures to avoid marginalisation (Coates, 2007; Flora, Flora, 2013; Kose, 2009). Meanwhile, social justice is about equal justice for all, not only in the law courts but in all phases of the society, where every individual has access to equal opportunities and societal rights (Stronks et al., 2016). This implies that social justice should be fair, regardless of background, race, or cultural differences, in any part of society. This concurs with social justice theories that use diverse mechanisms to advocate and regulate equity in distribution and access to social arrangements and benefits for all citizens (Gerwitz et al., 1995). The ideal social justice draws strengths from Fraser's description of social justice as 'parity of participation' (Tikly, 2010: 6).

According to Fraser (2008), "overcoming injustice means dismantling institutionalised obstacles that prevent some people from participating on a par with others as full partners in social interaction" (p. 16). Furthermore, Gerwitz (1998) affirms that social justice aims to dismantle the structural arrangements that disadvantage and enhance the marginalisation or exclusion of some people using discriminative structures or measures. Conversely, Social justice ensures fairness and equity of all systems to accommodate individual respect, absolute care, fair recognition and just empathy. The theories of social justice insist on equal access to all socioeconomic benefits to all individuals in the same society as sensibility (Frey et al., 1996). Frey et al. (1996) posit that sensibility ensures that no form of discrimination, exclusion or segregation is allowed to thrive.

The ideal social justice drives democratic governments to eradicate diverse oppression, limitation and restrictions. The question then is: do South African higher institutions practice social justice in processes, institutional rules and regulations? Goldfarb and Grinberg (2002) state that the higher institutions in South Africa must alter many institutional structures and organisational measures to reclaim, appropriate, sustain, and advance equity and fairness of social benefits to the learners. Conclusively, Fraser (1997) also asserts that social justice seeks to improve equality and access to quality education and other social structures to deal with issues of marginalisation. The ideal social justice comprises principles of justice, classification of social resources, and expected distribution outcomes (Sabbagh, 2003). Hence, connectivity and responsibility for the distribution of social benefits or access to the structures are the basis for fairness and equality in social justice (Lloyd, 2000).

Conceptualising South African Rural Institutions of Learning and Learners

Defining ‘rural’ in the context of this study explains the ambiguity of the connotation. Sauvageot and da Graća (2007) opine that rurality describes human endeavour mostly in agricultural activities with meagre incomes. Rural societies and learning institutions vary from place to place (Flora, Flora, 2013; Uleanya, Rugbeer, 2020). They further consent that areas referred to as rural environments in developed nations differ from those of developing and underdeveloped nations. For instance, developed nations’ rural areas are majorly characterised by a lack of rail stations and airports (Flora, Flora, 2013). On the contrary, rural areas in underdeveloped and developing nations, including South Africa, are majorly characterised by a lack of good road networks, poor transport system, high level of illiteracy, high rate of unemployment, and poor health system (Uleanya, Rugbeer, 2020).

A review of the work of Uleanya, Gamede and Uleanya (2019) suggests that rural environments in underdeveloped or developing nations are characterised by spatial settlements, affecting how people access certain basic social amenities. South Africa is categorised as one of the developing nations, with 33 % of the population described as rural (World Bank, 2018). Hence, the rural environments share similar features with other rural areas in further developing and underdeveloped nations, especially as it concerns the African continent (Uleanya, Rugbeer, 2020). Thus, there is a high rate of unemployment, lack of development, high illiteracy, and high poverty level (Du Plessis, Mestry, 2019; Uleanya et al., 2019). Thus, in a quest to curb the high illiteracy, institutions of learning are being established in strategic rural areas across the nation. This concurs with the works of Gibson (2012) as well as Dani and Shah (2016), who hold the view that institutions of learning are established intentionally and strategically in specific rural areas in order to enhance certain desired development as well as help educate the people within and around such communities. This is with the aid of curbing the high level of illiteracy within and around the rural communities in South Africa. Meanwhile, according to Bookin-Weiner (2015), rural learning institutions are established in strategic locations to provide and help take care of certain peculiar needs of the people living within and around the communities while taking into cognisance of their peculiar nature. This is done through teaching and learning activities: the kind of education provided to the learners. Hall (2019) asserts in his reports that 11252 schools in South Africa are rural based, with 3060 as secondary schools while the remaining 8192 are primary schools. Most of these rural schools are majorly in Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, and Limpopo rural communities.

Additionally, the South African education system is designed to ensure that well-equipped individuals are produced to help contribute to various forms of development in the nation: personal, social, and economic (Allais, 2017). This is to be achieved in various areas of the nation, including rural communities. Thus, the reason for establishing institutions of learning in rural communities. Thus, according to Uleanya et al. (2020), rural-based learning institutions include institutes of learning situated in strategic local communities to enhance the desired development. By extension, South African rural learners are those studying in schools located in rural communities in South Africa. Similarly, in this study, rural learning institutions are secondary schools situated in rural communities in South Africa. Meanwhile, learners enrolled in schools in rural communities will be considered rural learners in this study.

Factors hindering social justice in South African higher education

A review of Uleanya et al. (2020) work suggests that how rural-based institutions are handled seems devoid of the required standard. Thus, the level of quality becomes questionable. This has led to various challenges hampering the learning abilities of the learner. Hence, the issue of social justice comes to play. Suffice it to state that learners in urban-based institutions of learning in the nation seem to get more attention, being taught following due quality standards. In contrast, their rural counterparts suffer from enabling environments capable of promoting quality teaching and learning activities. The reason for this has been attributed to poverty, educational facilities, and parental backgrounds, amongst others, as explained below.

Poverty

A review of the work of Iwaloye et al. (2019) indicates that poverty is a major constraint affecting teaching and learning activities in rural-based institutions of learning. Moreover, the level of poverty in rural communities is high (Du Plessis, Mestry, 2019). They further opine that poverty affects the level of quality education provided in rural schools in South Africa. Meanwhile, Misselhorn (2018) opined that poverty deprives learners of proper education. Misselhorn (2018) further states that poverty causes learners to drop out because they become demoralised following repeated attempts to succeed, which end in failures. Meanwhile, huge investments are being made by the government in basic education, precisely around 6.4% of GDP, but lack of accountability and poor quality teaching affect the attainment of quality education in rural areas (Misselhorn, 2018).

Conversely, Uleanya et al. (2020) considered the poverty trap as an issue of poverty affecting learners' learning abilities and consequently leading to drop-out. They state additionally that certain factors promote the poverty trap, which in turn hampers the learning abilities of learners. Such factors include malnutrition, physical environment, lack of necessary basic facilities, adolescent psychology, demotivation, and lack of aspiration (Uleanya et al., 2020). Suffice it to state that the South African government strives to ensure that funds are disbursed to schools to deliver quality education. However, factors such as lack of accountability, learners' level of psychology, lack of necessary learning facilities, and poor quality of teaching affect the provision of the desired quality education in rural schools.

Educational Facilities

Learning remains challenging without necessary basic learning facilities (Uleanya, Gamede, 2018). In other words, teaching and learning activities thrive, and learners' learning abilities improve academically when the necessary educational facilities are available. According to the review of the work of Misselhorn (2018), following The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996b), and The South African Schools Act (Republic of South Africa, 1996a), as well as related regulations and policies on equity indicate that all South African learners are expected to have access to learning and teaching. Thus, similar facilities and equal educational opportunities are to be provided for all learners regardless of where their schools are situated. Misselhorn (2018) further posit that this is not the case as rural schools are deprived of certain educational facilities.

Meanwhile, Uleanya and Gamede (2018) state that pedagogic malpractice is experienced when teachers fail to achieve the desired objectives for which the school was established. Hence, Bower (2010) conversely opines that the teacher must improvise where the necessary needed learning facilities are unavailable. The above argument suggests that the lack of educational facilities affects teaching and learning in rural institutions of learning in South Africa. This causes pedagogic malpractices as it affects their teaching abilities. Meanwhile, they are desired to improvise. Providing adequate learning devices such as laptops and internet data bundles creates equal access to education for all learners (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2020). Learners across South African communities should be provided with equal rights in accessing learning experiences as well as learning facilities (Geduld, Sathorar, 2016; Koopman, 2013; Mbatha, 2016).

Lack of ICT knowledge

The advent of the Fourth Industrial Revolution has integrated technologies and electronic devices into teaching and learning in the education system. Thus, learning has been made easily accessible to learners with no borders. According to Mbatha (2016), earners can access learning experiences from the comfort of their homes at their own convenient time. World Bank (2018,

2020) posits that online teaching and learning allows learners to acquire information, knowledge and skills at their own pace and spaces. However, most learners from rural areas are hindered by economic and social viability that can empower them with ICT knowledge and skills (Cristobal-Fransi et al., 2020). Ajani (2020) opines that most rural high schools that could empower the learners with technological know-how lack ICT resources that could be used. Furthermore, De Clercq (2013) states that in some cases where schools are provided with learning technologies, the teachers lack the necessary knowledge and skills to teach with the gadgets or train their learners in using these technologies.

Ajani and Govender (2019) affirm that regular training of teachers remains one of the effective approaches that can enhance teachers' classroom practices for imparting knowledge and skills to learners in all South African schools. Dube (2020) affirms that the pandemic lockdown led many universities to embrace full online teaching and learning. According to him, "COVID-19 has made online learning inevitable, and online learning is a practicable alternative to traditional schooling. Thus, there is a need for an inclusive approach that caters to rural learners' lived realities" (Dube, 2020: 139). Du Plessis and Mestry (2019) postulate that most rural schools lack adequate support or resources to provide quality education to rural learners. The learners are hindered in their further academic exploits compared to urban schools. This implies why the quality of the South African education system is poor in rural schools (Du Plessis, Mestry, 2019).

Cognisant to the report by the Parliamentary Monitoring Group (2015), rural education, a significant component of South Africa, is faced with social injustice and requires urgent redress. Thus, the World Bank (2020) asserts that only learners who are competent in technology know-how can use learning technologies effectively for teaching and learning activities. Lack of connectivity due to poor network services hinders learners from rural communities from accessing online teaching and learning activities. Some of these learners are also restricted from making online applications to access higher institutions or learning materials. Online assessments for these learners are limited and sometimes cannot be carried out due to a lack of connectivity.

Parental Backgrounds

Another factor contributing to social injustice in South African higher learning institutions is the parental background of learners (Uleanya, Rugbeer, 2020). While learners do not choose their parents, yet the level of exposure and academic qualifications of parents tend to affect and hamper the learning abilities and academic success of learners from rural communities. A review of the work of Uleanya and Rugbeer (2020) shows that learners from rural environments tend to be in disadvantaged positions following their parents' education level. Lucier (2019) opines that the case is worse if such learners are first-generation learners, the first to attain university education at home. This implies that they are likely to lack certain information and level of assistance due to their parents' academic achievement and level of exposure.

Moreover, rural environments are majorly characterised by a high level of illiteracy. Thus, the children of parents from such places are likely to experience such. In this regard, it implies that there seem to be some disparities between the parents of urban-based learners and their counterparts in rural environments. This shows some levels of social injustice. Other areas of social injustice concerning the parents of learners include the following: age of parents, unemployment level, single parenthood, orphanage, and learners as breadwinners. The age of the parents of learners influences their learning abilities. For instance, learners with ageing parents are more affected negatively than their counterparts with young parents. According to Du Plessis and Mestry (2019), parents' involvement in their children's academic pursuits influences their learning abilities and academic performance. Meanwhile, ageing parents' involvement in their children's academic goals is likely to be minimal compared to younger parents.

Loss of parents

With the loss of parents by some learners in the rural areas due to ageing, sicknesses, accidents or murder, primarily where these learners have been supported for academic pursuits by the lost parents, it becomes challenging for such learners to cope academically. This implies that many orphan learners who cannot access other financial means may end up abandoning their education or being unable to afford resourced institutions due to high costs (Malhoit, 2005). Seemingly, Mestry (2019) posit that parents play a pivotal role in learners' academic pursuits as they are supported with finance, emotional inspiration and encouragement that influence learners' academic performance or exploits. With the death of such parents, learners are depressed, and their hope of being educated becomes shattered, especially if there are no members of the families to finance their education. Du Plessis and Mestry (2017) opine that learners who lost parents during their academic years may experience a break or complete withdrawal from accessing university education at the parents' death if there is no support for them.

Learners as breadwinners

Ebrahim (2009) affirms that poor economic situations and demands for rural families due to several financial limitations have pushed many learners into labour markets or vocational activities to support their families to meet daily needs. This is a known challenge to many rural learners, and access to education based on their financial predicaments can only be made possible through NSFAS or other funding schemes that can be accessed. Hendricks (2012) posits that learners are taking it upon themselves to struggle and provide for some family needs to support their low-income families. These poverty traps do not allow these learners to pursue education further or limit their academic pursuits to institutions that accommodate their struggles and academic tasks. Jansen (2015) posits that the transformation of higher education in South Africa should holistically include socioeconomic factors for social justice. A review of the work of Dani and Shah (2016) suggests that breadwinners learners find it difficult to concentrate or even balance academic activities with work. Consequently, they quit academics to attend to family pressure.

Limited spaces at rural universities

Seepe (2004) posits that South African institutional policies on the admission of learners from high schools into universities need to be reviewed. The policies exclude or limit some learners from accessing equal education with their contemporaries in urban communities. Phathutshedzo (2016) affirms that the culture of higher learning institutions in South Africa needs to change to facilitate more access to the previously disadvantaged. He argues for radical approaches to effect necessary transformations to enable the disadvantaged access to fair and equal quality education. This implies that unequal opportunities among the segregated communities determine access to education in South African higher institutions. Jansen (2012) states that due to limited spaces in medical schools, learners are required to write the National Bench Mark exam to qualify for admission. This examination disadvantages some rural learners, especially those whose high schools are under-resourced, to prepare them for such tasks. Also, the application fees remain another approach to limit access to spaces at some universities (Jansen, 2015).

Conversely, Fleisch et al. (2010) assert that due to the low socioeconomic backgrounds of rural learners, they always prefer rural universities that can accommodate them. However, the rural universities' limited spaces prevent some from accessing university-level education. McQuaide (2009), in his longitudinal study in China, affirms that many rural universities have limited spaces that cannot accommodate willing learners who want admissions due to proximity and affordability. Admission policies in South African higher education institutions highlight social inequalities among learners from rural and urban areas (Spreen, Vally, 2006).

Medium of Instructions

Uleanya et al. (2019) state that the adopted language of instruction, consequently the medium of instruction, contributes to hampering or improving learners' learning abilities and academic performances. This also affects how they transition into higher institutions of learning. For instance, in many rural schools in South Africa, the adopted medium of instruction tilts toward local languages and practices (Uleanya et al., 2019a; Uleanya et al., 2020). Hence, transition to higher learning institutions by learners who have been taught majorly through local language may be problematic, especially when English or any other international language is adopted as the major medium of instruction. Basic education in most rural societies of South African communities uses indigenous languages for classroom instructional delivery. Consequently, using these indigenous languages poses challenges to rural learners who wish to access universities where English is the medium of instruction (Du Plessis, 2017).

Dube (2020) further posits that the use of indigenous languages in most rural basic educational institutions is to enhance learners' understanding of the curriculum being delivered in these schools; however, it promotes learners' fear of attending urban universities where the English Language is predominantly used as the medium of instructions. Thus, these learners are restricted to rural universities where indigenous languages are conveniently used. Although the Constitution

(1996) allows the learners to be taught in any of the South African official languages, including all the indigenous languages; however, some learners prefer to access university education where their own indigenous languages can be used for instructional delivery. Hence, the tendency is higher for diverse learners from different groups to pursue academic activities in universities with Multilanguage university environments without any language hindrance (Dube, 2020).

4. Conclusion

Many learners from most South African rural communities are consistently disadvantaged compared to their contemporaries in urban communities. Extant literature affirms that despite democratic governments in South Africa since 1994, learners from rural areas continue to experience social injustice in their access to quality education. The learners are disadvantaged from accessing equity in the education system due to several limiting factors. Implementing ideal social justice in practice remains the only approach to redress access to equity and equality in higher education institutions. This discourse affirms the use of ideal social justice in addressing the diverse complexities of rural learners in higher education. Education is a human right issue that should be taken seriously in a democratic system where all structural policies that exclude, restrict or disadvantage rural learners from learning opportunities are dismantled.

The study explored the issue of social justice in South Africa, considering the case of rural learners' transition to higher institutions. The study's findings show that several factors affect learners from rural schools to successfully transit to higher institutions following the quality received while in high school. Factors such as lack of adequate funds, poverty, teacher-related issues, parental qualifications and level of exposure, and medium of instruction affect the quality of education received by learners in rural schools. This affects such learners' transition from high schools to tertiary learning institutions.

5. Recommendations

In the sequel to the study's findings, the quality of education provided to schools in rural communities should be reconsidered. This can be done by thoroughly evaluating the available basic necessary facilities, teachers and their qualifications, available Learning Teaching Support Materials, and monitoring tools. This will help to aid the provision of the desired level of quality in the schools.

Relevant orientation programmes should be provided periodically to help learners in rural learning institutions acclimatise to happenings in higher learning institutions. This can be done by ensuring that orientation programmes are organised within and outside the learning institution. Rural schools should be attached to tertiary learning institutions to help oversee happenings. This will allow the tertiary institutions of learning to assist the rural schools in helping build learners that can easily fit into the activities of tertiary institutions of learning.

The study was limited to the review of relevant literature. Hence, it is suggested that a similar study be replicated using quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods.

6. Declaration of Competing Interest

The manuscript's authors declare that there is no interest in conflict, and all reference materials were dully acknowledged.

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Nexus between COVID-19 and Emotional Well-being of Teachers: A Position Paper

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Abstract

Since 2019, the coronavirus (COVID-19), affected global economies, resulting in a ravaging pandemic. Due to the infectious nature of the virus, schools, businesses, borders, etc., were closed to help curb the spread of the virus. Given this, world economies and governments gradually got back to normal with the manufacture and news of vaccines. Schools reopened after several months of closedown, and teachers had to find creative and innovative ways to cope with the "new normal". Therefore, this study looks at the nexus between COVID-19 and teachers' emotional well-being. Secondary data was used, and a conceptual framework was designed to help teachers cope with the novel coronavirus. Results showed the conceptual framework affirmed the nexus between COVID-19 and teachers' emotional well-being. It further stipulated ways and techniques to help teachers cope with the 'new normal.' This resulted in the use of e-learning platforms, flip classroom, blended learning and emotional intelligence, among others, by teachers of higher educational institutions as techniques and essential skills needed in this post-pandemic era.

Keywords: coronavirus (COVID-19), emotional well-being, teachers, position paper.

1. Introduction

In 2019, the coronavirus (COVID-19) affected global economies (Bamfo et al., 2020; Sarfo, Wilson, 2020; Ansah et al., 2020; Möhring et al., 2020). Due to the infectious nature of the novel virus, restrictions were laid on personal and social lives (Bamfo et al., 2020). Also, several governments took drastic decisions such as closing down schools, businesses, and borders to help curb the spread of the novel virus. Consequently, stakeholders in the health, industrial, agriculture and educational sectors were concerned about the impact of COVID-19 on livelihoods and how well the situation could be managed. Again, as put by Gorgenyi-Hegyes et al. (2021), most people lost their jobs, while others constantly feared job security.

Moreover, health facilities got overburdened as many people contracted the virus, especially during the second and third wave of the pandemic in 2021, thus, resulting in an imbalance in the emotional well-being of many employees. With this background, COVID-19 impacted several

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phases of life, including the economy, social lives and the well-being of individuals (Boohene, Amita, 2020). Conversely, normalcy is gradual even after the news of a vaccine for COVID-19.

Presently, the traditional ways of doing business which are coming into proximity with people are gradually fading out as new ways of rendering services such as “stay-at-home”, “work-from-home”, “working on shift basis”, “e-working”, “delivery” policies have been adopted by most companies (Bamfo et al., 2020; Ansah et al., 2020; Troll et al., 2020). This new turn of doing business comes with a new kind of stress and burnout (Troll et al., 2020). This is driven by excessive tiredness coupled with blurring work-life balance, suddenly adapting to new ways of doing business. Also, societal anxieties about the lack of a clear endpoint of COVID-19 consequentially result in a decrease in the emotional well-being of employees as a result of sudden coping with the “new normal” (Bamfo et al., 2020; Kara et al., 2020; Troll et al., 2020).

Previous studies have been conducted on the novel coronavirus disease; however, few studies have delved into the service industry (Möhring et al., 2020; Agarwal, 2021), particularly in the teaching sector on the stress emanating from this pandemic, especially in schools (Klapproth et al., 2020). Therefore, this study focuses on the nexus between COVID-19 and the emotional well-being of teachers: Helping teachers cope with the “new normal”. The study develops a conceptual framework and stipulates techniques and strategies to help teachers cope better with the pandemic.

2. Results and discussion

Teachers’ Emotional Well-being during COVID-19

Teaching is one of the most stressful professions to work (de Nobile, 2017; Gonzalez et al.; 2008). Teachers are responsible for dealing with themselves and their students to enable them to perform better academically (Addai et al., 2018; Adusei et al., 2016; Sarfo, Adusei, 2015). Thus, the news of the coronavirus outbreak brought a swift shift from traditional teaching and learning to remote learning, e-learning platforms, etc. Teachers were expected to support their student’s academic work and well-being whilst adjusting to the new normal way of doing things. Besides, earlier studies have shown that societal and organisational distractions negatively affect the well-being of teachers (Addai et al., 2018; Collie et al., 2015). With this new turn of events, there is more workload on the teachers as they swiftly have to cope with new strategies and techniques to help them continue the academic session amidst the coronavirus (Beames et al., 2021; Medina-Guillen et al., 2021).

Also, teachers need socio-emotional support to face the added pressure emanating from COVID-19 as teaching and learning continue in this pandemic (Cheng, Lam, 2021; Zadok Boneh et al., 2022). It was found that job satisfaction and stress are the main reasons teaching professionals to leave or stay in that field (Adusei et al., 2016; Sarfo, Adusei, 2015). Furthermore, Day and Qing (2009) claim that many teachers work in an unfriendly environment that is detrimental to their well-being. In many countries, students have returned to classrooms, and teachers have been called upon to make this return as smooth as possible (Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2021). Some teachers, especially low- and -middle income, have also shifted to online platforms to engage their students. Previous studies have shown how teachers use remote learning, blended learning, and e-learning platforms to help cope with this stressful situation (Aperribai et al., 2020; Ozamiz-Etxebarria et al., 2021).

Techniques and Strategies to Support Teachers

Several studies (Aperribai et al., 2020; Bush, 2021; Sánchez-Pujalte et al., 2021) have enumerated the essence of helping teachers cope during the COVID-19 pandemic. Recent evidence shows that if teachers can utilise personal abilities like EI, they will be aware and in control of their emotions (Soto-Rubio et al., 2020). Essentially, EI is the ability to recognise one’s own emotions and that of others and to manage those effectively to help guide one in thinking and behaviour (Salovey, Mayer, 1990). This ability is embedded with self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills (Goleman, 2005). Again, EI will help guide teachers to manage their emotions better. As stress, anxiety, and burnout take a toll on teachers, EI will help them better manage distressing emotions (Bush, 2021).

Furthermore, Teachers can cope with the “new normal” by adopting the remote learning strategy will help teachers and students continue with the academic sessions (Boohene, Amita, 2020). This way, teachers and students can be comfortable and safe in their own space as the instructional sessions proceed. Like remote learning, e-learning platforms can be utilised to support traditional teaching methods. Blended learning, combining both online and traditional teaching methods, can help minimise teachers' and students' health and safety risks. Also, with the flip classroom, students are made to participate in online sessions and research at home.

3. Conclusion

Our paper demonstrated the nexus between COVID-19 and the emotional well-being of teachers. We further suggested ways and techniques to help teachers cope with the 'new normal.' Governments and other education stakeholders should support teachers to cope better with the COVID-19 pandemic. Our paper has implications for future studies and teaching and learning practices within the COVID-19 pandemic.

4. Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors of the manuscript declare that there is no interest in conflict, and all reference materials were dully acknowledged.

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