VOCATIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS AND EXPECTATIONS: A ZANZIBAR, TANZANIAN SURVEY

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This thesis is dedicated

to

my Grandmother

'Bi Sungura'

ABSTRACT

This study attempted to examine the educational and vocational aspirations of Form III students in the three regions of Zanzibar Island (Tanzania). Data was collected from a questionnaire administered to 340 students from 14 different schools.

The data was processed by computer and eight hypotheses concerning the effects of gender, geographical location and socio-economic status were examined.

The results revealed: that educational and vocational aspiration was very high; intention to continue with higher education was associated with scholastic performance; but the level of education aspired to and the reasons for continuing with education, had very little relationship with the choice of jobs.

Aspirations were found to be higher than expectations, therefore, jobs expected tended to be lower in status than those aspired to.

It was also found that female aspirations both educational and vocational were lower than male aspirations. Females also indicated lower parental encouragement than did males. In the choice of jobs, females showed some measure of limited choice .... to teaching, nursing and clerical jobs. Males showed more understanding of the "reality" of the job market than girls.

Urban/rural differences were not very clearly observed, except with respect to parental encouragement. Urban students also showed a wider range in their choice of occupations. Comparisons of the three regions indicated that students in the North had higher educational and vocational aspirations.

Socio-economic status was found not to be very predictive by itself. However, certain effects were observed when region and gender were taken in conjunction with it.

Some explanation of the results was attempted and some implications were drawn.

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INTRODUCTION

The present Zanzibar school system began in 1971 based on the principle that every person is entitled to free primary and three years of secondary education, a total of eleven years of education. The change had two aims:

(i) to give equality of opportunity - in that all students would have at least a minimum level of secondary education,

(ii) to raise the school leaving age from fourteen to seventeen, so that by the time, the students left school they would be of employable age.

The type of education provided in this, the first cycle, is purely general, but also makes general provision for one-sixth of the school time to be used for "Education for self reliance". The skills provided in this part of the programme are supposed to build self sufficiency and self dependency when the students leave schools. Schools are free to select projects to promote the students and the schools self sufficiency and which are adaptable to their circumstances. The projects range from farming, poultry keeping, lime burning to fishing, depending upon the locality of the schools. Their success depends upon the initiatives of the teachers and the Heads. The projects in some schools have contributed towards the running and upkeep of the schools.

The outcomes for the students themselves are not so clear. All Form III students (except those in selected colleges) sit for an examination (set by the ministry) at the end of the third form. The examination provides them with a school leaving certificate. About 35 percent of those who sit for the examination are selected for further education (1,300 students were selected out of 3,800 in 1980). Less than 1% of the selected go to the commercial college for a two year course in secretarial and business studies. The rest go on to one year of general education to get a National Form Four Certificate which is recognisable as a qualification, in the world of employment.

With the provision of education to all children to the level of Form III, a number of unforeseen problems have appeared.

1. Because of the greater number of years spent in school, students and parents form higher expectation. Schooling in Zanzibar is associated with employment. The employer in most cases is the government, but the new leavers cannot be absorbed into government employment.

2. The three year economic development plan (1977-1980) provided for Form IVs and above but not Form III school leavers.

3. So far, in the change of the education system, the future of Form III school leavers has not been considered thoroughly enough.

In view of such problems the main concern of the present study is to investigate aspects of the transition of Form III students from school to work. In particular, issues concerned with the attitudes and aspirations of leavers towards education and job choices. Behind the inquiry is the thought that too great a discrepancy between expectations and actuality may be in neither the pupils' nor the country's interests.

For the study, a survey of thirteen schools in the three regions of Zanzibar Island was undertaken. The report that follows provides an account of the survey, the background to it and the results achieved.

Chapter one deals mainly with a review of the previous studies on school leavers and related factors. Chapter two discusses the research design. Research procedures are dealt with in Chapter three. The findings are presented in Chapter four, and finally Chapter five is concerned with a discussion of the results and possible conclusions.

CHAPTER I - REVIEW OF LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

The world economic crisis has caused unemployment problems of varying degrees in different nations. In the past two decades, attention has focussed, in particular, on youth unemployment (age 15-24). For developing nations, the problem is partly due to the countries' economic condition and partly to the stage of political growth and development. Furthermore, the situation has been aggravated by population increase and education expansion, which have resulted into a great output of school leavers at both primary and secondary levels.

Researchers have taken interest in school leavers and their transition from school to work because:

(i) the stage of transition overlaps a period when youths are entering adulthood. This is the stage when both psychological and social foundations that influence the shaping of their interests in educational aspirations and goals are cemented;

(ii) sociologists have begun to discover significant relationship between social background and access to schooling and work;

(iii) educators have come under critisisms over the relevance of education for the world of work.

Studies on transition of youths from school to work have been going on for sometime in developed western countries. It is only of recent years that researchers have become concerned over the problems of education in relation to youth unemployment in developing countries. For example, Blaug (1973), D'Aeth (1975), Dore (1976), Foster (1977) and Dreier (1982) have taken interest in analysing the education-employment/unemployment problems. Studies on youth's educational goals and vocational aspirations and expectations and the factors related have been conducted by Foster (1957, 1965), Peil (1967), McQuinne (1968), Olson (1972), Heyneman (1976), Currie (1976) and Oxtoby (1977).

Because developing countries are at different stages of development politically and economically and also different in their cultural

background, research is needed in these countries to get a better understanding of the problem of school leavers, schooling and development.

This chapter will review previous studies in three main sections: major educational trends and issues in developing countries and problems facing school leavers will form the first part of the review. Because of the emphasis given to in previous studies of adolescents and their entry to working life, educational aspirations and expectations will form the second section of the review. The third section of the chapter concentrates on occupational choice, aspirations and expectations.

Education in Developing Countries

In developing countries education is popularly regarded as a means for opening up opportunities for students and for exposing them to modernity (Barkan, 1975). Both outcomes are regarded with approval by participants and their parents. In his study of Ghanaian youths, Foster (1965) contends, that in practice, the demand for western education by Africans was predominantly a result of individual appraisals of occupational opportunities -- especially in the urban areas. Such appraisals tended to lead to aspirations that parents and students formed for their future wellbeing. Support for this is to be found in a study by Dubbledum (1970) on the primary school and community in Mwanza district in Tanzania. It revealed that parents tend to send their children to school with an expectation of what the children will be, or get when they finish school. The parents also hold expectations about how high up the educational ladder the children should reach in order to meet their ultimate goal.

On the other hand, the country's commitment to provide education is also seen politically as a means for meeting societies' manpower requirements for economic and social development.

Whatever the viewpoint, however, the dynamics of modern social progress have influenced the need for education. Dreier (1982) listed three problems facing developing countries due to the high status of the functions of education:

(i) education in its capacity as an essential economic function has a direct impact on production. This means that the development of education exerts considerable influence on all aspects of the activity and existence of modern social structures; this leads to

(ii) need for education for scientific knowledge, which enlarges the potential of education, and

(iii) in its social function, a contribution to self-consciousness of the individual and his evaluation of socio-economic and politico-ideological processes.

However, the extent of the demand for education appears to be attributable to the three reasons given by Coombs (1968) viz. (i) the mounting educational aspirations of both parents and their children, (ii) a new policy emphasis that saw educational development as a pre-condition for overall national development, and iii) the population explosion, which acted as a quantitative multiplier of social demand and the subsequent demand for provisions for formal education. The inter-active effects of these three forces account for the increase of enrolments in schools as well as the increase of output of school leavers. This problem has led to school leavers, either being unable to find jobs, or when they get into jobs having to lower their aspirations.

This situation which has been noted in many developing countries has led to a number of criticisms of education. Both Adeyinka (1973) and Foster (1968) writing respectively of Nigeria and Ghana, drew attention to the nature of increase in schooling and some of the consequences. They indicated that the bulk of the increase in unemployed school leavers tends to be concentrated at the six year level of primary schooling and four year level of middle schooling. At the same time job opportunities in modern sectors of the economy had not expanded sufficiently to absorb all the school leavers. Adeyinka and Foster both found that (i) school leavers considered that primary education was not helping them in getting jobs; (ii) those who went to secondary schools wanted more education to improve their chances to qualify for employment and better earnings. Whatever the circumstances, parents and students still hold firm beliefs that education is the only vehicle for modernity and a higher standard of living.

Blaug (1974) asserted that this second condition has been explained in several studies carried out in developing countries (Kenya, Mexico, Puerto Rico, Thailand, Republic of Vietnam). Hence, it is not surprising to maintain that the influence of the length of education and the educational aspirations of the students, can be correlated to the choice of occupation and occupational aspirations (Baldock, 1971; Williams, 1972), -- and therefore to have an effect in the nature of employment of society. Subsequently, the following section will examine educational aspirations and their influences.

EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATION

Discussions of educational aspirations emphasize the number of factors that influence adolescents in making their educational goals. In the present review, some of these factors will be considered. Ample evidence has indicated that social class is associated with socialization practices that promote differential levels of ambitions (Spenner and Featherman, 1978); accordingly the characteristics of a family of origin and the social influences that parents apply to their offsprings will be included for examination. The role of significant others is another aspect to be reviewed. Research has indicated that one tends to measure one's own potentials against others' expectations as mode of reference and with regard to others' expectations. In such cases, parental encouragement and attitudes as well as peer influences will be discussed.

Furthermore, discussions on youth educational aspiration had always been associated with occupational aspiration by examining the desire of the youths to continue with schooling. Earlier findings in both developed and developing countries (Oxtoby, 1977; Williams, 1972; Baldock, 1971; McQueen, 1968; Foster, 1965) indicated this trend. It has also been observed that the plans made for the future help to determine the extent of future education and also the type of education preferred, hence the following section reviews that.

Continuing Education

Evidence from a number of studies has shown that a majority of students favour the idea of continuing at school for a number of reasons. A study of Nigerian boys by McQueen (1968) yielded the following: (i) self-improvement; (ii) employment and a better job; (iii) altruism:

family and nation and (iv) getting money, prestige and influence. Oxtoby (1977) however, provided further evidence that plans and decisions to continue with school are related to perceptions of the subsequent advantage envisaged. This has also been confirmed by Moor (1976) in her survey of Newcastle (North England) school leavers. Most students did not want to continue school because they did not see future prospects open to them in their locality. However, Swift (1973) explained that sometimes students might opt to stay in school in order to decide their future plans and how they might make use of their qualification.

Though students, realise the importance of qualifications for securing jobs, some do not show any interest in remaining in school. Carter (1962) reported that in a follow-up survey, some youths, a year after leaving school, admitted that they had come to realize the importance of education in the world of work, but still did not have any interest of continuing with education.

The questions that remain posed then are, why do some students have aspirations while others do not, and what influences help in forming aspirations that are held? The next section attempts to examine these questions.

Influences of Educational Aspirations

Several studies about the influence of educational aspirations have been carried out in developed as well as developing countries. These studies have been based by and large on two common variables (used to measure influences and educational aspirations) -- home background and peer influence. However by contrast some studies from developing countries using the same two variables have come out with results that conflicted or were unclear. This led Heynemen (1979, 1976 a & b); Charlick (1978); Currie (1977); Holsinger (1977); Hansen and Haller (1973) to conclude that models used in industralized countries cannot be wholly applied in developing countries. Nevertheless, the following section will examine research on socio-economic background and parental encouragement undertaken in both developed and developing countries.

Socio-Economic Background

Most studies dealing with socio-economic background undertaken in developed countries, have used two measures. These are father's

occupation and the level of father's education (Doesaran (1978); Sewell et al. (1970); Sewell and Shah (1968a & b); Sewell (1957); Stephenson (1954). Some studies used only one variable. Nelson (1972) and Sewell and Shah (1968) for example focussed on parents' education; while Schwarzweller and Lyson (1974) confined attention to father's occupation. The same two variables have been used in studies in Ivory coast, Uganda, Brazil, Ghana and Kenya -- by Charlick (1978); Heyneman (1979, 1976 a & b); Holsinger (1972), Peil (1968) and Olson(1972) respectively. These studies concluded that it was not easy or clear cut to use socio-economic status as a variable in examining educational goals of youths in developing countries. The two measures of socio-economic status are discussed below.

Father's Occupation Studies which have used father's occupation as a base for socio-economic status usually classified the level of occupations into five categories: professions (highest); white collar jobs (divided into upper and lower); skilled; semi-skilled and unskilled (lowest) (Schwarzweller and Lyson, 1974; Kandel and Lesser, 1969; Sewell et al. 1970; Bordua, 1960 and Kahl 1953).

The assumption was that students who come from upper social strata would be more likely to have higher aspirations and therefore continue on to higher education (Wilson & Portes, 1976). This was confirmed by Kahl (1953) who showed that 83% of the sons of the major white collar workers aspired to go to college, compared with only 12% of the sons of labourers. The same had been demonstrated by Schwarzweller and Lyson (1974); Alexander and Eckland (1974); Nelson (1972); Sewell and Shah (1969) and Cohen (1965). In attempting to examine similar assumptions in developing countries Charlick (1978); Currie (1977); Hyenemen (1976a & b) were unable to produce similar evidence.

Parents' Education Another measure of socio-economic background as an indicator of education aspirations is thought to be the parents' level of education. Such an association should not be altogether surprising because evidence has also shown that there is a positive relationship between father's occupation and level of education. In similar vein, some studies have used mother's education (Baldock, 1971; Kendal and Lesser, 1969). The justification here is that usually mothers have more influence over their children than do fathers. Rehberg and Westby (1967) showed such an association. The contribution

made by Haller and Sewell (1967) reported however, that parents' education has influence only on the upper classes because of the value they place on education. It has far less effect at lower class levels. Nonetheless, Krauss (1964) found that parental education is very important in determining of working class boys' aspirations to attend college.

Similarly, evidence produced by Karmel (1975) indicated that in general, the higher the parents' education, the higher the students' aspiration for education.

Most studies in developing countries hinted that the question of parents' education seems not to matter very much in developing countries. It only indicates "something" when it comes to demonstrate better than average performances (Heyneman, 1979). Charlick (1978) on his study of Ivory coast students asserted that parental education is a measure of relative privilege in social origin, but his study used a socio-occupational scale (Ranking all occupations) as a measure.

Socio-economic background of students has been shown to predict students' aspirations. Baldock (1971) confirmed that whether social rank is measured by father's occupation prestige, status or income, significant differences are found in the aspirations of students from various social strata.

Though socio-economic background has been found to play a major role in influencing aspirations, nonetheless, research literature reflects that parents' attitude to their children's education is very important. This contention is examined below.

Parental Encouragement and Expectations

Studies have indicated that parental influences are important in raising the aspirations of their children (Scritchfield and Picou, 1982; Picou and Carter, 1976). Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf (1970) and Kandel and Lesser (1969) had broadly categorized parents, brothers, sisters and other members of extended families (adults) as "definers". Scritchfield and Picou (1982) defined the term "definer" as someone who, holding expectations for a youth's educational future, communicate these expectations to him (or her). In their study of white and black youths, they observed that parents formed 34% of all educational "definers" for white youths while it appeared to be less important for the black youths.

It had been assumed that students perform and act on the basis of what they are expected to do. An earlier study by Herriot (1963) noted that the higher the expectation perceived from significant others, the stronger the association between level of expectation and the youth's educational aspiration. However, the Haller and Sewell hypothesis (1969) that the greater the father's expectation of high achievement of his son, the greater the son's aspirations for education, was rejected.

A number of similar studies on parental influence have also shown that the frequency of encouragement given to students can either raise or lower educational aspirations. Rehberg and Westby (1967) indicated that their data suggested that parental encouragement comes close to being a necessary condition for the continuation of education beyond high school level. However, they disclosed that the interpretation writers usually make when respondents report "low encouragement" is probably partly a function of intelligence. This means that the higher the intellectual ability of the student the higher the sensitivity to encouragement and therefore the higher the aspiration.

Similarly Sewell and Shah (1968b) showed that parental encouragement appeared to have strongest effect on students who score relatively high on intelligence tests and who come from families occupying high socio-economic positions.

Cohen (1965) and Kahl (1953) both affirmed the importance of parental encouragement for student aspirations. Kahl's interview data (1953) reported that a clear and overt encouragement by either or both parents tended to influence sons to go to college.

In the same vein, Schwarzweller and Lyson (1974) produced similar results but the correlations between educational plans and parental interest were weak because their study was not explicit on this aspect. On the whole, however, parental influences have been found to be important in raising the aspirations of their children.

Peer Influence

Research distinguishes two types of significant others with respect to aspiration, viz.: adults and peers. That influence is explained in terms of "definer mode" and "modelling mode" (Scritchfield and Picou, 1982; Picou and Carter, 1976). The definer mode has been mentioned

earlier. Models are supposed to influence mobility orientation by serving as a basis of emulation.

Review of previous studies, Kandel and Lesser (1969) commented that most of the studies had been concerned with the influence of school values and climate on the behaviour of adolescents but rarely with specific plans and attitudes of the adolescents and their friends. Alexander and Campbell (1964) and Haller and Butterworth (1960) investigated matched pairs of adolescents in schools. The first study concluded that similarity in college plans is greater when choice of friends is reciprocated. On the other hand Haller and Butterworth found the opposite.

Duncan et al. (1969) built a model for clarifying the previous findings. They used the same hypothesis as Haller and Butterworth which was to test the influence of interactions within peer groups on levels of educational and occupational aspiration. Their findings supported the results of the original study. The relationship was weak and hence the findings were regarded as not conclusive. However, some studies emerged with positive results (Cohen, 1976; Hank & Eckland, 1976; Picou & Carter, 1976). Kraus (1964) found that 81% of working class students who reported that all their acquaintances were going to college had similar plans. Only 10% of working-class students without a college bound friend expected to go to college. Similarly, Ide et al. (1981) reported that peer influence is a strong and consistent determinant of a wide range of educational outcomes for elementary and high school students. They also found the strength of the peer influence-outcome relationship to be significantly higher in urban settings and also higher where peer influence was determined by having individuals report the achievement levels of their best friends. Opposite results were observed by Picou and Carter, (1976) and Hansen and Haller (1973). Their findings indicated that peer model behaviour was greater for aspirations of rural youths than urban ones.

Previous studies have indicated that parents, other relatives, peer friends and teachers (in that order) emerge as the most frequently mentioned categories of others consulted by adolescents in setting their ambitions (Currie et al.1976; Alexander & Griffins, 1975; Haller & Woelfel, 1972; Williams, 1972). Such studies have found that parents and peers are the strongest source of influence on aspirations. Because

of this, other studies compared peer influence with adult influence. They found that peer influence was less powerful and not as important as adult influence (Saritchfield and Picou, 1982; Williams, 1972). However, when comparing the influence of friends and mothers, Kandel and Lesser (1969) reached the conclusion, that unless both friend and mother have the same values and have similar ideas and views on future plans, adult influence will transcend peer influence.

The evidence in most of the previous studies indicates that there is a need for taking into account a number of variables, in order to study peer influences. These are social backgrounds of peers; influence of parents; the reciprocity of the pair; school setting; interaction between the students in the school; academic achievement and the way the pair and parents perceive school. In general, several studies have shown that the above variables when put together, help in forming student attitudes towards schools which in turn tend to affect educational aspirations. With that in mind attitudes of students towards school will be examined below.

Attitudes to School in relation to Educational Aspirations

It has been suggested in a number of studies that as well as the way students view schooling, the structural features of the school can influence educational aspirations. Baldock (1971) found that the internal structure of the school, as reflected in the curriculum, school facilities, educational specialization, the ability of the teachers and the social class composition of the school, are all partly responsible for the students' aspirations.

Other findings indicate that it is not easy to study the aspirations of students by using attitudes towards school as a variable, hence relationship cannot be easily discerned. Students do not tend to show positive or negative attitudes so openly. Generally they tend to show indifference. Raby and Walford (1981) confirmed this and indicated that students rarely reveal anti-school attitudes. However, Swift (1973) suggested that even if students have unfavourable attitudes, they can be changed by a supportive school environment.

The studies of Carter (1962) and Husén (1979), gave two opposing views. Carter found that over half of his respondents either liked school on the whole and enjoyed it in a positive way or they did not

think it so bad. Contrary to this view, Husén (1979) indicated that there is an increasingly negative attitude towards education in industrialized countries. He also hinted that students in developing countries showed a much more positive attitude towards school.

Generally, it is assumed that positive attitudes are related to good performance and hence, to having higher aspirations and going on for further education (Wilson & Portes,1976). The basis for this assumption is so far still not clear, especially in light of some findings that high aspirations do not necessarily coincide with the reasons for wanting to continue schooling. Kahl (1953) found that his sample showed intention to continue at school not out of affection for it, but because of prospects of getting a better job. Swift (1963) on the other hand, obtained the opposite results.

It is considered that some students have positive attitudes because of the type of curriculum they experienced or the pleasure they got from learning. Kahl's (1953) interviews with students, however, revealed that none of his subjects was interested in learning for the pleasure of it, or because of success at it. Future prospects featured as the main reason. Carter (1962), on the other hand, showed that some students liked school mainly because they enjoyed the lessons and were competent.

It has been suggested that student views on the relevance of education to the future, determines attitudes towards schooling. Carter's analysis of his interviews (1962) revealed that students look upon education as a "good" thing, because they will get good jobs. Kahl (1953) also came out with similar findings, viz., that students who are serious and who believe in getting "ahead" seem to take school seriously compared with those who believe in just "getting by".

In many cases even given high aspirations and positive attitudes towards school, students are not always too sure -- especially when the time comes to consider "reality". It has been noted that there is a discrepancy between educational aspirations and the expectations. It is in order to show the relationship between education aspiration and the choice of occupation, education expectation should be considered first. The following section will discuss that.

Educational Expectations

Quite a volume of literature exists to show how youths can drop their fantasies in the face of reality. It also shows that the majority of students have very high aspirations and plan to continue with education. Karmel (1975) contended that as students go up to higher grades, they tend to lower their aspirations and form expectations which are in line with reality.

Studies of German students by Hansen (1977) and of Canadian school leavers by Williams (1972) hypothesised a relationship between academic performance and educational plans. The hypothesis that those who perform well academically would have high aspirations in education was rejected. The studies established that even the academically capable generally lower their aspirations when they come to realise the opportunities open to them are

In his study of Ghanaian boys, Foster (1964), partially supported Hansen's and William's findings, and also drew conclusions about other factors which can play part in educational aspirations and expectations. For Ghanaian students, it has been found that academic achievement is not the only factor influencing the processes of educational selection beyond fifth form; it is the opportunity to enter the right secondary school. Equally as important are sex and family of origin.

Finally, previous studies have indicated that the interrelationship between educational aspirations, expectations and the type of jobs the students will get into is very important at the stage of transition of youth from school to work. Hence the following section will deal with occupational choice and factors relating to choice.

OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE

Irrespective of the level the students will reach in their education, generally they form occupational choices while still in school. It has been observed that the choices made by adolescents regarding their vocations are determined by a number of factors. The most important of these is the type of job option available at the particular time (Raby and Walford, 1981; Roberts, 1974; Baldock, 1971).

For sometime there has been a belief that decisions which students make regarding their occupational choice are determined by the school (specifically the curriculum to which they are exposed). This was refuted by Foster (1965), who claimed that it is the result of other determining factors, mainly opportunities provided by the jobs available. Roberts (1974), Veness (1962) and Liverslidge (1962), however, showed that the school also plays a part, especially when different types of schools (Grammar, Technical, Modern Secondary) are taken into account. Students from different schools tend to show interest in particular kinds of jobs. Even so, the determining factor is the local conditions.

Mention was made earlier, that education in developing countries tends to be regarded as an investment for an individual, and a path to modernity for a society. One could infer from that statement that occupational choices of students would tend to be based on jobs with high income and prestige. Empirical evidence provided on Nigerian school leavers, by McQueen (1968) and by Foster (1965), on Ghanaian youths showed that high income and prestige are not the only factors influencing choice. Opportunities for modernity and other incentives have effects also. A study of 98 New Zealand boys by Ausubel (1961), also indicated that prestige was rated as the lowest factor influencing choice of occupation.

The findings of Powell and Bloom (1962) similarly confirmed that prestige was not necessarily the prime motive for occupational choice. However, they had also based their study on the assumption that a third factor - the role of culture played a greater part in influencing job selections for boys and girls. For example, girls, they believed would select jobs like nursing and teaching in accordance with conventional cultural roles. The authors however concluded that students were not aware of such cultural roles when selecting jobs. Herzog (1982), Sinclair, Gouch and Millar (1977) made similar observations of the role of culture.

The salutory conclusion reached by Powell and Bloom (1962) is that youths make selections unintelligently because they lack knowledge of vocational fields, and are also unaware of motives for selecting vocations. A similar view on lack of knowledge of vocational fields was expressed by Nucklos and Banducci (1974) and De Fleur and Menke (1975).

Though there is a measure of inconsistency in the research findings that occupational choice of students or school leavers is solely a matter of chance, however it is not warranted. Findings from a number of studies have indicated that just as students have educational aspirations, similarly they also have vocational aspirations. Furthermore, strong relationship between educational and vocational aspirations have been reported. The following section will review that relationship.

VOCATIONAL ASPIRATION

Relationship between educational aspirations and vocational aspirations

As a starting point it may be assumed that the level of education one aspires to reflects occupational aspirations, expectations and hopes. Research of the linkages between these has been going on for a considerable time. However, Ikeda (1969) asserted that relationships between the kinds of aspirations or plans might be more complex than is often assumed.

Surveys of young people's aspirations show that education is regarded primarily as a means for preparation for a job and for acquiring high status in society. Accordingly, students go on with school for lengthy periods. Kahl (1953) found that boys who had clear occupational aims, also had plans for education that would appropriately prepare them for the jobs of their choice.

Other reports seem to suggest that the majority of young people have no clear fixed occupational goals and are neither aware of the occupational opportunities open to them. For example, reports by the OECD (1977) considered that young people's academic orientations are largely predetermined by factors which are beyond their control and even that of their parents. Accordingly, it is not easy to discern the true nature of relationship between educational aspirations and occupational aspirations.

However, a relatively strong relationship in one respect has been indicated by Husén (1979) and Swift (1973). Students who have clear aims and aspirations for certain types of jobs tend to stay in school longer, to reach their aspirations.

Regardless of all the complexities of educational and vocational aspirations, scholastic abilities of the students have been regarded as

a crucial factor. Baldock (1971) found that students who were in the top stream because of their scholastic abilities are most likely to aspire to university training and to a professional career.

Although it has been shown that the association between educational and vocational aspirations largely depends upon scholastic abilities and academic performance, nonetheless, students do develop their vocational aspirations while still in school. The next section attempts to examine that.

Development of Vocational Aspirations and Choice

Even though students might not have a clear idea of the opportunities open to them, generally they have an idea of the occupation they prefer most if they were in a position to choose. As has been noted, the choice of occupation is generally characterized by the opportunities offered by the society.

Researchers on occupational choice of students and entry into working life have contended that choosing occupations is not a one stage process but a developmental one. Ginzberg reviewed by both Moor (1976) and Baldock (1971) divided the process into three stages:

(i) period of fantasy

(ii) period of tentative choice

(iii) period of realistic choice

Each stage depends on the pupils' level of maturity and opportunities offered by the environment.

In outlining the stages of vocational development for their study, Super and Jordaan (1973) emphasized the same stages as Ginzberg but with more elaboration viz.:

(i) stage of fantasy

(ii) stage of interest - this is a stage when likes are the major determinants of aspirations and activities

(iii) stage of capacity - a stage when abilities are given more weight and job requirements (including training) are considered.

Both Ginzberg and Super and Jordaan emphasized that vocational maturity and environmental factors have effects on vocational choice. Similarly, in attempting to explain the process of vocational choice, sociologists have also paid attention to environmental factors. In developing propositions for the entry into employment as a sociological problem Roberts (1968) differentiated two processes (i) the placement of school leavers in their various roles with the occupational systems, and (ii) their acceptance of the new roles as workers in specific occupations. In proposing these he put forward what he termed an "opportunity structure model". This model, he contended would take into consideration different social contexts and identify factors that determine the manner in which occupational role allocation and socialization take place. Thereupon he specified certain factors. These are the type of schools the individual attended; individual educational attainment; the type of home from which he comes and his social contacts. The present review will examine the influence of the last two, i.e. social class background and reference group behaviour.

Role of "Significant Others" in Occupational Aspiration

In reviewing the literature, Spenner and Featherman (1978) indicated that a fruitful approach to the explanation of differential ambition has been the assessment of the goal specific influence that parents and peers (as significant others) exert on one's aspirations.

The research literature reflects that just as the socio-economic position of parents can influence educational aspirations so similarly can it influence vocational aspiration. Positive correlations have been shown in a number of studies (Raby and Walford, 1981; Moor, 1976; Picou and Carter, 1976; Baldock, 1971; Veness, 1962; Sewell et al. 1957; Kahl, 1953).

Individual studies have looked at the factor by using different variables. Baldock (1971) claims that whether rank of father is measured by his occupation prestige, status, or income, significant differences are found in occupational aspirations of children from various social strata. Normally this is the result of parental expectations for the children and also the level of mobility aspired to. Rehberg and Westby (1967) suggested that parents who are better educated and hold more prestigious occupations, generally display more positive values about

their children and hence their mobility. They also set higher career goals for their children.

The idea that family does exert an influence on career choice has also been investigated by Moor (1976) and Powell and Bloom (1962). The influence, they concluded is the result of discussions held by families, and thereupon passed on to children. It follows then, that the youths are exposed to the jobs related to the people immediate to them. It is not a surprise then, that investigations report that youths select types of occupations similar to their parents. Stephenson (1967), Ezell and Tate (1957) and Kahl (1953) observed this trend.

In Ghana, Peil (1968) noted similarly that youth communicated about jobs with their friends. She quoted Lloyd's (1968) conclusion that aspirations that were held by elite African children grew from the knowledge of elite occupations gained from parents and their parents' friends, while children of illiterate parents had very much narrower fields of view. Heyneman (1979) discounted the idea that mobility aspirations of Ugandan students was related to parental social background. He declared that the most powerful predictor of occupational attainment was the child's performance in school. Similarly, Currie (1977), concluded from the findings of her study that (i) achievement variables are greater than ascriptive ones in determining occupational status among Ugandan secondary school graduates, (ii) father's education and occupation affected occupational status through its effect on respondents' educational attainment but (iii) it did not directly affect occupational status.

Apart from being influenced by parents, it has been noticed that students do tend to have the same plans as their peers, provided aspirations correspond with an adult reference, like parents and teachers. Nevertheless, Raby and Walford (1981) asserted that the influence of peer groups on vocational aspirations has been overestimated. Evidence from the study suggested that for mid and low ability students, the home environment is the dominant source. Haller and Butterworth (1960) also reached a conclusion that there is a level of occupational aspiration among peers, but a weak one.

Finally, the point can be justifiably made, that so far, the evidence for peer influence has not been found to be thoroughly conclusive. Furthermore, parental social status has tended to supercede peer influence

and hence affect occupational aspirations. However, a comment made earlier that occupational choice and aspirations are largely determined by environmental factors cannot be overlooked. Thus, the following section will attempt to examine how the opportunities provided by the environmental factors change students' vocational aspirations and expectations in the face of reality.

Vocational Aspirations, Expectations and Reality

Findings by Stephenson (1955) have indicated that students' occupational aspirations and plans do not necessarily reflect the occupational needs of the community. Oxtoby's study (1977) on Carribean boys showed that hopes and plans were concerned primarily with their own needs to secure employment, and not with community needs.

A number of studies have found that students have high aspirations and tend to aim at getting professional and white collar jobs (Foster, 1977; Oxtoby, 1977; Ikeda, 1976; Baldock, 1971, Powell and Bloom, 1962).

Next to white collar jobs comes an emphasis on skilled jobs. Agriculture is selected last by most students. Studies in developing countries by Oxtoby (1977), Foster (1977) and Adeyinka (1967) have yielded results similar to those achieved by their counterparts in developed industrialized countries. A large proportion of students aspires to professional and white collar jobs. Not many aspire to farming. For example, only 0.28% of Nigerian boys in Adeyinka's study (1968) wanted to be farmers.

Reasons for this have been sought. Oxtoby (1977) rejected the oft-quoted assumption that young people loathe manual work. Foster (1964) reached a similar conclusion. It had been suggested that young people in developing countries reject farming not because of the manual work or lack of prestige, but because of the lack of reward in terms of income expected.

Notwithstanding all this, the findings of Foster (1964) showed that students prove to have few illusions as to the kinds of occupational opportunities open to them. That implies that what occupations students aspire to are not necessarily those they expect to enter. Two factors contribute to this. The first, is that students realise that expectations and preferences have to match their educational attainment. The second

factor is the relationship that exists between the preferences and the likely employment open to them. Therefore, when it comes to identifying expected jobs, their rating of jobs is lowered. Veness (1962) observed that most of the students select ordinary types of jobs which show that they are aware of reality.

Other investigations have shown that discrepancies found among school leavers exist not only between their aspirations and expectations, but that the situation is more complex than that. When it comes to actually entering the job market, a number of school leavers find themselves with prospects either lower than expected or even without the prospect of a job at all. Adeyinka's findings (1968) revealed that the expectations of the school leavers were not fulfilled in most cases.

DIFFERENCES IN THE EDUCATIONAL-OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

In a number of studies of youths and their aspirations, particular attention has been given to the differences among different groups, and the reasons behind these differences. The focus in this part of the review now falls on (i) male-female differences and (ii) residential differences (urban-rural).

a) Male-Female Differences in Educational Aspirations: Differences in the results from studies of sex differences on educational goals and attainment are surfacing with the passage of time. Research has been undertaken in relation to socio-economic background and academic capability. Sewell and Shah (1967; 1968a & b); Bordua (1960); Stephenson (1957) and Ezell and Tate (1955) all found that socio-economic background has a greater effect on the educational aspirations of females than males. It is the opposite for the academically capable. In their earlier study Sewell et al. (1957), showed that at all intelligence levels, females from high status families are more likely to have high levels of educational aspirations than are females from the lower status families. When the two variables are combined as measures of education aspiration, the results reveal that boys have greater ambitions than girls (Marini and Greenberger, 1978).

Finn, Dulberg and Reis (1979) in their cross national study found that on the whole, female educational aspiration is low. In quoting

Taehan (1974), who investigated lower and middle class black students, they found that socio-economic status does not affect females significantly because women regardless of socio-economic background are discouraged. They also noted Smock's study (1977) that expectations of African girls are generally low. Only 8.5% of the University enrolment in Ghana is female. This supports Alexander's and Eckland's (1974) study. They asserted that sex-role definitions of society must be considered in accounting for generally low female aspirations.

Marini and Greenberger (1978) indicated that differences in male and female goals have narrowed. Similarly Rosen and Aneshensel (1978) indicated that norms surrounding educational attainment have changed, while Williams (1972) and Gaskell (1978) contend that sex differences on educational aspirations depend on the value within society placed on educational attainment for the sexes. For education expectations, Rosen's and Aneshensel's findings (1978) showed no significant sex differences in levels of education.

Studies have measured aspirations in terms of intent or desire to continue with schooling. Karmel (1975), found little difference between males and females in that respect.

Education aspirations have also been measured through studying attitudes towards school. Fitt (1965) indicated that girls have more favourable attitudes to school than do boys. On the other hand, Kniveton (1969) suggested that children's attitudes towards their schooling are by no means unitary. Nonetheless, though his results showed no significant difference between boys' and girls' responses about liking school, there was, however, a significant difference between them in interest in specific subjects and personality development. The boys' attitude being more favourable than the girls.

b) Male-Female Differences in Vocational Aspirations and Expectations

Differences have been found between males and females in their educational aspirations and expectations. Can these differences also be observed in the vocational aspirations?

Practically, all the previous studies have suggested that patterns relating to sex typing of work have remained constant for a period of time and do not seem to be changing rapidly. Conclusions have been

drawn that practices and preferences of males and females have remained constant over time (Snyder et al. 1978; McLaughlin, 1978).

Leuptow (1981) conducted a study on the changing occupational choices of high school seniors between the year 1964 and 1975. He made the basic assumption that changes in sex-roles over the period would mean that choices by both boys and girls would be less sex typed in 1975 than in 1964. The findings indicated that about 60% of both sexes expected to enter the preferred, sex typed traditional occupations. The concentration of female choices on sex typed occupations was very high in 1964. Then, four-fifths of the females planned to enter one of the twelve occupations in which the overall percentage female saturation was 88%. By contrast in 1975 female saturation of these jobs had dropped. It was also observed that in 1975, proportionately, more women wanted to get into male dominated jobs than was the case in 1964. However, only 7.0% of males wanted to enter female dominated jobs by 1975. Similar trends had been observed by Garrison (1980). Garrison's findings suggested that career choices of high school males and females were becoming more similar over time. The most important trends are (i) that male aspirations for high status jobs are declining while (ii) female aspirations are rising dramatically thus lessening gender differences in choice. Both these studies showed that females have come to aspire more for professional and white collar jobs but do not show aspiration for skilled trade jobs. However, it seems that female aspirations seem to be changing (Aneshensel, 1978; Tangri, 1972).

Several issues have been observed, in relation to sex differences. A number of studies have examined the types of jobs aspired to and expected by each sex group. The findings have revealed that females tend to cluster their aspirations and choices round a few traditional jobs like teaching, nursing, social work and routine office work (Rosen & Aneshensel, 1978: Bogie, 1976; Karmel, 1975; Burnett, 1975; Foster, 1964; Veness, 1962; Stephenson, 1955; Ezell and Tate, 1955). For women who tend to choose non-traditional jobs, it seems, they do that because they have high academic achievement, personal interest, do not conform to peer influence and tend to have educated mothers (O'Donnell & Anderson, 1978). Early (1981) suggested that this career aspiration of girls is limited by the social pressure which is placed on girls, particularly at school and from parents to move into traditionally female occupations.

Schools play a significant function as agent of sex role socialization perpetuating a cultural notion of femininity and masculinity.

Some studies have shown that males have higher aspirations than females and also possess different values. Marini (1978) clearly showed that occupational aspirations of adolescents are sex typed and young men and women value different aspects of jobs. Williamson (1977) revealed that boys aspire towards professional careers three times as frequently as do girls. These aspirations are in terms of status and income (Perrone, 1973); responsibility and success (Veness, 1962). Herzog (1982) asserted that when planning for a job, females emphasise more on contact with others and helping others while males think more of material reward. Specifically, females attribute less importance than males to status, income and potential for advancement.

In studying expectations, Bogie (1976) found that though youths' initial aspirations are very high, they usually tend to lower their expectations. The same was observed by Liverslidge (1974). Bogie's analysis revealed that this discrepancy (difference between aspired job and expected job) occurred with less frequency in males than females. For males, aspiration-expectation discrepancies vary inversely with family socio-economic status, mental ability and scholastic performance. The only variable clearly associated with aspiration-expectation discrepancies for females is socio-economic status. Rosen and Aneshensel (1978) found that both males and females tend to have sex typical occupational expectations. Males tend to concentrate on sterotypically masculine categories, of executive, professional and skilled manual which is not the case for females. Sinclair,Gouch and Millar (1977) found that girls' expectations tend to centre around three occupational types: personal aid, social aid and white collar jobs. Seventy five percent of the girls in their study expected to enter these, compared to 24% boys. Boys' expectations centre around scientific/technical occupations and craftsman occupations (50% compared to 8% girls). The study suggested that girls are more decisive than boys and that the two variables, social class and sex play a part in influencing occupational aspirations and expectation.

Urban-Rural Differences

Differences between urban and rural youths can be examined together in respect to both educational and vocational aspiration. It is often

assumed that the residential background of an individual can help or hinder the formation of aspirations. It is believed that those who live in town are exposed to a different environment, with a wider selection of jobs than those who live in the country.

Burchinal (1961) found that students who live in the country and who have planned to do farming tend to have lower educational aspirations and also little intention for further education in comparison with (i) students who live in the country but who have no farming plans and (ii) urban boys. Similar findings have been noted by Haller and Sewell (1967) and Picou and Carter (1976).

Ausubel (1961) indicated that rural youths showed a lower level of aspiration for remaining in school and doing very well in school than did urban youths.

Studies of the vocational aspirations of rural and urban youths have indicated that urban youths normally have higher aspirations than rural youths (Sewell and Orenstein, 1965; Ausubel, 1961). When expectations have been examined, no differences have been found (Kuvlesky and Ohlendorf, 1968).

In the choice of jobs, Sewell and Orenstein (1968) as well as Ausubel (1961) produced evidence of higher aspirations for professional and higher status jobs among urban boys than among rural boys. However, Sewell and Orenstein found no significant association between residential background and occupational choice of girls.

Conclusion

This review of research literature started with education in developing countries, in order to raise the question of the link between education and the countries' overall development. It would have been more justifiable to concentrate the review on developing countries, but because of the lack of relevant studies, the review has been forced to deal mainly with developed western countries.

Studies dealing with the entry of youths into working life have been surveyed in relation to their educational and vocational aspirations and expectations. The studies reviewed do not permit firm conclusions. What they have demonstrated is that the factors that contribute to transition from school to work are indeed complex and that their influences

vary. That variation suggests that there is yet some distance to go before a well articulated theory will emerge that can demonstrate both definitional precision and verified empirical support. Furthermore, Currie's conclusion (1977) that a significant difference surely is bound to appear between developing societies and western societies is well taken and hence there is a need for more studies in developing societies.

It is with full recognition of the difficulty involved in teasing out the cause-effect relationships between events preceding work and subsequent occupational entry that Chapter II puts forward the present study's research problem.

CHAPTER II - RESEARCH DESIGN

This chapter outlines the research problem and provides an account of the research design.

RESEARCH PROBLEM

Researchers concerned with the problem of the entry of young people into working life have often approached the matter by studying the relationship between education and occupational intentions. The link has been examined in two ways:

(i) By building models to test the relationship between variables (Blau and Duncan, 1967). Such studies were mostly done in the United States. In developing countries Currie (1976), Hansen and Haller (1974), Heynemen (1976a & b), Holsinger (1977) used similar models for their studies in Uganda, Costa Rica, Uganda and Brazil respectively.

(ii) By using socio-psychological methods to study different aspects of the problem (Alexander and Campbell, 1964; Bordua, 1964; Duncan et al., 1968; Haller and Butterworth, 1960; Sewell et al., 1957, 1969 & 1970).

This socio-psychological approach has dwelt more on achievement motivation and achievement value theory. Spenner and Featherman (1978) have even differentiated between the "psycho" and "socio" components involved. To them:

(i) the psychological approach has included levels of aspirations, expectancy, motives and motivation;

(ii) the sociological approach has involved values, incentives and goal objectives.

Sewell et al. (1957) carrying the discussion further commented that sociologists have concentrated more on mobility, and social class, concluding that educational and occupational achievement values tend to be directly influenced by the family's position in the status structure.

The above aspects have featured in studies of educational and vocational aspiration in both developed and less developed countries. The present study follows both traditions and defines the problem accordingly. The research question thus becomes a double-barrelled one concerned respectively with (i) the relationship between educational and occupational aspirations; and (ii) the extent of family, peer and gender influences on educational and vocational aspirations.

The study starts with several generalizations about the way students and their parents view school in relation to the world of work and the choice of career. From the career point of view, it is expected that students would aspire to specific careers and make their choices while still at school. That in turn would influence them to strive to get the qualifications which will enable them to reach the career aspired to. However, though students are expected to aspire to certain types of careers, intervening factors will nonetheless force them to realize that their ideals cannot be reached. Accordingly it is assumed that students also come to terms with the reality they face. These generalizations lead to a number of assumptions:

1. There is a functional relationship between students' intentions to continue education and the type of career aspired to.
2. Factors like performance, ability and attitudes to school will play a major part in influencing intentions to continue at school.
3. Significant others like parents and peers will influence students to conform to certain standards and either to raise or lower their aspirations.
4. Society values will influence the aspirations of different groups differently.

Based on the above assumptions, the present study has formulated eight tentative hypotheses.

Hypotheses

From general theoretical considerations and the analysis of the relevant literature on educational and vocational aspirations and unemployment the following hypotheses seem warranted.

(1) Attitude towards school is a function of understanding about school.
The greater the understanding the more positive the attitude.

(2) Aspiration to continue school is a function of scholastic performance.
The better the performance the higher the aspiration to continue.

(3) Aspiration to continue school is a function of parental education.
The higher the parental education, the higher the aspiration.

(4) Educational/vocational aspiration is a function of "reality", i.e. what is going on in real world.
The more understanding students have of "reality" the more realistic they become in their aspirations.

(5) Aspirations to career is a function of social values and differences associated with gender.
Boys tend to have higher aspirations than girls.

(6) Choice and knowledge of career is a function of the location of residence.
Students who live in metropolitan areas will have more knowledge than will those who live in the rural areas.

(7) Educational aspiration is a function of the students plan to the type of job aspired to.
The prestigious the job, the higher the educational aspiration.

(8) Educational/vocational aspiration is a function of parental socio-economic status.
The higher the parents socio-economic status the higher the educational/vocational aspiration.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The section on research design provides; a general description of the study, a discussion of the rationale, and a description of research procedures.

General Description of the Study

The previous section outlined a number of generalizations, basic assumptions and tentative hypotheses on which the present study rests. It follows from then that there are three main types of factors likely to have significant influence on transition from school to employment. These are: (i) individual differences in personal characteristics, such as vocational interests, abilities etc.; (ii) differences in relevant aspects of the students' home backgrounds, such as social class, parental involvement in the students' education and career decisions; and (iii) differences in the influences to which the students had been exposed at schools.

These, then, become basic aspects that needed to be investigated in the present study. It followed, therefore, that decisions had to be taken first on how to obtain a representative sample; and second, on finding adequate ways of measuring relevant personal attributes and environmental factors likely to have the strongest influence on choice of occupation. Before proceeding to elaborate these, it is necessary to explain the context of the research - to set the stage, as it were.

The study was designed to be undertaken in Zanzibar, Tanzania. The Zanzibar Islands, off the coast of the Mainland Tanzania in the Indian Ocean, comprise two main islands, Zanzibar and Pemba, and several small islands. The islands became part of the union with mainland Tanzania (formerly Tanganyika) to become the United Republic of Tanzania in 1964.

Zanzibar and Pemba cover the area of 1,464 square kilometers, with a population of 479,235 (out of the total 17,527,564 of Tanzania population (1978 Census). The projected figure for 1979 was 488,000. The population is mostly rural with 138,638 urban. Nearly 40% of the population is in school going age group. The Zanzibar proportion of the age groups to the total population is shown below.

TABLE 1 PROPORTION OF AGE GROUPS

AGE GROUP	ZANZIBAR PROPORTION IN PERCENTAGE	TANZANIA TOTAL IN PERCENTAGE
0 - 4	18.99	18.15
5 - 14	29.59	28.00
15 - 34	28.66	30.42
35 - 54	14.14	15.18
55 - 64	4.18	4.16
65 and over	4.44	4.09

Source: Population Section Bureau of Statistics, Dar-es-Salaam (1978)

The islands' economy depends upon agriculture, of which cloves is the major source of income. Other cash crop farming includes; coconuts and chillies, while new crops like cardamoms have been introduced recently. Most people engage themselves in food crop farming (rice, maize, millet, cassava bananas and fruits) and fishing. There are no major industries. The development of small scale industries is in its early stage. Sugar production, dairy products, cigarettes, shoes and other small scale industries have made a beginning. Coconut oil production, soap and animal feed (coconut products) which had been the main type of industry before, are also on the increase. The income per capita is 2444/- (Tanzania shillings) (1 U.S. dollar is equivalent to between 7 and 9 Tanz. shillings). The table below shows the growth of income per capita (currency is Tanzania shillings).

TABLE 2 INCOME

Year	Income per Capita
1975	1153/-
1976	2663/-
1977	2485/-
1978	1672/-
1979	2444/-

Source: Bureau of Statistics (1978)

The Zanzibar Islands consist of five administrative regions. Zanzibar is made up of three, Zanzibar Urban/West, Zanzibar North and Zanzibar South. The two remaining are Pemba North and Pemba South. The Union Government runs three ministries jointly. These are Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Defence and Ministry of State; otherwise Zanzibar maintains her own sovereignty, running all other island ministries separately.

As far as education is concerned, the Ministry of Education controls all the 135 schools and 7 colleges under its five departments. The table below shows the categories and number of schools.

TABLE 3 CATEGORIES AND NUMBERS OF ALL TYPES OF SCHOOLS

CATEGORY OF SCHOOL	LEVEL	NUMBER	ENROLMENT
Primary schools	Std 1 - VIII	39	20,842
Secondary schools	Form 1 - IV	7	1,852
Primary and Secondary schools	Std 1 - Form III Std 1 - Form IV	89	83,990
Colleges			
Teachers' College	Post Form IV	1	
Marine and Fisheries	Post Form IV Form V and VI Form 1 - IV	1	
Technical College	Post Form IV	1	1,868
Agricultural College	Form 1 - IV	1	
College of Islamic Studies	Form 1 - IV	1	
College of Economics and Business Studies	Post Form III	1	
Trade School	Form 1 - IV	1	

Source: Statistical Bulletin, Vol.I (Department of Statistics, Permanent Planning Commission, Zanzibar, 1979)

The figures above show 1978 enrolment. The enrolment for Standard 1 to Form IV, excluding colleges in 1981 was 98,332 in 124 schools. The distribution of schools regionally are as follows:

Zanzibar	Urban/West	28
	North	30
	South	25
Pemba	North	21
	South	21

Source: Department of Education (Primary and Middle Schools) Monthly Returns, May, 1981

For the study itself, the intention was to employ a questionnaire to be answered by some 360 boys and girls, approximately between the ages of 15 and 18, and who would be in form III the last year of the first cycle of their schooling. The students involved would also be attending schools in different locations in the island.

In the sections which follow, a general description of the situation prevailing will be given. It is framed in terms of the schools, social conditions, and employment. This should serve to provide a general picture of environmental characteristics. The descriptions have certain elements of factual information drawn from official sources and also information based on personal observations. The statistics however are for the country as a whole. The purpose is to give the background against which the students' attitudes and characteristics can be assessed. In this way, the inter-connections between their environment and their ideas regarding employment and education for the future, may be to some extent gauged.

a) The Schools

Since the schools are the contact point in this particular study, the description starts there. The information provided here is more general. Detailed discussion on the schools involved in the study will be given in the design of the sample. The discussion about schools will include: (i) individual characteristics of the schools in terms of sizes and differences, (ii) facilities, (iii) teachers in term of staffing, (iv) curriculum. All these in some way or another reflect differences between regions which will be covered in passing.

(i) Individual characteristics of the schools: Nearly all schools involved with the exception of 29 finish at Form III. They thus provide for the pupils eleven years of schooling. However, in the rural areas, most of the schools are relatively new compared with the ones in the urban areas. Most of them started in the last 15 years, and hence have acquired their secondary classes quite recently. These schools vary in size from just above 200 pupils to more than 2,000 students. Such a range brings a diversity of organization to the schools and also brings together in some cases, a heterogeneous population of students and a mixture of subcultures. These differences in one way or another, tend to affect the pupils' thinking and attitudes.

Another noticeable characteristic, especially for rural schools, is the decrease of female students in the upper forms. This is caused by early marriage. The dropout rate for girls in 1980/81, because of marriages was 18.55%. Though such a practice exists in urban areas, its effects are not as marked as in the rural schools. The case of low female enrolment can be illustrated in the example below.

The 1978 population census showed that 49.6% of the population between (10-15 years of age) and 52.4% (15-34) were females. This proportion is not reflected in the enrolment figures of the form III. With the exception of the urban schools the number of girls in form III is lower than that of boys.

		Male	Female
Zanzibar	Urban	578	637
Zanzibar	West	116	89
Zanzibar	South	161	103
Zanzibar	North	207	130

(ii) School facilities The newness of schools in the rural areas has given rise to a number of problems. Equipping schools with text books and science equipment was indicated by the Minister for Education in his 1980/81 budget speech to be one of the hinderances to the development. Again, in comparison with the students in older schools in the urban areas, it seems that the students in rural schools lack basic educational foundations. To what level this limitation contributes or is affected by the students or parent attitude is not currently known.

(iii) Teachers Problems associated with staffing and the quality of the teachers are well known in developing countries. In respect to the present study, differences can be detected in different regions. First, in his 1980/81 budget speech, the Minister for Education indicated that 50% of the teachers are untrained. Though most of these teachers teach in the primary section, the secondary part of the schools is also their responsibility too. The problem becomes very glaring in the rural areas where the general level of teacher staffing and experience is lower than that in the towns. Second, a shortage of staff housing in rural areas has led to a number of teachers living away from their school districts. There are resultant problems of transport, loss of work time and wastage of resources. These problems are not encountered in the urban areas to some extent.

(iv) Curriculum All schools do have a common curriculum. However obvious differences in the quality of knowledge imparted to students results from the circumstances explained above. Of particular note in the curriculum is "Education for Self Reliance". Education for self reliance is regarded as a very important part of the curriculum as a means for providing students with skills necessary in coping with future life. This, being important, is given considerable emphasis. Depending upon the initiative of the teachers, some schools provide considerable emphasis while others less.

(b) Social conditions

Though the study focusses on three different geographical and administrative regions, generally, there are few sharp and distinct boundaries to denote differences. However, differences are to be found in (i) income between the employed and the peasants, (ii) housing, (iii) basic amenities, and (iv) other facilities which provide modern life. These distinctions are most noticeable between urban and rural areas.

First, conditions which are regarded as necessary for modernity are most concentrated in towns. Good housing, electricity and water supply can all be found in the urban areas. Though, conditions have improved in some rural areas, a lot of students still live in conditions which are not conducive to studying and the development of active minds. As a consequence, in some cases numbers of youths migrate to town. Second, the economic conditions sometimes contribute to student dropout from

school or absenteeism from time to time. The Minister outlined the problems as:

(i) parental migration - which usually occurs during harvest time or looking after crops

(ii) parental use of child labour - when parents keep their children away from school, to help in fishing, looking after animals and doing housework etc.

(iii) parental discouragement - when parents encourage their children to leave school and to seek jobs to help the family financially

(iv) parental neglect - this concerns children from broken homes

Nearly all these factors with the exception of the last one are predominately found in the rural areas.

(c) Employment

Statistics on employment of school leavers are mostly at national level. Accordingly, the discussion of employment and unemployment will be general rather than specific. The statistics reveal that varied employment opportunities in modern sectors can only be found in urban areas. Rural areas still provide only traditional types of jobs - farming, fishing, and other small industries like lime burning etc.

Several important points, which have to be taken into account about Zanzibar are (i) the small size of the islands compared to the population growth; (ii) the islands depending mainly on agricultural economies and that there is no heavy industry; (iii) the rate of job expansion does not keep up with the school output; (iv) there are few job opportunities for form III leavers. Most of the available opportunities go to older people.

The preceding discussion has attempted to give a picture of the areas involved, their schools and the general environment. The following section will deal with the sample selection.

SAMPLE SELECTION

1. Rationale for the Sample of Schools and Respondents

The aim of this section is to explain more directly the differences and the uniqueness of the respective regions involved, and finally give details of the numbers selected for the study from each school.

The sample was drawn from three regions in Zanzibar. They are: Zanzibar Urban/West, Zanzibar North and Zanzibar South. To get the broadest view of the whole country it would have been ideal to draw a sample from the sister island of Pemba, but in order to keep the research project within limits of available time, Pemba was not included.

Zanzibar Urban/West has a much greater concentration of schools and a larger population of students. The students who attend these schools are of different home backgrounds and ethnic groups. They come from homes where both parents, or at least one parent is "educated" or at least literate to a minimum level. Some of the parents are white collar workers and some hold professional jobs. Students in urban schools tend to range over all socio-economic levels and reflect a diversity of home backgrounds. Such students are also exposed to a wide range of cultural opportunities generated (i) by the town itself and (ii) by regular influx of visitors. Usually most of the students have not learnt any specific earning skills at home.

On the other hand, schools in the northern region are not as concentrated as in the urban area and at the same time they are not as big.

People in Zanzibar North are of homogeneous background and are mostly farmers and/or fishermen. A great percentage of students therefore, come from the same socio-economic level. Not very many parents have gone to school, and probably the educated ones have only finished primary level.

Students who attend these schools are familiar with some of the skills needed in farming and fishing. By the time they are in form III they have practised and are quite skilled in both occupations.

For the South, most of the skills learnt by the students are the

same as those possessed by students in the North. However, for historical reasons, the southern region is much more advanced in education. Schools have been established much longer in the south than in the north.

In brief summary, three main regional differences are identifiable. They are:

(i) Student background - socio-economic status, parents' education and occupation;

(ii) Size of the schools - most of the schools in the urban areas are big - with three streams and above two thousand pupils in some of them. In other regions the highest enrolment is just above one thousand students.

(iii) Exposure to cultural differences from outside.

Based on these differences the sample was selected as follows.

2. Sample

Initially the general plan was to draw a symmetrical sample of nine schools of three different sizes in all three regions. Difficulty was immediately experienced in getting schools of the same sizes ranging from big, medium-sized to small.

Accordingly, another method was adopted to solve the problem. This involved choosing two sizes of schools. The criteria for the selection of "big school" has become an enrolment between 900-1700 and "small school" between 200 and 500. However, this procedure also had its drawbacks, because even within one category classes varied in sizes and number of students. Most of the small schools had fewer than the number desired for the sample. To compensate, more than one school had to be used in each region.

Table 4 (on the next page) shows the eventual sample.

TABLE 4 SAMPLE

	Big schools	Small schools	Total
Zanzibar Urban	1	2	3
Zanzibar South	2	4	6
Zanzibar North	2	3	5
Total	5	8	14

This method was expected to yield a total of about 360 students - each category of schools in each region having about 60 respondents.

Research procedure which will involve the instrument development, data gathering and analysis procedures will be dealt with in the following chapter.

CHAPTER III - RESEARCH PROCEDURE

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first discusses the development of the instruments used, the second, data gathering and the third, the analysis procedures.

INTRODUCTION

Data were to be collected by means of (i) a pupil questionnaire which was to be distributed in 13 schools throughout the three regions of Zanzibar; and (ii) ratings given by teachers. Both instruments are described later in the chapter.

The logistics of the data collection process were not without interest.

In the first instance the instruments were constructed in New Zealand, in English. They were then trialled in Palmerston North and afterwards translated in Kiswahili. Details of the process will be given later in the chapter. The draft of the Kiswahili questionnaire was then sent by post to Zanzibar to be typed and cyclostyled. There, a "coordinator" was used to liaise with the Department of Education and the schools and also to distribute the questionnaires to the headmasters/headmistress of the schools selected for the study. Once the questionnaires were in schools, the headmasters and the teachers responsible for Form IIIs took responsibility for organising the administration, collection and return of the questionnaires to the coordinator. The coordinator then returned the questionnaires to New Zealand where coding and analysis were undertaken.

Instrument Development

The questionnaire itself was a three page one, containing thirty one items; divided into nine sections dealing respectively with biographical and demographical information, attitudes towards school, reasons for the attitudes, educational aspirations, vocational aspirations, vocational expectations, reasons for expected jobs, usefulness of school curriculum and ideas on the preparation for life.

Of the 31 items, 9 were open ended in format; 2 forced choice; 19 employed Likert type scales (usually 5 points) and 1 called for rank ordering.

The questionnaire is reproduced in full (in English and Kiswahili) in appendices B and C.

In brief, the questionnaire sought information on certain biographical and demographical factors, such as sex, age, place of residence and father's occupation; educational and occupational aspirations and expectations and values of both students and families, and family and peer influences.

The items themselves were constructed in line with (i) the research questions that originally gave rise to the study and (ii) the theoretical position outlined in Chapter II. Accordingly, one item was concerned with the extent of liking school. The usefulness of school was covered by a group of nine items. Another three items focussed on the values of education as observed by parents, community and government. Four more items focussed on education aspirations and four more on reasons for the aspirations. One item dealt with vocational aspirations, another one on vocational expectations, and one more on the reasons fo expected jobs. Judgements on the importance of school subjects was sought in one item and the last item dealt with respondents' ideas on what they would like schooling to give them.

For the purpose of the present study, the basic variables are (i) educational aspiration and (ii) vocational aspiration. The independent variables thought to provide explanatory or predictive power were: (i) socio-economic status, (ii) residence area, (iii) sex. These taken alone and in combination were augmented at a lower level of analysis by three derived variables: "status", "affect" and "utility".

The discussion that follows deals with major variables:

Socio-economic status

This variable has been examined and considered in different ways in different studies. Usually a combination of equally weighted items is used (Wilson, 1976 ; Sewell et al. 1970). For example,Blau and Duncan (1967) used father's occupational status, father's education, mother's education and possessions in the home to yield a general index.

The present study has relied on father's or guardian's occupation only. In Zanzibar, father's occupation can be taken to subsume his level of education, family possessions and the quality of home environment

available. All three are highly correlated. To cover the many cases typical of African culture and its extended family value, where the pupil was living with somebody else (uncle, grandfather, aunt, brother, sister) the term guardian was also used as a substitute for father.

From the responses, seven categories were then derived, viz.: professional/managerial and administrative; technical; clerical and semi-skilled clerical, skilled manual; farmers and fishermen (unskilled and traditional); armed forces and the unemployed.

Aspirations

Level of aspiration was regarded as having two aspects, ideal and expected. The combinations of these two aspects were to yield indices of the level of aspirations. The two kinds of aspirations, educational and vocational will be discussed separately.

(i) Educational aspiration. These were derived from statements of attitudes towards school and curriculum, and the level of education desired. Altogether, there were 18 relevant items which in combination covered the extent of liking school; reasons for liking school in terms of utility, status and affect.

(ii) Vocational aspiration was measured by an item that related to job prestige and status. Previous studies had indicated that when a person aspires to an occupational role, he merely expresses a preference or desire to reach it. Therefore, the item asked the type of job the respondent preferred or would like to get into if given a choice.

(iii) Vocational expectation. This was measured by two items. One, asking the type of job the respondent expects to get into, and another, about the reasons for the expectation.

(iv) The influence of "significant others" was probed in the educational aspiration items. These items related to the respondent's perceived feelings about parents, teachers and friends. Two criterion measures were employed: (i) the extent of parents' encouragement and psychological support for the student to continue with education and (ii) the desire to have plans similar to those of friends.

Location of residence This was used as an indicator of high or low aspiration and was confined to "urban" and "rural".

Sex was used with a view to giving an indicator of male and female role acceptance in education and vocational aspirations and expectation.

Teacher Ratings

An important issue in the study of educational and vocational aspiration is the assessment of scholastic ability. In many studies this is usually achieved by the use of standardized tests. It was impossible for the present study to use any such measures. In their place, teacher ratings were used. An instrument was developed. The teacher was required to rate each student on a four point Likert type of scale, in accordance with the previous three years' performance as indicated in the continuous assessment and progress reports of the student.

Pretesting of the Instrument

The purpose of pretesting was twofold: to find out if the questions and the instructions were (i) comprehensible and conveyed the required meaning to the students; and (ii) meaningful. Accordingly, the pretesting was conducted at two different stages as discussed below.

Ultimately, the questionnaire was to be in Kiswahili, the national language of Tanzania. Therefore, the original English language questionnaire had to be translated from English to Kiswahili. This process made it rather difficult to preserve the precision obtained in the original questionnaire. To reduce the problem, the Kiswahili version was given to five Kiswahili speakers, then studying at Massey University, New Zealand, first, to fill it in, and second to detect any ambiguities. The ambiguities discovered were then grouped into individual and common ones. The individual ones were discussed with the individual respondent concerned, and the common ones were discussed in a group. Some of the statements were restructured as a consequence.

The group was then given the English version of the questionnaire in order to discern differences. This method helped to permit more clarification and also point out individual differences.

The original questionnaire was also trialled to four form III New Zealand students. All four students were of average ability. The

purpose was to find out if the items were comprehensible and did make sense to respondents who were roughly equivalent in age and education to those who were to take part in the study. The responses of the four students showed that there were neither ambiguities in the questionnaire, nor problems of any significance, experienced with the English version.

DATA GATHERING

The questionnaires were ready to be administered in Zanzibar in October, almost the end of the Zanzibar school year, when Form III students have finished writing their final examinations. This posed a problem, because attendance of the students tends to be irregular then. This problem gave rise to another. Initially, the coordinator was supposed to hold a meeting with the heads of the schools concerned. The meeting was supposed to specify the instructions for teacher ratings, and also for the writing of reports of the questionnaire administration and problems encountered. Unfortunately, fearing the irregularity of the students' attendance, some schools did not wait for instructions and hence administered the questionnaire. This resulted in one school omitting the teacher's ratings of students and some other schools omitting the writing up of a complete report.

The teachers' reports that were forthcoming however did indicate that the students took the average, between 45 minutes and one hour to complete the questionnaire. The reports also indicated no major problems during the administering.

Sample: Originally 360 respondents were anticipated. Because of the problem of attendance, only 340 were achieved (a 94% rate of return). Of these,fourteen questionnaires were incompletely filled, 326, thus were usable (91%). The distribution of the responses were as follows:

TABLE 5 DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES

		Regions 1	2	3	Total
SEX	1	53	32	41	126
	2	48	76	76	200
		101	108	117	326

Sex: 1 female
2 male

Regions: 1 Urban/West
2 Zanzibar North
3 Zanzibar South

DATA ANALYSIS

Because of the nature of the data, non parametric statistics were used for the analysis. Computation was undertaken, using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The following steps were taken in the analysis:

1. Descriptive statistics were derived to show the distribution of the data. Frequencies, means, standard deviations, and variances were computed for all items in the questionnaire.
2. Crosstabulation procedure computed joint frequency distributions in the table form and was used with variables that could be sub-categorised. The statistical test of significant used was Chi-square.
3. Two way-analysis of variance was employed to test significant interaction effects.
4. To test the relationship between variables, Spearman rank and Pearson Product moment correlations were used.

Throughout the analysis, comparisons were made on the basis of (i) sex, (ii) region and (iii) socio-economic status.

The findings detailed in the following chapter will be divided into three separate sections on the basis of analysis procedures used.

CHAPTER IV - FINDINGS

SECTION I

This chapter reports the results of the statistical analysis. It is divided into three main sections which deal respectively with: (1) general findings, (2) specific findings and hypotheses and (3) interactions.

General Results

The objective of this section is to provide a broad general picture of the results and also highlight some of the more noteworthy features prior to reporting on testing of the hypotheses.

Of the original 360 questionnaires sent out to schools 340 (94 percent) were returned. Of those returned, 326 were usable - 91% of the original sample. Sixty-one percent of the respondents were males, nearly one and a half times the number of girls.

The distribution of the respondents according to location of residence was almost even. Thirty percent came from Zanzibar Urban/West; 34% from Zanzibar North and 36% from Zanzibar South. However, the distribution of males and females in each region varies. Table 6 provides the details. The table shows that Urban/West has proportionately more girls (16.3% of the overall total). The other two regions have fewer girls (9.8% in the North and 12.6% in the South). When comparing regions, the difference between males and females is quite significant at 0.05 level and implies that males outnumber females in the form III population by about 3 to 2 in the North and South region (North: Males 70.4% cf females 29.6%; South: Males 65.0% cf females 35.0%). Even with the higher proportion of females in the Urban/West schools (52.5% cf 47.5% males) the overall percentage shows a higher population of males than females in the sample schools.

From a socio-economic point of view, the largest number of students (69%) fell in Category five (unskilled jobs). Respondents who held professional and high status jobs amount to 7% while those with parents who held skilled technical jobs contributed only 2%. Finally, 2% of the respondents came from homes with unemployed parents. Further description of the respondents' socio-economic background is shown in tables 7-10 . Table 7 shows the distribution of the sample within the

TABLE 6 RESPONDENTS: GENDER BY REGION

			REGIONS			
			URBAN/ WEST	NORTH	SOUTH	ROW TOTALS
G E N D E R	MALE	N	48	76	76	200
		Tot %	14.7	23.3	23.3	61.3
		Reg %	47.5	70.4	65.0	
	FEMALE	N	53	32	41	126
		Tot %	16.3	9.8	12.6	38.7
		Reg %	52.5	29.6	35.0	
	Column Totals		101	108	117	326

$X^2 = 12.48953^{*}$ (2 df.) $p = 0.05$

TABLE 7 SOCIO-ECONOMIC CATEGORIES BY REGIONS

	FATHER'S OCCUPATION	REGION 1		REGION 2		REGION 3		TOTALS	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	Professional/managerial/ administrative	15	15.15	1	0.89	7	5.73	23	6.9
2	Technical/skilled	6	6.06	0	0	0	0	6	1.8
3	Clerical/semi-skilled	21	21.2	4	3.57	8	6.55	33	10
4	Semi-skilled manual	9	9.09	2	1.78	5	4.09	16	4.8
5	Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	29	29.3	103	91.96	97	79.5	229	69.2
6	Armed forces	13	13.1	2	1.78	3	2.45	18	5.4
7	Unemployed	6	6.06	0	0	0	0	6	1.8
	TOTALS	99		112		122		331	100

TABLE 8 SOCIO-ECONOMIC CATEGORIES BY GENDER

	GENDER									
	MALES				FEMALES					
	N	Row %	Column %	Total %	N	Row %	Column %	Total %	Row Totals N	%
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	10	5.1	43.5	3.1	13	10.6	56.5	4.1	23	7.2
2 Technical/skilled	3	1.5	50.0	0.9	3	2.4	50.0	0.9	6	1.7
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	11	5.6	34.4	3.5	21	17.1	65.6	6.6	32	10.7
4 Semi-skilled manual	8	4.1	50.0	2.5	8	6.5	50.0	2.5	16	5.0
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	149	76.4	68.7	46.9	68	55.3	31.3	21.4	217	68.2
6 Armed forces	12	6.2	66.7	3.8	6	4.9	33.3	1.9	18	5.7
7 Unemployed	2	1.0	33.3	0.6	4	3.3	66.7	1.3	6	19.0
Column Totals N	195			61.3	123			38.7	318	

TABLE 9a STATUS BY REGION BY GENDER (BETWEEN CATEGORY ASPIRATIONS)

FATHER'S OCCUPATION	Gender	REGION 1		REGION 2		REGION 3			
		N	Category %	N	Category %	N	Category %	N	%
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	Male	5	21.7	1	4.3	4	17.4	10	43.4
	Female	10	43.8	-	-	3	13.0	13	56.8
								23	
2 Technical/skilled	Male	3	50.0	-	-	-	-	3	50
	Female	3	50.0	-	-	-	-	3	50
								6	
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	Male	6	18.75	2	6.25	3	9.4	11	34.4
	Female	14	43.75	2	6.25	5	15.6	21	65.6
								32	
4 Semi-skilled manual	Male	5	31.25	1	6.25	2	12.5	8	50.0
	Female	4	25.0	1	6.25	3	18.75	8	50.0
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	Male	15	6.9	70	32.25	64	29.5	149	68.65
	Female	14	6.5	27	12.4	22	12.4	68	31.4
								217	
6 Armed forces	Male	9	50.0	1	5.6	2	11.1	12	66.7
	Female	4	22.2	2	11.1	1	5.6	6	33.4
7 Unemployed	Male	2	33.3	-	-	-	-	2	33.3
	Female	4	66.7	-	-	-	-	4	66.7
								6	

TABLE 9b STATUS BY REGION BY GENDER (BETWEEN CATEGORY ASPIRATIONS)

	FATHER'S OCCUPATION	Gender	REGION 1 N	REGION 1 Region %	REGION 2 N	REGION 2 Region %	REGION 3 N	REGION 3 Region %	Total N
1	Professional/managerial/ administrative	Male	5	5.1	1	0.9	4	3.5	10
		Female	10	10.2	-	-	3	2.6	13
				15.3		0.9		6.1	23
2	Technical/skilled	Male	3	3.1	-	-	-	-	3
		Female	3	3.1	-	-	-	-	3
				6.2					6
3	Clerical/semi-skilled	Male	6	6.1	2	1.9	3	2.6	11
		Female	14	14.2	2	1.9	5	4.4	21
				20.3		3.8		7.0	32
4	Semi-skilled manual	Male	5	5.1	1	0.9	2	1.75	8
		Female	4	4.1	1	0.9	3	2.6	8
				9.2		1.8		4.35	16
5	Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	Male	15	15.3	70	66.3	64	56.1	149
		Female	14	14.2	27	25.5	27	23.6	68
				29.5		91.8		79.7	217
6	Armed forces	Male	9	9.2	1	0.9	2	1.75	12
		Female	4	4.1	2	1.75	1	0.9	6
				13.3		2.65		2.65	18
7	Unemployed	Male	2	2.1	-	-	-	-	2
		Female	4	4.1	-	-	-	-	4
				6.2	-	-	-	-	6
	Total	Male	45	46.0	75	70.85	75	65.7	195
		Female	53	54.0	31	29.2	39	34.1	123
			98	100.0	106	100.05	114	99.8	318

three regions and vertically to show the distribution of each region for the different job categories. The figures shown on the table indicate typical of the regions. It shows that most of the parents in the Category I jobs (professional/managerial/administrative) are in Region 1 (Urban/West), which has 4.5% in comparison to 0.3% in the North and 2.1% South. Likewise, with the technical/skilled jobs the whole total of 1.8% is concentrated in Region 1. Out of the total 10% of the clerical/semi-skilled jobs 6.3% was in Region 1 while Region 2 contributed 1.2% and Region 3, 2.4%. Parents in semi-skilled manual jobs formed 4.8% of which 2.7% were in urban areas (Region 1) and .6% in Zanzibar North and 1.5% in Zanzibar South (Region 2 and 3 respectively). Of the 69.2% of the unskilled traditional jobs (farming/fishing) Region 1 constituted only 8.8% while Regions 2 and 3 comprised of 31.1% and 29.3% respectively. Finally, of the unemployed category, the total of 1.8% was Region 1 only.

Table 8 shows gender difference distribution. The distribution is also significant at 0.05 level. The percentage of girls represented in Category I and III (professional/managerial/administrative; clerical/semi-skilled) was higher than that of boys (4.1% and 6.6% females cf 3.1% and 3.5% male respectively). However, a higher proportion of boys came from homes with parents in unskilled traditional jobs (Category V). The percentage of boys is 46.9% compared to 21.4% girls. Table 9a gives an overall picture of the distribution of the students within regions by gender. The table shows the percentage of males and females within each socio-economic group (job category of father). Category I through IV, the sample was overrepresented by students from Urban/West region. Girls formed higher proportions from Categories I to III (both regionally and overall). A negligible proportion of both boys and girls was represented in all these 4 job categories in Regions 2 and 3. However, the interpretation of the small number of the sample in the cells should not be conclusive. Category V had an overall higher percentage of boys in all three regions; with Regions 2 and 3 forming the highest proportion (It can be noted that Region 2 is under-represented in all other categories). Table 9b , an elaboration of table 9a shows the distribution regionally. Tables 10a and 10b make comparisons respectively, between males in each region and also females. The purpose is to provide opportunity to observe the sex results a little more clearly. Further comparisons are made in each table (10a and 10b) in the last column to show the distribution of the

TABLE 10a MALE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CATEGORIES BY REGION

FATHER'S OCCUPATION	REGION 1			REGION 2			REGION 3			TOTAL	CATEGORY %		
	N	Region %	Overall %	N	Region %	Overall %	N	Region %	Overall %	N Overall %	Region 1	Region 2	Region 3
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	5	11.1	2.5	1	1.33	0.51	4	5.33	2.05	10 5.06	50.0	10.0	40.0
2 Technical/skilled	3	6.7	1.53	-	-	-	-	-	-	3 1.53	100.0	-	-
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	6	13.3	3.07	2	2.66	1.02	3	4.0	1.53	11 5.62	54.54	18.18	27.27
4 Semi-skilled manual	5	11.1	2.56	1	1.33	0.51	2	2.66	1.02	8 4.09	62.5	12.5	25.0
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	15	33.3	7.69	70	93.3	35.89	64	85.33	32.82	149 76.4	10.06	46.9	42.95
6 Armed forces	9	20.0	4.61	1	1.33	0.51	2	2.66	1.02	12 6.14	75	8.33	16.66
7 Unemployed	2	4.44	1.02	-	-	-	-			2 1.02	100.0	-	-
	45	99.97	22.98	75	99.95	38.44'	75	99.98	38.44	195 99.86			

TABLE 10b FEMALE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CATEGORIES BY REGION

FATHER'S OCCUPATION	REGION 1			REGION 2			REGION 3			TOTAL	CATEGORY %		
	N	Region %	Overall %	N	Region %	Overall %	N	Region %	Overall %	N Overall %	Region 1	Region 2	Region 3
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	10	18.86	8.13	-	-	-	3	7.6	2.43	13 10.56	76.92	-	23.07
2 Technical/skilled	3	5.66	2.43	-	-	-	-	-	-	3 2.43	100.0	-	-
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	14	26.41	11.38	2	6.45	1.62	5	12.82	4.06	21 17.06	66.66	9.52	23.80
4 Semi-skilled manual	4	7.54	3.25	1	3.22	0.81	3	7.69	2.43	8 6.49	50	12.5	37.5
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	14	26.41	11.38	27	87.09	21.95	27	69.23	21.95	68 55.28	20.58	39.7	39.7
6 Armed forces	4	7.54	3.25	1	3.22	0.81	1	2.56	0.81	6 4.87	66.66	16.6	16.6
7 Unemployed	4	7.54	3.25	-	-	-	-	-		4 3.25	100	-	-
	53	99.96	43.07	31	99.98	25.19	39	99.9	31.68	123			

TABLE 11 EXTENT OF LIKING SCHOOL BY GENDER

			QUESTION RANK HIGH 5	4	3	LOW 1 & 2	ROW TOTALS
GENDER	MALE	N	148	36	9	0	193
			58.0	72.0	75.0	0.0	60.7
	FEMALE	N	107	14	3	1	125
			42.0	28.0	25.0	100.0	39.3
	Column Totals		255	50	12	1	318
			80.2	15.7	3.8	0.3	100

$X^2 = 6.0059$ (3 df.) $p = 0.05$

TABLE 12 EXTENT OF LIKING SCHOOL BY REGION

			QUESTION RANK HIGH 5	4	3	2	LOW 1	ROW TOTALS
REGION	URBAN/ WEST	N	86	13	1	0	0	100
			32.7	24.5	7.7	0.0	0.0	30.2
	NORTH	N	89	18	3	0	0	110
			33.8	34.0	23.1	0.0	0.0	
	SOUTH	N	88	22	9	1	1	121
			33.5	41.5	69.2	100	100.0	36.6
	Column Totals		263	53	13	1	1	331
			79.5	16.0	3.9	0.3	0.3	100

$X^2 = 12.04193$ (8 df.) $p = 0.05$

TABLE 13a MALE - EXTENT OF LIKING SCHOOL BY REGION

	QUESTION RANKING	REGIONS URBAN/WEST N	Overall %	Regional Rank %	NORTH N	Overall %	Regional Rank %	SOUTH N	Overall %	Regional Rank %	TOTAL
EXTENT OF LIKING	HIGH										
	5	35	18.13	23.64	57	29.5	38.5	56	29.01	37.8	99.94
	4	11	5.69	30.55	13	6.73	36.11	12	6.21	33.33	99.99
	3	-	-	-	3	1.55	33.33	6	3.10	66.66	99.99
	LOW	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		46			73			74			193

TABLE 13b FEMALE - EXTENT OF LIKING SCHOOL BY REGION

	QUESTION RANKING	REGIONS URBAN/WEST N	Overall %	Regional Rank %	NORTH N	Overall %	Regional Rank %	SOUTH N	Overall %	Regional Rank %	TOTAL
EXTENT OF LIKING	HIGH										
	5	51	37.6	47.66	28	22.4	26.16	28	22.4	26.16	99.98
	4	2	1.6	14.2	4	3.2	28.5	8	6.4	57.14	99.94
	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	2.4	100	100
	LOW										
	2&1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.8	100	100
		53			32			40			125

respective gender sample within each socio-economic category in the regions.

Further general descriptive information of the respondents' answers to questionnaire items are worth explaining in the form of tables. The tables are grouped in terms of the relevant research questions listed in Chapter II and further description in Chapter III.

Attitude towards school (extent of liking school, table II to 13b)

In indicating their attitudes towards school, the students had to respond by ranking a five point scale to the question, "to what extent do you like being in schools". The students seemed to respond favourably. Seventy nine percent ranked it very highly and positively, while only 5% responded negatively. Table II, which shows the distribution of the answers between males and females indicates that females in the sample have more favourable attitudes towards school than males (85% of all females cf 76% of all males). Table 12 shows this comparison regionally. The comparisons reveal no significant differences. Table 13a and 13b show the male and female comparisons respectively and include regional differences as well. The tables read horizontally showing the overall percentage of the three regions and regional percentage for each rank for gender. In comparing the males among the three regions, those in Urban/West (Region 1) had the most favourable attitudes towards school. This was also the case for females in the same region.

In order to get a deeper insight into the respondents' attitudes towards school, a group of statements reflecting the use of school was posed. These show the three uses of school in terms of utility, affect and status. The overall picture of the responses are shown in profiles (figures 1 - 9). The profiles were obtained by adding the scores of three items in each of the three groups of "use" items.

Figure 1 gives a picture of how students scored in the three uses. The profiles indicate that utility is high, followed by status and lastly by affect. Comparison of the regions is shown in figure 2a

FIG. 1 STUDENTS REASONS FOR BEING IN SCHOOL

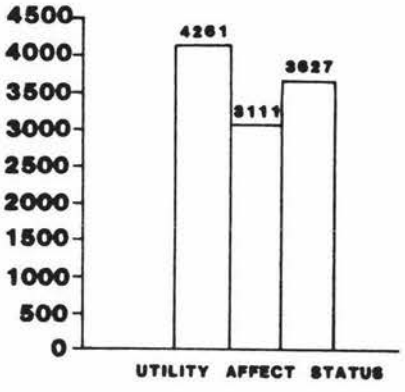


FIG. 2(a) REGIONAL PROFILES - REASONS FOR BEING IN SCHOOL

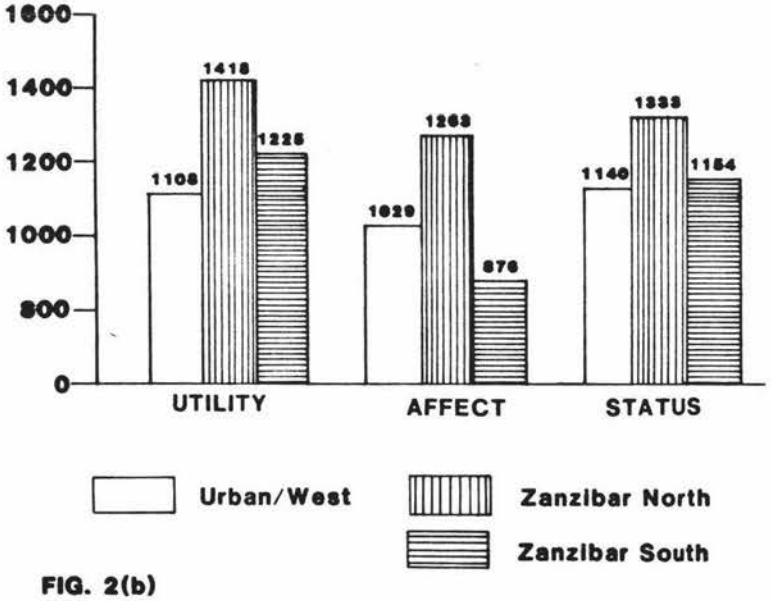


FIG. 2(b)

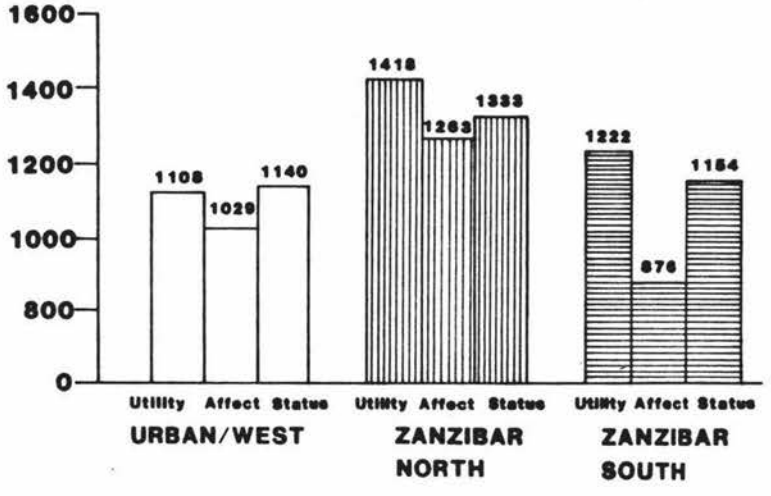


FIG. 3(a) GENDER PROFILES - REASONS FOR BEING IN SCHOOL

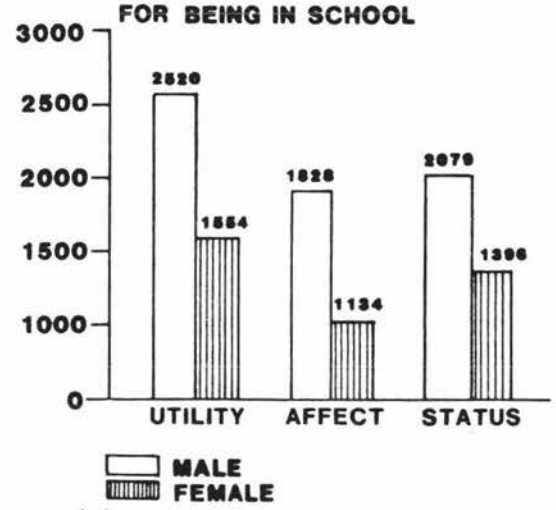


FIG. 3(b)

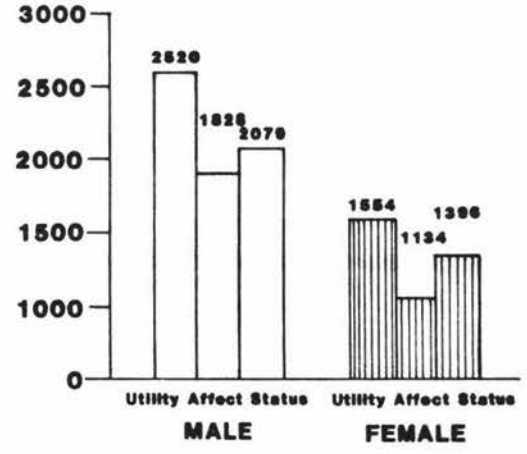


FIG. 4 MALE PROFILES OF REASONS FOR BEING IN SCHOOL

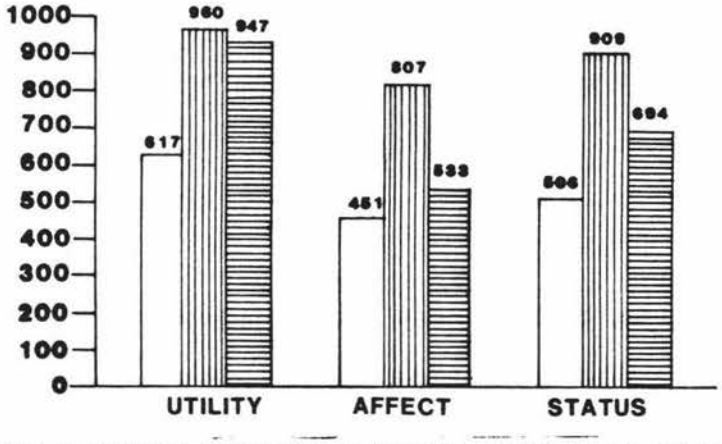


FIG. 5 FEMALE PROFILES REASONS OF BEING IN SCHOOL

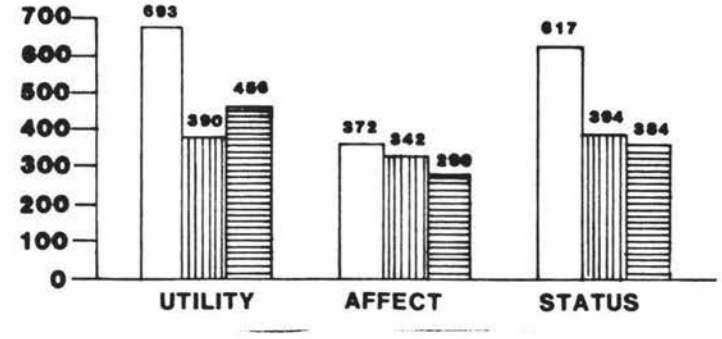
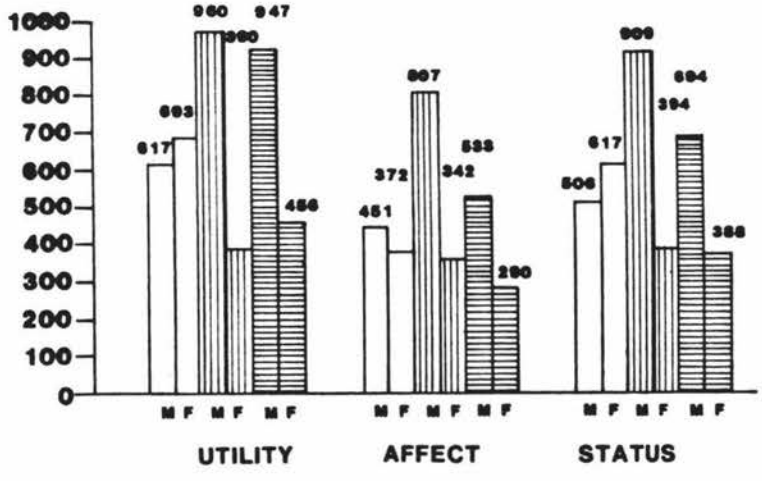


FIG. 6 GENDER REGIONAL PROFILES -REASONS FOR BEING IN SCHOOL



M -MALE
F -FEMALE

FIG. 7 SOCIO ECONOMIC STATUS PROFILES
REASONS FOR BEING IN SCHOOL

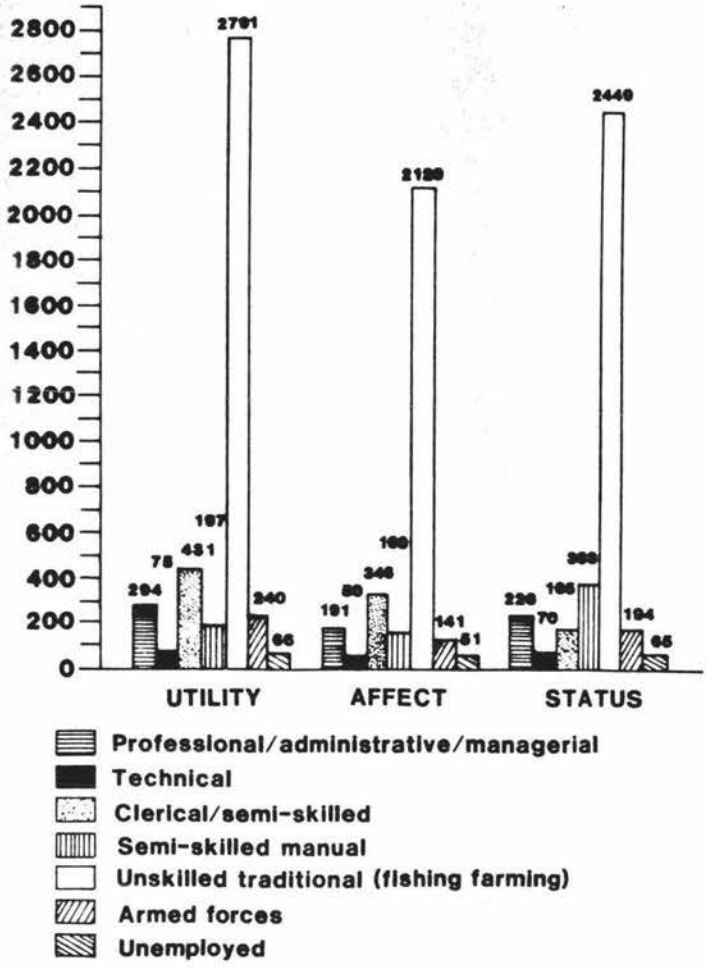


FIG. 8 SOCIO ECONOMIC STATUS PROFILES (MALES)
REASONS FOR BEING IN SCHOOL

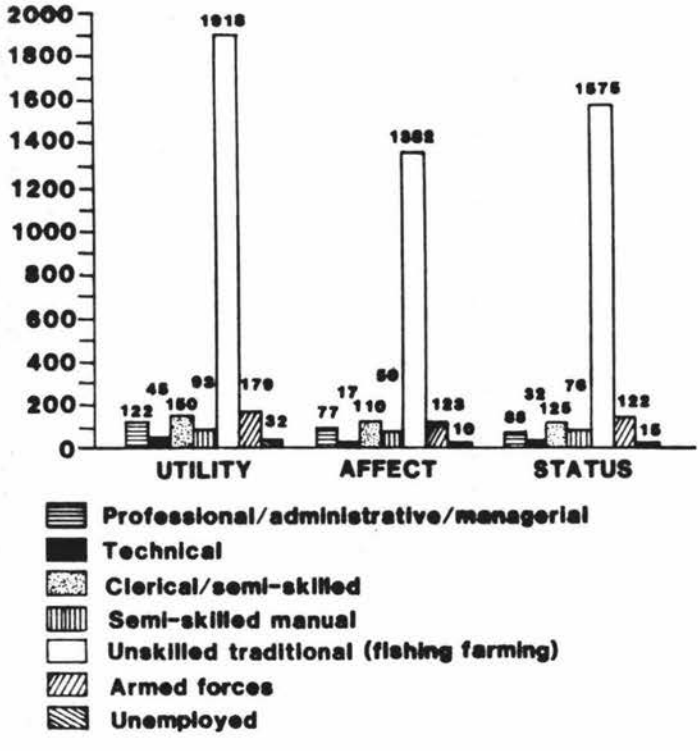


FIG. 9 SOCIO ECONOMIC STATUS PROFILES (FEMALES)
REASONS FOR BEING IN SCHOOL

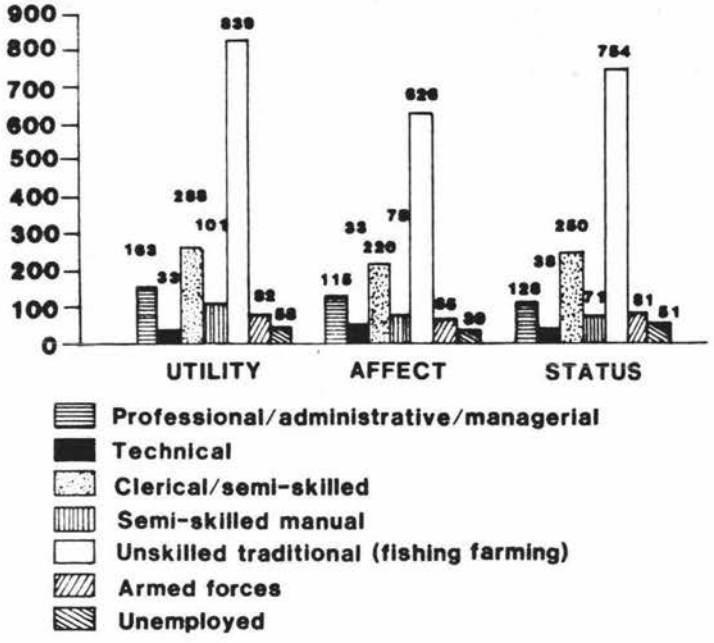


FIG. 10 GENDER PROFILES - REASONS
FOR CONTINUING AT SCHOOL

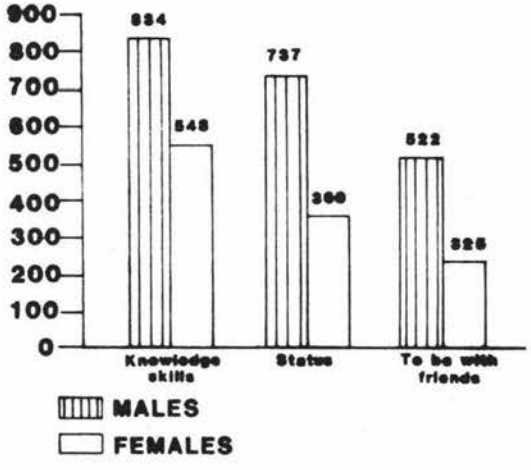
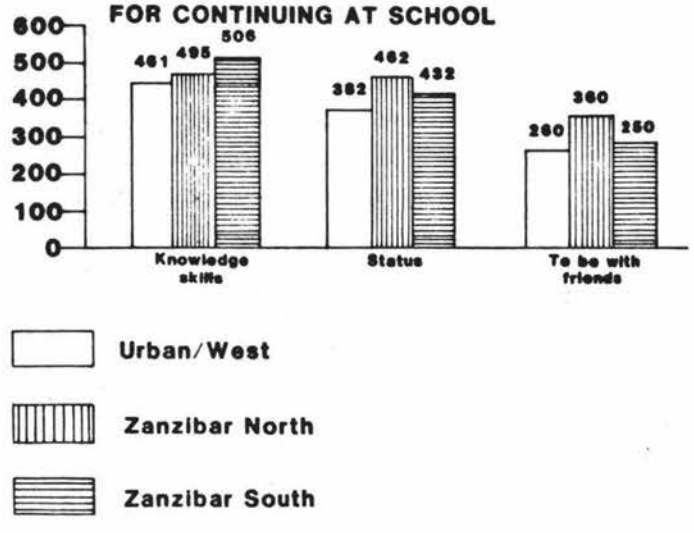


FIG. 11 REGIONAL PROFILES REASONS
FOR CONTINUING AT SCHOOL



and 2b. Figure 2a shows that in all three uses (utility, status and affect) the northern region had high scores. Figure 2b has grouped the three uses for each region separately. In each region utility is rated as the highest.

Gender profiles are shown in figure 3a. In all three cases, males scored higher than females. However, when males are compared separately from females (3b) the picture conveyed is the same. Utility is followed by status and lastly by affect.

Figure 4 shows the profiles of the males within the three regions. In all three cases males from the northern region scored higher. Females in figure 5 give a different picture. In the utility indices, the urban region scored higher, followed by South and lastly by North. However, in the affect and status indices, Urban/West region is followed by North and finally South. To give a clear picture, figure 6 is presented to show the regional profiles of males and females together. Figure 7 shows the responses of students from different socio-economic statuses. The profiles suggest that students of lower socio-economic status had higher scores in all three item indices. Figures 8 and 9 show males and females separately. However, these profiles give a picture similar to that of figure 7.

Educational Aspiration (Extent of continuing at school: tables 14-16
(Aspired level of education: tables 17-19

Educational aspiration was measured by (i) the students' intention to continue at school after Form III and (ii) the level of education aspired to. Sixty-six percent of the respondents were highly in favour of continuing with school after Form III, while only 2% were not in favour at all. Thirty-two percent were in between. Table 14 shows the regional distribution of responses to the continuing with education question. Almost all regions ranked continuing at school very highly. However, when comparison is made regionally, the Urban/West region scored 22.7% while North and South scored 33.3% and 35.0 respectively. In the overall percentage regions comparison, the South region contributed to 23.1% but also the highest in lack of interest to continue at school at 1.5%, while the other two regions contributed 23.1% (North) and 21.7% (Urban/West) with a very negligible disfavour of 0.3% in the North and none at all in the Urban/West. The difference however, is

TABLE 14 ASPIRED LEVEL OF EDUCATION BY REGION

		ASPIRATION: EXTENT OF LIKING TO CONTINUE AT SCHOOL					
		HIGH 5	4	3	2	LOW 1	ROW TOTALS
URBAN/ WEST	N	73	17	9	1	0	100
		32.7	27.0	25.0	11.1	0.0	29.7
NORTH	N	72	24	13	3	1	113
		32.3	38.1	36.1	33.3	16.7	33.5
SOUTH	N	78	22	14	5	5	124
		35.0	34.7	38.9	55.6	83.3	36.8
		223	63	36	9	6	337
	Column Totals	66.2	18.7	10.7	2.7	1.8	100.0

$X^2 = 9.71917$ (8 df.) $p = 0.05$

TABLE 15a ASPIRED LEVEL OF EDUCATION BY GENDER

		ASPIRATION: EXTENT OF LIKING TO CONTINUE AT SCHOOL					
		HIGH 5	4	3	2	LOW 1	ROW TOTALS
MALE	N	133	34	23	6	2	198
		61.6	59.6	63.9	66.7	40.0	61.3
FEMALE	N	83	57	36	9	5	125
		38.4	40.0	36.1	33.3	60.0	38.9
		219	57	36	9	5	323
	Column Totals	66.9	17.6	11.1	2.8	1.5	100

$X^2 = 9.71917$ (8 df.) $p = 0.05$

TABLE 15b MALE - EXTENT OF CONTINUING AT SCHOOL BY REGION

EXTENT OF CONTINUING	REGIONS									TOTAL
	URBAN/WEST			NORTH			SOUTH			
	N	Overall %	Regional %	N	Overall %	Regional %	N	Overall %	Regional %	
HIGH 5	30	15.15	22.55	52	26.26	39.09	51	25.75	38.34	99.98
4	10	5.05	29.41	14	7.07	41.17	10	5.05	29.41	99.99
OF 3	5	2.52	21.73	9	4.54	39.13	9	4.54	39.13	99.99
2	1	0.50	16.60	1	0.5	16.66	4	2.02	66.66	99.98
LOW 1	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1.01	100.0	100
	46			76			76			198

TABLE 15c FEMALE - EXTENT OF CONTINUING AT SCHOOL BY REGION

EXTENT OF CONTINUING	REGIONS									TOTAL
	URBAN/WEST			NORTH			SOUTH			
	N	Overall %	Regional %	N	Overall %	Regional %	N	Overall %	Regional %	
HIGH 5	43	34.4	51.8	16	12.8	19.27	24	19.2	28.91	99.98
4	6	4.8	26.08	8	6.4	34.78	9	7.2	39.1	99.96
OF 3	4	3.2	30.76	4	3.2	30.7	5	4.0	38.46	99.92
2	-	-	-	2	1.6	66.66	1	0.8	33.33	99.99
LOW 1	-	-	-	1	0.8	33.33	2	1.6	66.66	99.99
	53			31			41			125

TABLE 16 SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS BY EXTENT OF CONTINUING AT SCHOOL

FATHERS' SOCIO'ECONOMIC STATUS	EXTENT OF CONTINUING AT SCHOOL HIGH 5		4		3		2		LOW 1		ROW TOTALS
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
1 Professional/ administrative/managerial	17	73.9	5	21.7	1	4.3	-	-	-	-	23
		7.8		8.2		2.8					7.0
2 Technical/skilled	5	83.3	1	16.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
		2.3		1.6		-		-		-	1.8
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	25	75.8	4	12.1	4	12.1	-	-	-	-	33
		11.5		6.6		11.1		-			10.1
4 Semi-skilled manual	13	81.3	1	6.3	1	6.3	1	6.3	-	-	16
		6.0		1.6		2.8		11.1		-	4.9
5 Unskilled (traditional) (fishing/farming)	137	60.4	48	21.1	29	12.8	8	3.5	5	2.2	227
		63.1		78.7		80.6		88.9		100.0	69.2
6 Armed forces	15	88.2	1	5.9	1	5.9	-	-	-	-	17
		6.9		1.6		2.8		-		-	5.2
7 Unemployed	5	83.3	1	16.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
		2.3		1.6		-		-		-	1.8
TOTALS	217	66.2	61	18.6	36	11.0	9	2.7	5	1.5	328

not statistically significant.

Gender comparisons (table15a) show that males scored higher on "continuing with education" (61.6% compared to 38.4%). Tables 15b and 15c describe the responses of males and females separately. Among males, boys in the North region averaged highest with "continuing with education" (26.2% North, 25.75% South, and 15.1% Urban/West). In comparing the least interest in "continuing with education", the South region averaged 3.03%, when North and Urban/West both averaged 0.5%. With females, the Urban/West scored 34.4% while North scored 12.8% and South 19.2%. Nobody gave a negative response in the Urban/West. The other two regions averaged similarly at 2.4%.

On the "level of education aspired to" question; 19% aspired low (Form IV), 27% aspired to Form V and VI and 54% to university. Regional comparisons show a difference within regions (table 17) at the .05 level. Forty-five percent of the students in the North region aspired to university but only 17.5% to Form IV only. 24.4 percent aspired to university in the Urban/West and 30% in the South. The table can be read horizontally to show overall percentages and vertically to show column percentage. Table 18a explains the gender differences. Males seem to aspire more highly to university education (63.8% compared with 36.2% females). Differences were also observed at other levels too. 54.4 percent of the boys wanted to reach only Form IV level compared with 45.6% girls. At Form VI level, 59.6% of the boys showed desire to reach that level, compared with 40.4% girls. However, when making comparisons of boys separately from girls, at the three levels (Form IV, Form VI and university) boys scored 15.9% (Form IV); 27.2% (Form V-VI); 56.9% (university) while girls scored 20.8%; 28.8% and 50.4%, in similar order. This, however, does not show a statistically significant difference. Tables 18b & 18c compare males and females separately within regions. Both males and females in the North region aspire to university education more than do respondents in the other regions.

TABLE 17 ASPIRED LEVEL OF EDUCATION BY REGION

			ASPIRATION EDUCATIONAL LEVEL			ROW TOTALS
			FORM 4	FORM 5-6	UNIVERSITY	
REGION	URBAN/WEST	N	17	39	44	100
			27.0	43.3	24.4	30.0
	NORTH	N	11	19	82	112
			17.5	21.1	45.6	33.6
	SOUTH	N	63	90	180	121
			55.6	35.6	30.0	36.3
			63	90	180	100
		Column Totals	18.9	27.0	54.1	333

X^2 = 32.47 (4 df.) p = 0.05

TABLE 18a ASPIRED LEVEL OF EDUCATION BY GENDER

			ASPIRATION EDUCATIONAL LEVEL			ROW TOTALS
			FORM 4	FORM 5-6	UNIVERSITY	
GENDER	MALE	N	31	53	111	195
			54.4	59.6	63.8	61.0
	FEMALE	N	26	36	63	125
			45.6	40.4	36.2	39.1
			57	89	174	320
		Column Totals	17.8	27.8	54.4	100

X^2 = 1.69581 (2 df.) p = 0.05

TABLE 18b MALE ASPIRED LEVEL OF EDUCATION BY REGION

	EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	REGIONS									TOTAL
		URBAN/WEST			NORTH			SOUTH			
		N	Overall %	Level %	N	Overall %	Level %	N	Overall %	Level %	
ASPIRATION	FORM 4	7	3.58	22.5	6	3.07	19.35	18	9.23	58.06	99.91
	FORM 5-6	15	7.69	28.3	14	7.17	26.41	24	12.3	45.28	99.99
	UNIVERSITY	24	12.3	27.62	55	28.2	49.5	32	16.4	28.82	99.94
	Total	46			75			74			195

TABLE 18c FEMALE ASPIRED LEVEL OF EDUCATION BY REGION

	EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	REGIONS									TOTAL
		URBAN/WEST			NORTH			SOUTH			
		N	Overall %	Level %	N	Overall %	Level %	N	Overall %	Level %	
ASPIRATION	FORM 4	10	8.0	38.6	2	1.6	7.69	14	11.2	53.84	100.13
	FORM 5-6	24	19.2	66.66	5	4.0	13.88	7	5.6	19.44	99.98
	UNIVERSITY	19	15.2	30.15	24	19.2	38.09	20	16.0	31.74	99.98
	Total	53			31			41			125

TABLE 19 SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION ASPIRED TO

FATHER'S SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS	LEVEL OF EDUCATION						ROW TOTALS
	FORM 4		FORM 5-6		UNIVERSITY		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
1 Professional/administrative/ managerial	2	8.7	11	47.8	10	43.5	23
		3.4		12.4		5.6	7.1
2 Technical/skilled	1	16.7	2	33.3	3	50.0	6
		1.7		2.2		1.7	1.9
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	5	15.6	8	25.0	19	59.4	32
		8.6		9.0		10.7	9.9
4 Semi-skilled manual	5	31.6	6	37.5	5	31.3	16
		8.6		6.7		2.8	4.9
5 Unskilled (traditional) (fishing/farming)	42	18.8	56	25.0	126	56.3	224
		72.8		62.9		71.2	69.1
6 Armed forces	2	11.8	4	23.5	11	64.7	17
		3.4		4.5			5.2
7 Unemployed	1	16.7	2	33.3	3	50.0	6
		1.7		2.2		1.7	1.9
	58	17.9	89	27.5	177	54.6	324

Reasons for the Aspiration (tables 20, 21, 22a & 22b)

Further elaboration of aspirations was sought by enquiring into reasons. Six main reasons were revealed: security; knowledge; need of status and success; citizenship; social and family factors (elaboration of specific reasons are shown in Appendix H).

Table 20 compares males and females and reveals no statistically significant difference. Social factors took first priority for both males and females, followed by the desire to acquire knowledge. However, difference was noticed in the desire of gaining higher education for the sake of security. Males revealed greater need for security than females (6.9% cf 2.9%) and also for status/power and success (3.6% males cf 0.7% females). Loyalty and citizenship was found to be important for males (4.7% cf 2.2%).

Table 21 revealed significant difference at the 0.05 level, within regions. Urban/West disclosed the highest needs for self/social factors (22.2%) than the North and South (15.1% and 16.5%). The North region ranked knowledge highest (10.2%). South ranked 8.1% and Urban/West 4.9%. A similar pattern is noticed in the security reasons; North scored 4.2%, South 3.2% and Urban/West 2.1%. Higher education as a function of mobility was ranked highest by South at 2.5%. North scored 1.4% and Urban/West 0.7%. Similarly, citizenship was ranked in the same order (4.6%; 1.8% and 0.7%). Table 22a and 22b shows the differences between males and females separately.

Three more questions attempted to get further into reasons behind aspirations. These were in the form of the constructs "utility", "status" and "affect". The results are shown in profiles in figure 10 to 13. Figure 10 shows gender differences. In all three constructs males scored higher than females. Figure 11 shows regional differences. In the items dealing with knowledge and skills (utility) the southern region ranked the highest, followed by North and finally Urban/West . For the "status" and "affect" domains, the North region is the highest, followed by South and lastly Urban/West. Figure 12 combines gender and regions. There is a slight difference between males and females in Urban/West, while the difference in the other two regions is quite marked. In all three domains females' ranking was lower than that of males. Figure 13 summarises the responses of students from different socio-economic categories and indicates no significant differences between them.

TABLE 20 STUDENTS' REASONS FOR CONTINUING AT SCHOOL BY GENDER IN PERCENTAGES (N = 274)

SEX	1 SECURITY	2 KNOWLEDGE	3 STATUS/POWER/ SUCCESS	4 CITIZEN-SHIP	5 SELF/ SOCIAL	6 FAMILY	ROW TOTALS
1 FEMALE	2.9	9.1	0.7	2.2	23.7	0.7	39.4
	(8)	(25)	(2)	(6)	(65)	(2)	108
2 MALE	6.9	14.2	3.6	4.7	30.3	0.7	60.6
	(19)	(39)	(10)	(13)	(83)	(2)	164
Column Totals	27	64	12	19	148	4	274

X^2 = 5.61989 (5df.) p = 0.05

TABLE 21 STUDENTS' REASONS FOR CONTINUING AT SCHOOL BY REGION IN PERCENTAGES (N = 284)

REGIONS	1 SECURITY	2 KNOWLEDGE	3 STATUS/POWER/ SUCCESS	4 CITIZEN-SHIP	5 SELF/ SOCIAL	6 FAMILY	ROW TOTALS
Urban/ West	2.1	4.9	0.7	0.7	22.2	1.1	31.7
1	(6)	(14)	(2)	(2)	(63)	(3)	90
North	4.2	10.2	1.4	1.8	15.1	0.4	33.1
2	(12)	(29)	(4)	(5)	(43)	(1)	(94)
South	3.2	8.1	2.5	4.6	16.5	0.4	35.2
3	(9)	(23)	(7)	(13)	(47)	(1)	(100)
Column Totals	27	66	13	20	153	5	284

X^2 = 25.49984 (10 df.) p = 0.05

TABLE 22a REASONS FOR CONTINUING AT SCHOOL - MALE BY REGION

REGIONS		1 SECURITY	2 KNOWLEDGE	3 STATUS/POWER SUCCESS	4 CITIZEN-SHIP	5 SELF/ SOCIAL	6 FAMILY	ROW TOTALS
Urban/ West	N	3	6	1	2	25	1	38
	%	1.8	3.61	0.6	1.2	15.06	0.6	22.87
North	N	11	18	3	1	31	-	64
	%	6.62	10.84	1.8	0.6	18.67	-	38.53
South	N	5	15	6	10	27	1	64
	%	3.01	9.03	3.61	6.02	16.26	0.6	38.53
Column Totals	N	19	39	10	13	83	2	166
	%	11.43	23.48	6.01	7.82	49.99	1.2	99.93

TABLE 22b REASONS FOR CONTINUING AT SCHOOL - FEMALE BY REGION

REGIONS		1 SECURITY	2 KNOWLEDGE	3 STATUS/POWER/ SUCCESS	4 CITIZEN-SHIP	5 SELF/ SOCIAL	6 FAMILY	ROW TOTALS
Urban/ West	N	3	8	1	-	37	2	51
	%	2.77	7.4	0.92	-	34.2	1.85	47.14
North	N	1	10	-	4	10	-	25
	%	0.92	9.25	-	3.7	9.25	-	23.12
South	N	4	7	1	2	18	-	32
	%	3.70	6.48	0.92	1.85	16.6	-	29.55
Column Totals	N	8	25	2	6	65	2	108
	%	7.39	23.13	1.84	5.55	60.05	1.85	99.81

FIG. 12 GENDER REGIONAL PROFILES-REASONS FOR CONTINUING SCHOOL

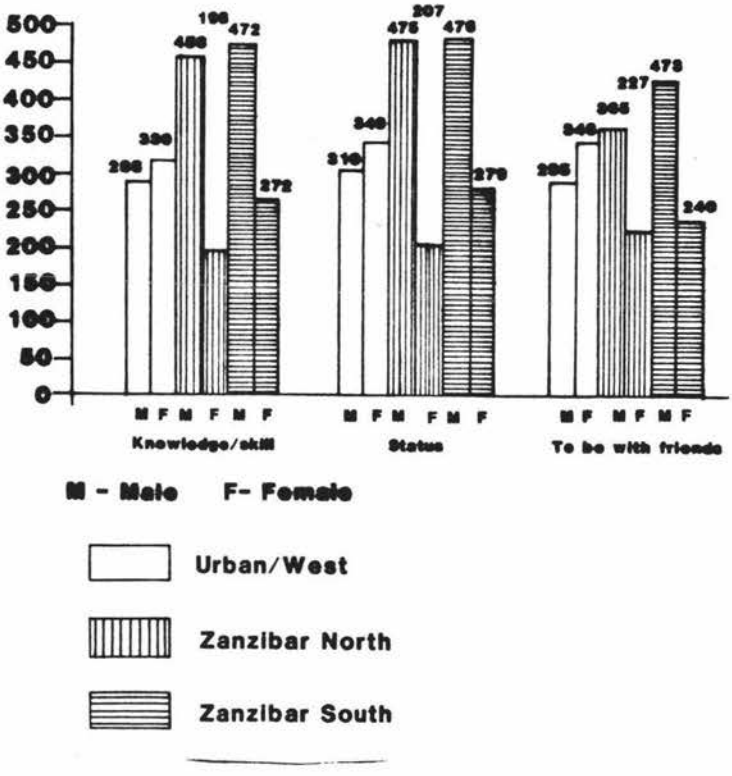
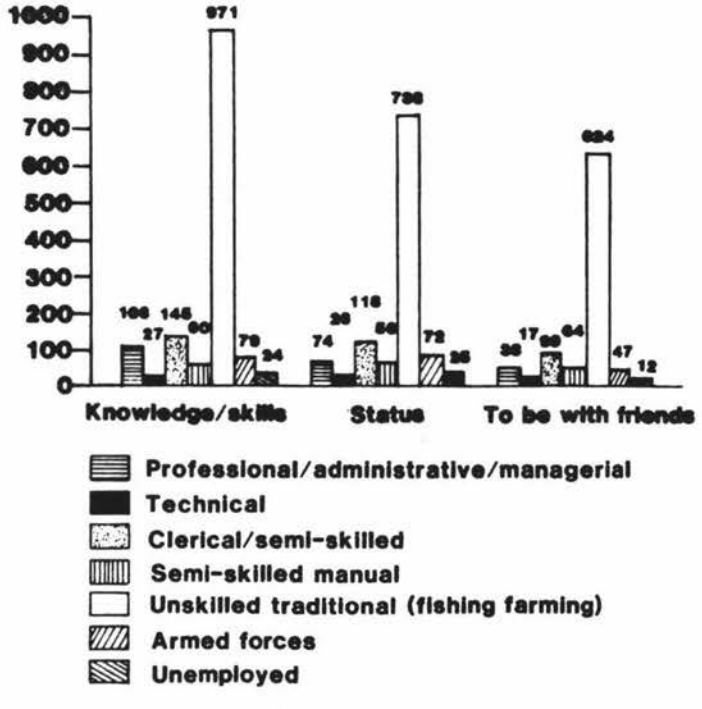


FIG. 13 SOCIO ECONOMIC STATUS PROFILES- REASON FOR CONTINUING SCHOOL



Parental Encouragement (Tables 23, 24 & 25)

Sixty-nine percent of the students indicated that their parents strongly wanted them to continue at school after Form III. Comparisons between boys and girls (table 23) indicate that boys get higher encouragement than girls (58.4% boys compared to 41.6% girls). No boy indicated a parent who did not want him to continue at all; while .9% of the girls gave that indication. There is a 0.05 significant difference between males and females (Chi Square 10.68). Between regions (table 24) the differences were highly significant which disappeared when the two high ratings (4 & 5) were combined. The incidence of low encouragement was merely characteristic of North and South regions; while the Urban/ West sample featured "some encouragement" to some extent.

Table 25 shows the extent of parents' encouragement according to socio-economic categories and revealed no statistical significance. With every socio-economic category the rate of encouragement is high; only .9% of the respondents indicated "low encouragement" from parents.

Vocational Aspiration (tables 26 to 29)

From an examination of the students' responses on jobs aspired to, six categories of jobs were derived. These were: professional/managerial and administrative; technical and skilled; clerical and semi-skilled; semi-skilled manual; unskilled traditional; and armed forces (specific jobs are shown in Appendix I).

Forty-five percent of the respondents aspired to high status and professional jobs; 8% to technical jobs; 21% to clerical jobs; 11% to semi-skilled manual jobs; 7% to unskilled traditional jobs; and the remaining 8% aspired to become members of the armed forces.

Table 26 indicates the regional distributions. In all three regions it seems students aspired to high status jobs, 14.3% (Urban/West), 16.5% (North) and 14.3% (South). The Urban/West students aspired higher on technical jobs (3.7%) compared to North and South (1.9% and 2.5% respectively). The Urban/West respondents aspired less for the unskilled traditional jobs which is the same level of percentage as for the armed forces. The North region scored 2.2% for unskilled and 4.4% for the armed forces; while South had 4.4% for unskilled and 3.1% for armed forces. The difference between regions is significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 23 PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT BY GENDER

			PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT					ROW
			5	4	3	2	1	TOTALS
GENDER	MALE	N	132	47	15	4	0	198
			58.4	70.1	78.9	50.0	0.0	61.3
	FEMALE	N	94	20	4	4	3	125
			41.6	29.9	21.1	50.0	100.0	38.7
	Column Totals		226	67	19	8	3	323
			70.0	20.7	5.9	2.5	0.9	100.0

$X^2 = 10.68576^*$ (4 df.) p = 0.05

TABLE 24 PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT BY REGION

			PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT					
			HIGH				LOW	ROW
			5	4	3	2	1	TOTALS
REGION	URBAN/ WEST	N	82	13	5	0	0	100
			35.2	18.3	25.0	0.0	0.0	29.7
	NORTH	N	68	36	3	5	1	113
			29.2	50.7	15.0	55.6	25.0	33.5
		N	83	22	12	4	3	124
			35.6	31.0	60.0	44.4	75.0	36.8
	Column Totals		233	71	20	9	4	337
			69.1	21.1	5.9	2.7	1.2	100.0

$X^2 = 25.8762$ (8 df.) p = 0.05

TABLE 25 PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT BY FATHERS' SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

		PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT					
		HIGH				LOW	ROW
		5	4	3	2	1	TOTALS
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	N	19	4	0	0	0	23
		8.3	5.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	70.0
2 Technical/skilled	N	5	1	0	0	0	6
		2.2	1.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.8
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	N	27	5	1	0	0	33
		11.8	7.2	5.3	0.0	0.0	10.1
4 Semi-skilled manual	N	12	3	1	0	0	16
		5.3	4.3	5.3	0.0	0.0	4.9
5 Unskilled traditional	N	147	53	16	9	3	228
		64.5	76.8	84.2	100.0	100.0	69.5
6 Armed forces	N	14	2	1	0	0	17
		6.1	2.9	5.3	0.0	0.0	5.2
7 Unemployed	N	4	1	0	0	0	5
		1.8	1.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.5
	N	228	69	19	9	3	328
	%	69.5	21.0	5.8	2.7	0.9	100.0

X^2 = 13.108 (24 df.) p = 0.05

TABLE 26 VOCATIONAL ASPIRATION BY REGION

JOB CATEGORIES/STATUS	URBAN/WEST		NORTH		SOUTH		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	46	14.3	53	16.5	46	14.3	145	45.2
		31.7		36.6		31.7		100
2 Technical/skilled	12	3.7	6	1.9	8	2.5	26	8.1
		46.2		23.1		30.8		100
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	24	7.5	18	5.6	27	8.4	69	21.5
		34.8		26.1		39.1		100
4 Semi-skilled manual	14	4.4	8	2.5	12	3.7	34	10.6
		41.2		23.5		35.3		100
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	1	0.3	7	2.2	14	4.4	22	6.9
		4.5		31.8		63.7		100
6 Armed forces	1	0.3	14	4.4	10	3.1	25	7.8
		4.0		56.0		40.0		100
	98	30.5	106	33.0	117	36.4	321	100

$X^2 = 27.52698^{*}$ (10df.) $p < 0.05$

TABLE 27 VOCATIONAL ASPIRATION BY GENDER

JOB CATEGORIES/STATUS	GENDER				TOTAL	
	MALE		FEMALE			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	60	19.5	76	24.7	136	44.2
		44.1		55.9		
2 Technical/skilled	14	4.5	12	3.9	26	8.4
		53.8		46.2		
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	44	13.3	23	7.5	67	21.8
		65.7		34.3		
4 Semi-skilled manual	25	8.1	9	2.9	34	11.0
		73.5		26.5		
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	17	5.5	4	1.3	21	6.8
		81.0		19.0		
6 Armed forces	24	7.8	0	0.0	24	7.8
		100.0		0.0		
	184	59.7	124	40.3	308	100.0

$X^2 = 37.947^{*}$ (5df.) $p = 0.05$

TABLE 28a VOCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS REGION BY GENDER

		REGIONS							
	GENDER	URBAN/ WEST		NORTH		SOUTH		TOTAL	
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	Male	15	11.0	27	19.9	18	13.2	60	44.1
	Female	30	22.1	22	16.2	24	17.6	76	55.9
2 Technical/skilled	Male	5	19.2	4	15.4	5	19.2	14	53.8
	Female	7	26.9	2	7.7	3	11.5	12	46.2
		12	46.2	6	23.1	8	30.8		
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	Male	13	19.4	10	14.9	21	31.3	44	65.7
	Female	11	16.4	7	10.4	5	7.5	23	34.3
		24	35.8	17	25.4	26	38.8		
4 Semi-skilled manual	Male	9	26.5	7	20.6	9	26.5	25	73.5
	Female	5	14.7	1	2.9	3	8.8	9	26.5
		14	41.2	8	23.5	12	35.3		
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	Male	1	4.8	7	33.3	9	42.9	17	81.0
	Female	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	19.0	4	19.0
		1	4.8	7	33.3	13	61.9		
6 Armed forces	Male	1	4.2	13	54.2	10	41.7	24	100.0
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		1	4.2	13	54.2	10	41.7	24	100.0
	Male	44		68		72		184	
	Female	53		32		39		124	
		97		100		113		310	

TABLE 28b MALE - VOCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS BY REGION

JOB CATEGORIES/STATUS	REGIONS									TOTAL
	URBAN/WEST			NORTH			SOUTH			
	N	Overall %	Regional Category %	N	Overall %	Regional Category %	N	Overall %	Regional Category %	
1 Professional/Managerial/ administrative	15	8.15	25.0	27	14.67	45.0	18	9.78	30.0	60
2 Technical/skilled	5	2.71	35.71	4	2.17	28.57	5	2.71	35.71	14
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	13	7.06	29.54	10	5.43	22.72	21	11.41	47.72	44
4 Semi-skilled manual	9	4.89	36.0	7	3.80	28.0	9	4.89	36.0	25
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	1	0.54	5.88	7	3.80	4.17	9	4.87	52.94	17
6 Armed forces	1	0.54	4.16	13	7.07	54.16	10	5.43	41.66	24
	44			68			72			184

TABLE 28c. FEMALE - VOCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS BY REGION

JOB CATEGORIES/STATUS	REGIONS									TOTAL
	URBAN/WEST			NORTH			SOUTH			
	N	Overall %	Regional Category %	N	Overall %	Regional Category %	N	Overall %	Regional Category %	
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	30	24.19	39.47	22	17.74	28.94	24	19.35	31.57	76
2 Technical/skilled	7	5.64	58.33	2	1.61	16.66	3	2.41	25.0	12
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	11	8.87	47.82	7	5.64	30.43	5	4.03	21.73	23
4 Semi-skilled manual	5	4.03	55.5	1	0.8	11.1	3	2.41	33.33	9
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	3.22	100.0	4
6 Armed forces	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
	53			32			39			124

TABLE 29 STUDENTS' VOCATIONAL ASPIRATION BY FATHERS' SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS (OCCUPATION) IN PERCENTAGES (N = 312)

FATHERS' SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS		STUDENTS' VOCATIONAL ASPIRATION (JOB STATUS)						ROW TOTALS
		1	2	3	4	5	6	
1	N	8	2	5	7	0	0	23
		5.7	7.7	7.2	21.9	0.0	4.3	7.4
2	N	2	1	3	0	0	0	6
		1.4	3.8	4.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.9
3	N	17	1	8	3	2	0	31
		12.1	3.8	11.6	9.4	9.5	0.0	9.9
4	N	6	3	5	2	0	0	16
		4.3	11.5	7.2	6.3	0.0	0.0	5.1
5	N	98	16	46	15	18	22	215
		70.0	61.5	66.7	46.9	85.7	91.7	68.9
6	N	6	2	2	4	1	1	16
		4.3	7.7	2.9	12.5	4.8	4.2	5.1
7	N	3	1	0	1	0	0	5
		2.1	3.8	0.0	3.1	0.0	0.0	1.6
		140	26	69	32	21	24	312
Column Totals		44.9	8.3	22.1	10.3	6.7	7.7	100

$X^2 = 38.51703$ (30 df.) $p = 0.05$

1. Professional/managerial/administrative
2. Skilled/technical
3. Semi-skilled clerical/skilled manual
4. Semi-skilled manual
5. Unskilled/traditional
6. Armed forces
7. Unemployed

The difference between males and females is shown in table 27 . On aspiration for high status (professional) jobs, females ranked higher (24.7%) compared to males (19.5%). For technical jobs, the proportion of males was 4.5% and females 3.9%. However, on the other categories, females aspired less than did males. No girl aspired for armed forces. Further interpretations of the results are shown in table where gender and region are combined. Females in the Urban/ West region show higher aspiration for the high status professional (22.1%) and technical jobs (26.9%) than do all males and females of other regions. However a combination of males and females within regions indicates that; North region respondents aspired most to high professional jobs (33.1%), males and females of Urban/West aspired most to technical jobs (46.2%). Females compared to males aspired to unskilled jobs. In the South region, however,19.0% of the females would like to be in unskilled jobs.

Regional male differences are in table 28b. The males in the North region aspire most to high status jobs (14.67%) and less to technical, clerical and semi-skilled manual jobs. Eleven percent of the South region respondents aspired to clerical jobs. This compares to Urban/West 7.06% and North 5.4%. The Urban males aspired less to farming and armed forces (0.54% in each case). Twenty-four percent of females in the Urban/West aspired to professional, technical and clerical jobs. This compares with 5.64% and 8.87% in other regions. However, no girls aspired to become members of the armed forces (table 28c).

Table 29 shows distribution based on the socio-economic categories. No students with high socio-economic parents aspired to unskilled jobs. By comparison, nearly six percent of respondents with unskilled parents (5.8%) did however. The results also show that respondents with unemployed parents aspired only to professional and technical jobs but not to unskilled jobs.

Vocational Expectation (Tables 30-33)

In answering the question on the type of jobs expected; 49% "expected" to get into professional jobs; 2% into skilled jobs; 17% into clerical jobs; 14% into semi-skilled manual jobs; 6% into unskilled jobs and 10% into the armed forces. However, 2% expected to be unemployed. Nineteen percent of the respondents in the North region expected to get

TABLE 30 VOCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS BY REGION

VOCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS JOB CATEGORIES/STATUS	REGION 1 URBAN/WEST		REGION 2 NORTH		REGION 3 SOUTH		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	41	15.5	50	18.9	39	14.7	130	49.1
		31.5		38.5		30.0		100
2 Technical/skilled	0	0.0	1	0.4	3	1.1	4	1.5
		0.0		25.0		75.0		100
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	20	7.5	15	5.7	11	4.2	46	17.4
		43.5		32.6		23.9		100
4 Semi-skilled manual	14	5.3	9	3.4	13	4.9	36	13.6
		38.9		25.0		36.1		100
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	2	0.8	5	1.9	10	3.8	17	6.4
		11.8		29.4		58.8		100
6 Armed forces	5	1.9	10	3.8	12	4.5	27	10.2
		18.5		37.0		44.4		100
7 Unemployed	0	0.0	3	1.1	2	0.8	5	1.9
		0.0		60.0		40.0		100
	82	31.0	93	35.2	90	34.0	265	100

X^2 = 19.99162 (12df.) p = 0.05

TABLE 31 VOCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS BY GENDER

VOCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS JOB CATEGORIES/STATUS	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	56	22.0	68	26.8	124	48.8
		45.2		54.8		
2 Technical/skilled	3	1.2	1	0.4	4	1.6
		75.0		25.0		
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	21	8.3	25	9.8	46	18.1
		45.7		54.3		
4 Semi-skilled manual	26	10.2	8	3.1	34	13.4
		76.5		23.5		
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	16	6.3	1	0.4	17	6.7
		94.1		5.9		
6 Armed forces	19	7.5	5	2.0	24	9.4
		79.2		20.8		
7 Unemployed	5	2.0	0	0.0	5	2.0
		100.0		0.0		
	146	57.5	104	42.5	254	100

X^2 = 31.50536* (6 df.) p = 0.05

TABLE 32a VOCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS REGION BY GENDER

VOCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS JOB CATEGORIES/STATUS	GENDER	REGION 1		REGION 2		REGION 3		TOTAL	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	Male	16	12.9	24	19.4	16	12.9	56	45.2
	Female	25	20.2	23	18.5	20	16.1	68	54.8
		41	33.1	47	37.9	36	29.0		
2 Technical/skilled	Male	-	-	1	25.0	2	50.0	3	75.0
	Female	-	-	0	0.0	1	25.0	1	25.0
		-	-	1	25.0	3	75.0		
3 Clerical semi-skilled	Male	6	13.0	9	19.6	6	13.0	21	45.7
	Female	14	30.4	6	13.0	5	10.9	25	54.3
		20	43.5	15	32.6	11	23.9		
4 Semi-skilled manual	Male	9	26.5	7	20.6	10	29.4	26	76.5
	Female	5	14.7	1	2.9	2	5.9	8	23.5
		14	41.2	8	23.5	12	35.3		
5 Unskilled traditional	Male	2	11.8	5	29.4	9	52.9	16	94.1
	Female	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	5.9	1	5.9
		2	11.8	5	29.4	10	58.8		
6 Armed forces	Male	1	4.2	8	33.3	10	41.7	19	79.2
	Female	4	16.7	0	0.0	1	4.2	5	20.8
		5	20.9	8	33.3	11	45.8		
7 Unemployed	Male	-	-	3	60.0	2	40.0	5	100.0
	Female	-	-	-	-	-	-		
				3	60.0	2	40.0	5	
Total	Male	34		57		55		146	
	Female	48		30		30		108	
		82		87		85		254	

TABLE 32b MALE - VOCATIONAL EXPECTATION BY REGION

JOB CATEGORIES/STATUS	REGIONS									TOTAL
	URBAN/WEST			NORTH			SOUTH			
	No	Overall %	Regional Category %	No	Overall %	Regional Category %	No	Overall %	Regional Category %	
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	16	10.9	28.57	24	16.43	42.85	16	10.9	28.57	56
2 Technical/skilled	-	-	-	1	0.68	33.3	2	1.36	66.66	3
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	6	4.1	28.57	9	6.16	42.85	6	4.1	28.57	21
4 Semi-skilled manual	9	6.16	34.61	7	4.79	26.92	10	6.84	38.46	26
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	2	1.36	12.5	5	3.42	31.25	9	6.16	56.25	16
6 Armed forces	1	0.68	5.26	8	5.47	42.1	10	6.84	52.63	19
7 Unemployed	-	-	-	3	2.05	60.0	2	1.36	40	5
	34			57			55			146

TABLE 32c FEMALE - VOCATIONAL EXPECTATION BY REGION

JOB CATEGORIES/STATUS	REGIONS									TOTAL
	URBAN/WEST			NORTH			SOUTH			
	No	Overall %	Regional Category %	No	Overall %	Regional Category %	No	Overall %	Regional Category %	
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	25	23.14	36.76	23	21.29	33.82	20	18.51	29.41	68
2 Technical/skilled	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.92	100.0	1
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	14	12.96	56.0	6	5.55	24.0	5	4.62	20.0	25
4 Semi-skilled manual	5	4.62	62.5	1	0.92	12.5	2	1.85	25.0	8
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.92	100	1
6 Armed forces	4	3.70	75.0	-	-	-	1	0.92	25.0	5
7 Unemployed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	48			30			30			108

TABLE 33 STUDENTS' VOCATIONAL EXPECTATION BY FATHERS' SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS (OCCUPATION) IN PERCENTAGES (N = 259)

FATHERS' SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS		STUDENTS VOCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS (JOB STATUS)							ROW TOTALS
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1	N	12	0	4	3	0	0	0	19
		9.5	0.0	8.7	8.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.3
2	N	4	0	2	0	0	0	0	6
		3.2	0.0	4.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.3
3	N	16	0	3	4	3	1	0	27
		12.7	0.0	6.5	11.4	17.6	3.8	0.0	10.4
4	N	5	0	3	3	0	0	0	11
		4.0	0.0	6.5	8.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.2
5	N	80	4	31	22	14	23	4	178
		63.5	100.0	67.4	62.9	82.4	88.5	80.0	68.7
6	N	7	0	3	2	0	1	1	14
		5.6	0.0	6.5	5.7	0.0	3.8	20.0	5.4
7	N	2	0	0	1	0	1	0	4
		1.6	0.0	0.0	2.9	0.0	3.8	0.0	1.5
Column Totals		126	4	46	35	17	26	5	259
		48.6	1.5	17.8	13.5	6.6	10.0	1.9	100.0

$X^2 = 25.61265$ (36 df.) $p = 0.05$

1. Professional/managerial/administrative
2. Skilled/technical
3. Semi-skilled clerical/skilled manual
4. Semi-skilled manual
5. Unskilled traditional
6. Armed forces
7. Unemployed

into professional jobs while none in the Urban/West expected to get into technical jobs. 7.5% in the Urban/West expected to get into clerical jobs. However, none in the Urban area expected to be unemployed. This compares with 1.1% in North and 0.8% in the South (Table 30).

Table 31 shows the gender comparisons. The difference is statistically significant at the .05 level. Girls (26.8%) expected to get more into professional jobs than boys (22.0%). However, fewer girls expected to get into technical jobs (0.4%) or unskilled and semi-skilled manual jobs. More did expect to get into clerical and semi-skilled jobs. None of the girls expected to be unemployed. This compares with 2.0% boys. The two categories of jobs, most girls expected to be in are professional and clerical jobs. Table 32a shows regional differences by gender. It indicates the same pattern of differences as of the tables 30 and 31.

Male differences between regions is shown in table 32b. The table indicates no difference among males from the different regions - except that none in the Urban/West region expected to be employed in technical jobs (0.68%) or in armed forces.

Females, however (table 32c) show high diversity. Only girls in the South region (.92%) expected to be employed in the technical jobs. Girls in the Urban region expected to be employed in the clerical jobs (12.9% compared to 5.5% and 4.6% in the North and South respectively). Urban girls also expect to get into semi-skilled manual jobs 4.6% compared to 0.92% and 1.85% in the North and South respectively. Nearly 4% of the females in the Urban/West region expected to be employed in armed forces, compared to none in the North and .92% in the South.

When job expected categories are related to socio-economic origin (table 33) respondents from homes with unskilled parents ranked high in every category of jobs and also in expecting unemployment. None of the respondents with unemployed parents expected to be unemployed. No significant differences were found between respondents falling in different socio-economic categories.

Reasons for expected jobs (tables 34-35c)

Students were asked about the reasons for their job expectations. The reasons ranged from on the one hand, environmental and social,

TABLE 34 STUDENTS' REASONS FOR EXPECTED JOBS BY GENDER, IN PERCENTAGES (N = 222)

SEX		REASONS					ROW TOTALS
		1 ENVIRONMENTAL/ SOCIAL FACTORS	2 FAMILY	3 CITIZENSHIP/ SERVICE	4 ABILITIES/SKILL/ INTEREST/ KNOWLEDGE	5 ECONOMIC FACTORS	
1 MALE	N	11	0	18	59	2	90
		42.3	0.0	42.9	41.3	0.9	40.5
2 FEMALE	N	16	3	24	84	5	13
		57.7	100.0	57.1	58.7	71.4	59.5
Column Totals		26	3	42	143	7	222
		12.2	1.4	18.9	64.4	3.2	100.0

X^2 = 3.30108 (5 df.) p = 0.05

TABLE 35 STUDENTS' REASONS FOR EXPECTED JOB BY REGION, IN PERCENTAGES (N = 231)

REGION		REASONS					ROW TOTALS
		1 ENVIRONMENTAL/ SOCIAL FACTORS	2 FAMILY	3 CITIZENSHIP/ SERVICE	4 ABILITIES/SKILL/ INTEREST/ KNOWLEDGE	5 ECONOMIC FACTORS	
1 URBAN/ WEST	N	9	0	7	56	1	7
		29.6	0.0	16.3	37.3	14.3	31.6
2 NORTH	N	7	0	25	44	2	78
		25.9	0.0	58.1	29.3	28.6	33.8
3 SOUTH	N	12	3	11	50	4	80
		44.4	100.0	25.6	33.3	57.1	34.6
Column Totals		27	3	43	150	7	231
		12.3	1.3	18.6	64.9	3.0	100

X^2 = 25.12877* (10 df.) p = 0.05

TABLE 35b REASONS FOR EXPECTED JOBS - MALE BY REGION

		1 ENVIRONMENTAL/ SOCIAL FACTORS	2 FAMILY	3 CITIZENSHIP/ SERVICE	4 ABILITIES/SKILLS/ INTEREST/ KNOWLEDGE	5 ECONOMIC FACTORS	6	ROW TOTALS
Urban/ West	N	4	-	2	24	-	1	31
	%	3.03	-	1.51	18.18	-	0.75	23.47
North	N	4	-	16	27	1	-	48
	%	3.03	-	12.12	20.45	0.75	-	36.35
South	N	7	3	6	33	4	-	53
	%	5.3	2.27	4.54	25.0	3.03	-	40.14
Column Totals	N	15	3	24	84	5	1	132
	%	11.36	2.27	18.17	63.63	3.78	0.75	99.96

TABLE 35c REASONS FOR EXPECTED JOBS- FEMALE BY REGION

REGIONS		1 ENVIRONMENTAL/ SOCIAL FACTORS	2 FAMILY	3 CITIZENSHIP/ SERVICE	4 ABILITIES/SKILLS/ INTEREST/ KNOWLEDGE	5 ECONOMIC FACTORS	6	ROW TOTALS
Urban/ West	N	4	-	5	32	-	-	42
	%	4.44	-	5.5	35.55	1.11	-	46.65
North	N	2	-	9	14	1	-	26
	%	2.22	-	10.0	15.55	1.11	-	28.88
South	N	5	-	4	13	-	-	22
	%	5.55	-	4.44	14.44	-	-	24.43
Column Totals	N	11	-	18	59	2	-	90
	%	12.21	-	19.99	65.54	2.22	-	99.96

family, service and citizenship abilities and interest, to on the other hand economic factors. (Specific reasons appear in Appendix K). There were no significant differences between males and females (table 34), however girls did not show any ties with family reasons (males 1.4%, females 0%). Abilities/skill/interest and knowledge took a greater proportion of the scores. Males scored 58.7% and females 41.3%. Boys also, thought more of economic factors by scoring 2.3% to .9% of females.

Statistically significant differences (table 35a) were achieved however in the regional comparison (Chi Square) 25.12 with p less than 0.05). It was noteworthy that none of the respondents in the North and Urban regions stressed "family" reasons. North region respondents ranked citizenship and service highest (58.1% compared with Urban/West 16.2% and South 25.6%). The highest rank for all three regions was given to Category 4, abilities to do the job, knowledge, skill and interest.

Table 35b compares male responses by regions. Urban/West males emphasised abilities, skills, knowledge and interest (18.18%), environmental factors 3.03% and citizenship and service 1.51%. The North region males put emphasis on citizenship and service 12.12%; environmental factors 3.03%; abilities, skills, knowledge and interest 20.45% and 0.75% for economic factors, thus making a sum of 36.35%. South region males' reasons were economic factors (3.03%); abilities, skills, knowledge and interest 25.0%; family reasons 2.27%; 5.3% for social factors and 4.5% for other services and citizenship.

Girls on the other hand (table 35c) recorded no commitment to family reasons at all. The Urban/West females rated abilities/interest the highest among the three regions, 37.3% compared to 29.3% North and 33.3% South. Social factors were rated highest in the South (44.4%) followed by Urban/West (29.6%) and finally North (25.9%). The service and citizenship reasons were highest in the North (58.1%), while Urban/West rated 16.3% and 25.6% for the South. Economic factors were important to Urban/West (14.3%) and North (28.6%) but not to the South.

Discrepancy between aspired and expected jobs (tables 36 and 37)

The discrepancy between aspired and expected jobs by regions is shown in table 36. The table can be read horizontally to see the difference between regions (aspired vs expected), and vertically to find the difference between categories.

TABLE 36 COMPARISON BETWEEN ASPIRED AND EXPECTED JOBS BY REGION

	URBAN/WEST				NORTH				SOUTH			
	ASPIRED		EXPECTED		ASPIRED		EXPECTED		ASPIRED		EXPECTED	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1 Professional/managerial/ administrative	46	46.93	41	50.0	53	50.0	50	53.76	46	39.31	39	43.33
		31.7		31.5		36.6		38.5		31.7		30.0
2 Technical/skilled	12	12.24	0	0.0	6	5.66	1	1.07	8	6.83	3	3.33
		46.2		0.0		23.1		25.0		30.8		75.0
3 Clerical/semi-skilled	24	24.48	20	24.39	18	16.98	15	16.12	27	23.03	11	12.22
		34.8		43.5		26.1		32.6		39.1		23.9
4 Semi-skilled manual	14	14.28	14	17.07	8	7.40	9	9.67	12	10.25	13	14.44
		41.2		38.9		23.5		25.0		35.3		36.1
5 Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	1	1.02	2	2.43	7	6.48	5	5.37	14	11.96	10	11.11
		4.5		11.8		31.8		29.4		6.37		58.8
6 Armed forces	1	1.02	5	6.09	14	13.20	10	10.75	10	8.54	12	13.33
		4.0		18.5		56.0		37.0		40.0		44.4
7 Unemployed	-		0	0.0	-	-	3	3.22	-	-	2	2.22
				0.0				60.0				40.0
	98	99.97	82	99.98	106	99.72	93	99.96	117	99.96	90	99.98

TABLE 37 COMPARISON BETWEEN ASPIRED AND EXPECTED JOBS BY GENDER

	JOB CATEGORIES/STATUS	MALE				FEMALE			
		ASPIRED		EXPECTED		ASPIRED		EXPECTED	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	Professional/managerial administrative	60	32.6 44.1	56	38.35 45.2	76	61.2 55.9	68	62.96 54.8
2	Skilled/technical	14	7.6 53.8	3	2.05 75.0	12	9.6 46.2	1	0.92 25.0
3	Clerical/semi-skilled	44	23.9 65.7	21	14.38 45.7	23	18.54 34.3	25	23.14 54.3
4	Semi-skilled manual	25	13.58 73.5	26	17.8 76.5	9	7.25 26.5	8	7.4 23.5
5	Unskilled traditional (farming/fishing)	17	9.2 81.0	16	10.95 94.1	4	3.2 19.0	1	0.92 5.9
6	Armed forces	24	13.0 100.0	19	13.01 79.2	-	-	5	4.62 20.8
7	Unemployed	-		5	3.42 100.0	-	-	-	-
		184	99.88	146	99.6	124	99.95	108	99.96

In the professional jobs, for all three regions, it seems there is a higher expectation than aspiration. The technical jobs show reverse of the above; especially for the Urban/West region where 12.2% aspired for these jobs and none expected to get into them. In the clerical category, there is not much difference in Urban/West and North regions, but discrepancy is high in the South where 23.0% aspired to this category but only 12.2% expected to get into the jobs.

Respondents from all three regions seemed to expect to get into skilled manual jobs (the percentage of expected jobs is higher than aspired jobs). Respondents in the Urban/West showed a higher expectancy for unskilled jobs than did respondents from other regions (1.02% aspired; 2.43% expected).

With respect to armed forces jobs North region respondents expected less than they aspired to (10.75% compared to 13.2%), while the percentage for the Urban/West sample's aspirations is just above 1% while expectations are 6%. The 8.54% is similar for the South (expectations 13.3%; aspirations 8.54%).

Table 37 shows discrepancies by gender. Professional and technical categories do not show differences between males and females. Both males and females showed higher expectations to professional jobs (males aspired 32.6% and expected 38.35%; females aspired 61.2% and expected 62.9%), however, the discrepancy is greater for males than for females. Another difference appears in clerical/semi-skilled jobs where female expectations are higher than that of males.

Some interesting conclusions could be drawn from the general results. Nonetheless, the objective of this section was to give a broad overview. However, the findings suggest the existence of differences between gender and also among regions.

An attempt to answer specific questions relating to these differences will be made in the following section.

SECTION II

In this section the results of the analysis will be presented in this order: (i) summary of the findings on the independent variables (ii) the hypotheses listed in Chapter II.

Independent variables: The three independent variables used in the study will be examined in this sub-section. These are: gender, location of residence and socio-economic status. The purpose is to draw out differences and similarities.

(i) Gender

Male - Female similarities and differences: The proportion of the male and female students in the sample is worth noting. The ratio of males to females was almost 2:I. The final percentage were 39% females and 61% males.

Attitudes towards school: The respondents' attitudes towards school was derived from a question indicating the extent of liking for school (table II). The test for statistical significance between the two sex groups did not reach the .05 level. However, close examination of the overall score of all males and females indicated girls to have a slightly greater liking of school than boys (85.0% cf 76.0%). One girl also indicated total dislike of school. No boy gave that indication.

Reasons for being in school: Figure 3a and 3b reflect no differences in the reasons males and females gave for being in school. The profiles in figures 3a and 3b which give a pictorial overview of the "uses" of school in terms of "utility", "affect" and "status" show similar trends for males and females. The "utility" index was highest for both boys and girls, followed by "status" index and finally by the "affect" index. However, proportionately males scored slightly higher than females.

Continuing at school: The responses to the question of "extent of liking to continue with school" (table 15a) did not produce any statistically significant differences at the .05 level. Almost all observed cell frequencies for males were greater than for females.

Aspired level of education: Boys scored higher than girls at all three levels of education (Form 4: 54.4% cf 45.6%; Forms 5-6: 59.6% cf 40.84%; University: 63.8% cf 36.2%). The greatest difference was observed in the sample's aspiration to attend university where the percentage of males was much higher than that for girls.

Reasons for continuing at school: Results showed that both boys and girls had similar reasons (table 20 and 22 mapped in figure 10). Both males and females indicated their reasons in the same order: (i) knowledge and skill first, (ii) status second and (iii) to be with friends third (utility, status and affect).

Parental encouragement: Parental encouragement was found to be higher for males than for females. Table 23 reveals a statistically significant gender effect (X^2 = 10.68, 10.68, df 4, p = < .05). The difference does not appear at the highest level of encouragement but at the lowest level. No boy indicated complete lack of encouragement while 2.4% of the girls indicated that.

Vocational aspirations: Differences between males and females were discerned in vocational aspirations (X^2 = 37.94; df = 5; p = < .05). An examination of all the frequencies reveals that proportionately more girls aspired to professional occupations than boys.

Vocation expectations: Similar differences were also found in vocational expectations. Table 31 reveals a statistically significant gender effect for vocational expectations (X^2 = 33.50; df = 6; p = < .05). More girls expected to get into professional jobs than boys (63.0% cf 38.4% for boys and girls respectively). A similar trend was found for clerical jobs. Substantial differences were found in the armed forces category and unemployed category. More boys expected to join the armed forces than girls (13.0% cf 4.6%). No girls expected to be unemployed while 3.4% of the boys expected so.

Reasons for expected jobs: Table 34 shows that there were no statically significant differences between males and females in the reasons for their expected jobs. The greatest difference observed, among all frequencies was in family reasons, where no girl indicated this aspect as a reason for expected job (2.3% boys cf 0.0% girls).

Relevance of School Subjects: Again no statistically significant difference was observed with respect to relevance of school subjects and curriculum on the whole, to the working life. However, the ranking scores of subjects differed between boys and girls in almost all subjects except history. Girls ranked languages higher than did boys (English language 29.1% cf 14.5%; Kiswahili 9.6% cf 8.2%; girls and boys respectively). On the other hand boys scored higher in science subjects and mathematics except biology (27.5% girls cf 16.4%). At the low level of ranking, no difference was observed except in Education for Self Reliance; where more girls indicated less importance (38.1% girls cf 24.6% boys).

Stated Needs: A statistically significant difference at .05 level was observed in the results of the questions about what the students would like to see more of at school. More males wanted the school to provide them with knowledge and higher learning while females wanted more useful skills (47.6% cf 21.4% knowledge and 12.2% cf 18.8% skills for males and females respectively).

Teacher Ratings: Teacher ratings of students' chances of continuing with education, showed no difference between male and female students.

Summary

The main picture that emerges from the gender findings is that boys and girls have much in common, for example, both boys and girls indicated similar reasons for their attitudes towards school and also for continuing after the third form. Similarly both boys and girls did not indicate any differences in the reasons for their expected jobs or the relevance of school subjects and the total curriculum.

On the other hand, though no statistically significant difference was found, boys showed a greater liking for school than girls. They also aspired more to university level education than girls. Parental encouragement was found to be lower amongst girls than boys. With regard to vocational aspirations and expectations differences were found between boys and girls. Girls expect to get into professional occupations more than boys. Finally boys showed the need for more knowledge while girls wanted school to provide them with skills.

(ii) Location of Residence

Urban-Rural Similarities and Differences: Urban-rural comparisons will be presented together with regional differences and similarities (Urban/West; North; South). Where necessary, gender uniformities and differences between regions will be pointed out.

Attitude towards School: Urban and rural pupils were very similar in the extent of their liking for school. The statistical test of significance did not reach .05 level (table 12). An examination of cell frequencies shows that the South region (rural) indicated less liking. Sex differences were also noted between regions. Table 13a shows rural males had higher attitudes than did urban males (rural males 29%, urban males 18%). Table 13b shows reverse trends, females in the urban region scored the highest (37.6%) compared to North and South which had similar scores of 22.4%.

Reasons for being in School: A combination of nine items provided the basis for interpreting reasons for being in school. Similarities between urban and rural were observed in the importance of the three "uses". Both rural and urban indicated "utility" as first, "affect" as second, and "status" third. However, the scores were not proportionately equal. The two rural regions scored higher in both "utility" and "status". In the "affect" index, Zanzibar South (rural) was the lowest. For male regional comparisons, the rural students ranked all three "uses" higher than urban males. The opposite was found for females (figures 2a & b; 4 & 5).

Continuing at School: The extent of liking to continue at school was generally similar for both rural and urban groups. The high responses of the rural sample were almost similar and lower than the urban sample (63.7% and 62.9% rural; 73.0% urban). Furthermore, fewer students expressed the intention of not continuing at school in the urban region (1.0%) while 3.6% and 8.0% did in North and South respectively (rural regions). Table 12 indicates no statistically significant difference. Males and females, tables 15b and 15c respectively show similar results. A statistically significant regional effect for males and females for the extent of liking school ($X^2 = 20.62$, df = 2, p = <.05) at a very high level of liking was revealed. No differences were observed at other levels.

Aspired Level of Education: In addition to exhibiting differences in the extent of continuing at school, the groups showed differences in the level of education aspired to. Table 14 reveals a statistically significant difference relating to how much further the groups would like to continue at school ($X^2 = 32.47$, df = 4, p = <.05). Close examination of the cell frequencies shows that Zanzibar North (rural) aspired more to university level of education (73.2% cf 44.6% South and 44.0% Urban). In comparing rural and urban males, the findings indicate that rural boys aspired more to go to university than did the urban boys (table 18b). This is markedly noticeable in the North. The same trend is observed with girls, but the difference is not as great as with the boys (table 18c).

Reasons for Continuing at School: The reasons given by students from the different localities yielded a statistically significant difference at the .05 level. In the breakdown of the reasons into categories, the differences between urban and rural appeared in six categories (security, knowledge, status, citizenship, self/social and family). Rural groups scored higher in security, knowledge, status and citizenship than did the urban group but the self/social category and family reasons category show the opposite result (table 21). The differences were not observed when comparing males only from urban and rural areas.

Scores from 9 questions were combined and mapped out as profiles. The profiles (figure 11) were grouped in terms of knowledge and skill (utility); status and to be with friends (affect). The pattern of these profiles is consistent for urban and rural. In all three "uses" urban scores were lower than the rural scores. However, differences did exist in the two rural groups. The North region ranked higher in "status" and "affect" but lower in "utility" than the Southern region. In the comparison of gender-regional profiles (figure 12) differences were observed in the urban groups. Females scored higher than males. The opposite was true for the rural groups, of both North and South regions.

Parental Encouragement: A statistically significant difference at the .05 level was revealed between regions. The examination of the cell frequencies indicates that the urban sample scored higher (82%) than rural samples (60.2% and 66.9%). Similarly, no one indicated lack of

encouragement in the urban region, while 5.3% and 5.6% indicated that in the North and South respectively.

Vocational Aspiration: Table 26 reveals a statistically significant difference at .05 level for vocational aspiration between regions. The main differences were observed in unskilled/traditional jobs and the armed forces. In both categories a higher proportion of students from the rural areas than from urban areas indicated aspiration to be in these categories (Unskilled jobs: North 6.6%, South 12.0%, Urban 1%; Armed forces: North 13.2%, South 8.5%, Urban 1.0%). Very slight differences were to be found in other categories. Tables 28b and 28c compare males and females respectively. For males a pattern, similar to the overall findings was observed. For females differences were revealed in categories two to five (viz.: 2. skilled/technical; 3. semi-skilled clerical; 4. semi-skilled manual; 5. unskilled traditional).

Vocational Expectations: No statistical difference was found when comparisons between regions were made in vocational expectations (table 30). However, differences were observed when males were compared in different categories between regions (table 32b). Similar differences were observed in females (table 32c). However, neither males nor females in the urban region expected to be unemployed, while males in the rural areas expected to be unemployed (Males: Urban 0.0%; North 2.05%; South 1.36%; Females: Urban 0.0%; North 0.0%; South 0.0%).

Reasons for Expected Jobs: Table 35a reveals a statistically significant regional effect in the reasons for expected jobs. However, these differences cannot be compared between urban and rural because of the inconsistency of the pattern of category scores. Almost similar scores were observed between urban and South in the abilities/skill/interest/knowledge category. The North scored lower (19.0%) compared to 24.2% and 21.6% for urban and South respectively. The same pattern but in the opposite direction appeared for citizenship and service. North had the greatest score of 10.8% compared to 3% and 4.8% for urban and South respectively. North and urban did not have any family reasons while South had 1.3%. The patterns were also repeated when comparing males and females of the three regions.

Discrepancy between Aspired and Expected Jobs: Similar results were observed in the professional jobs category in the three regions, when "aspired to" and "expected" jobs were compared. The aspired job score percentages and the expected job score percentages were almost similar (table 36). The Urban sample did not expect to get into any technical jobs while the rural sample expectations were higher than their aspirations (aspired to cf expected - Urban: 46.2%/0/0%; North: 23.1%/25.0%; South: 30.8%/75.0%). Another interesting feature relates to unskilled traditional jobs; the urban sample had a discrepancy of expectations against aspirations of 7.3%, while the rural groups had 2.4% (North) and 4.9% (South) in the opposite direction.

Relevance of School Subjects: In responding to the relevance of the school subjects History, Geography and Kiswahili were found to be similar in the three regions. Urban-rural differences were observed in political education, education for self reliance and English. The results were found to be statistically significant at .05 level. The first two subjects were ranked as very important by the rural samples while English was ranked as very important by the urban sample. Science subjects and Mathematics comparisons also yielded statistically significant differences at .05 level. However, the differences were more between regions than between urban and rural.

Stated Needs: A statistically significant effect for stated needs was revealed between urban and rural students (X^2 = 17.59469 df. = 2, p = <.05. The rural samples indicated need of more knowledge to cope with their future working life while the urban samples indicated the need of skills.

Teacher Ratings: In comparing the ratings of teachers among regions, it was observed that the ratings were statistically significant at .05 level. Urban and South had almost similar scores (47.5% and 49.3% respectively), while North was rated the highest at 67.6%. This was in terms of students' performance and possibilities of continuing with further education after Form III.

Summary

In brief, the findings indicated similarities and differences between rural and urban as well as within regions.

Similarities were found in the overall samples' extent of liking school which was also reflected in the samples' perception of the "use" of school as well as the intention of continuing at school after Form III. Certain similarities were also observed in the students' vocational aspirations and expectations.

On the other hand, urban-rural differences as well as regional differences were observed. Urban females had the most favourable attitudes towards school. When comparing the males, boys from the rural regions had more favourable attitudes than those from the Urban/West. Both male and female students in the South showed less favourable attitudes toward school than those in other regions. Differences were also observed in the level of education aspired to. Boys and girls in the North, aspired more to university education than any other group. Four categories of reasons for continuing at school showed some differences. The rural sample had higher scores in (i) security, (ii) knowledge, (iii) status and (iv) citizenship. The urban sample attributed more importance to self/social and family reasons. Students in the urban region indicated higher levels of encouragement from parents than the rural students did, similarities were found in the scores of the categories of jobs aspired to and expected. Students in the rural areas expected to go more into the unskilled jobs and armed forces. Rural males also expected to be unemployed. Finally rural students indicated a need for knowledge while the urban students wanted to be provided with skills.

iii) Socio-economic Status: Table 7 shows the distribution of the sample in terms of fathers' or guardians' occupation. The table reveals that the sample differs among regions and also between urban and rural areas. 69.2% of the students came from homes with parents who have unskilled jobs. Most of these were in the rural areas (87% of the category total). The table also shows that most of the parents in category 1 (professional/administrative) were in the urban area. The 0.89% in the North and 6.9% in the South (rural) were mostly teachers and nurses. The technical/skilled group (6.06%) were in the urban region only. A conclusion can be reached that a greater proportion of the parents (in the sample) in the urban region are employees while the greater percentage in the rural regions are engaged in small scale farming and

fishing, i.e. they are self employed. A similar pattern exists with the unemployed. About 6% of the urban group had unemployed parents, while there was no unemployment in the rural regions.

Attitude towards school (extent of liking school): No statistical difference between respondents score on extent of liking school was observed. The findings indicated very high attitudes from different socio-economic backgrounds.

Reasons for being in school: No difference was observed in the profiles (figure 7) which combined all the frequencies of the responses of the nine questions into the three "utility", "affect" and "status" indices. In all three, respondents in category 5 (unskilled/traditional) had the highest scores. The pattern of scores of different socio-economic categories for "utility" and "affect" were similar in the order of highest to lowest as follows: Unskilled/ traditional (category 5); clerical/semi-skilled (category 3); professional/administrative (category 1); armed forces (category 6); semi-skilled manual (category 4); technical (category 2) and unemployed (category 7). The status index was ranked highest by category 5; followed by category 4; category 1; category 6; category 3; category 2 and finally category 7. With the exception of the students from semi-skilled manual and clerical/semi-skilled backgrounds, the pattern of the reasons for being in school seemed consistent. However, when males and females of different socio-economic backgrounds are examined, the pattern alters slightly from the total sample. With males, the two lowest categories follow the pattern of the overall sample, but with the females the order follows the three highest categories (figures 8 and 9).

Continuing at school: Although the statistical test of significance did not show any difference, close examination of table 16 reveals differences with categories. All students showed a high intention of continuing at school, however, the proportions vary. With the exception of category 5 (unskilled) students from all other categories rated the two high levels with 75% or more. Category 5 had the lowest percentage at these two levels (60%). Some students in this category (5) also showed no intention of continuing (5.7%) and similarly medium level of intention at 12.8%. Other category groups had lower percentage scores at the two levels (medium and no intention).

Aspired Level of Education: The aspiration to continue with education up to university level is predominant in all socio-economic categories. The highest level of aspiration was observed among students who had parents in the armed forces (64.7%). The lowest was observed in the semi-skilled manual group. Students within the professional/ administrative category ranked highest in the intention of reaching Form VI (47.8% Form VI cf 43.5% university level). This had also the lowest scores on intention of reaching only Form IV. This was not observed in any other category group. The semi-skilled manual group had ranked almost the same proportions for all three educational levels.

Differences were found among socio-economic categories when comparisons were made between males and females. Males in comparison with females, had greater percentages opting for all three levels of education. The greatest proportion of those who wanted to reach only Form IV came from Category 5 (unskilled; 78% males cf 58% females). At Form VI level, the findings were statistically significant at .05 level. More females (Category 1) wanted to reach this level than males (25% cf 3.8%). Similarly with Category 7 (unemployed). No male in other category groups showed an indication of reaching up to Form VI. With the exception of Categories 3, 6 and 7 (semi-skilled/clerical, armed forces and unemployed) females in general showed lower aspirations than males.

Responses of students between regions revealed statistically significant differences at .05 level for all levels of education. At Form IV level a difference was observed between urban, North and South. The scores were distributed evenly at all categories in the urban region, but for the North, only Category 5 wanted to reach this level. Students from Category 3 to 6 in the South showed the intention of reaching only up to this level. For the university level, urban region Category groups 1, 3 and 6 had the highest aspirations compared with the other respondents from rural regions in the same category groups. However, Category 5 of the urban region had the lowest aspirations.

Reasons for Continuing at School: Five reasons were stated by the students altogether. However, the priority given to these reasons differed from one category group to another. Self and social reasons were rated highly by all socio-economic groups. Security was indicated

as important by Category groups 1, 3, 5 and 7. Among those who rated security as important, students with unemployed parents (Category 7) rated highest (40% cf 13%, 10% and 9%). The reason of securing knowledge was evenly distributed among all socio-economic categories. Status/power and success were important to Categories 1, 4 and 5 only. Categories 1 through 5 indicated that citizenship was the reason of their continuing at school; Category groups 6 and 7 did not show this indication. Family reasons were shown by only Category groups 2, 3 and 5.

When comparing males and females of different socio-economic categories, some differences were found. An examination of security reasons revealed that females in Categories, 1, 3 and 7 gave a great importance to this reason. Females in Category group 1 scored 25% compared to males who scored 5%. For Category group 5, males rated higher. Knowledge and social reasons were fairly even for Category groups 1 through 7; except that Category 5 females rated higher than males. The category groups which responded to status/power and success (Categories 1, 4 and 5), showed that males had higher scores than females. Females in Category groups 1 and 3 had higher scores in citizenship than males. Family reasons were important to females of Category groups 2 and 3 and males of Category 5 only.

Regional differences among socio-economic categories were found for almost all reasons. Security was highest for the urban region in the Category groups 1, 3, 5 and 7. Self/social reasons were found to be highest also in urban for all category groups except 5; and similarly for family reasons.

Socio-economic category group responses to the three "uses" of higher education are shown in profiles (figure 13). "Utility" was found to be the highest in all categories, followed by "status" and finally "affect".

Parental Encouragement: This was found to be high throughout all socio-economic categories. The highest scores were found in professional/ administrative, technical and unemployed category groups. Three groups, clerical, semi-skilled manual and armed forces had certain proportions of students who thought that they did not have enough encouragement from their parents. 5.2% of the students from the unskilled category

revealed that they do not get any encouragement at all, while 7% reported not enough encouragement.

With the exception of socio-economic Categories 5 and 6 the findings revealed that girls reported the highest encouragement. The difference was statistically significant at .05 level. Females in Category groups 3 and 4 reported insufficient encouragement. Males in Category 5 reported less encouragement than did females. Lack of any encouragement at all was indicated by girls in Category 5.

The urban sample reported higher encouragement for all categories except 5. The indication of not enough encouragement was reported by the urban region, in socio-economic Categories 3 through 6. However, in the rural areas, both North and South only Category 5 indicated lack of encouragement. None in the urban area indicated complete lack of encouragement, but students from rural homes with unskilled parents reported it.

Vocational Aspirations: Students from all socio-economic categories seem to aspire to high level jobs (table 29). The highest responses for professional jobs was found in the students from unemployed homes (Category 7: 60% cf 50% from other categories). It was also found that students from Category 1 (professional/administrative) did not show any intention of doing unskilled jobs.

Comparisons between males and females of different groups were made. More females than males from all socio-economic categories aspired for professional and technical jobs. Only females in all categories and males in Category group 5 had the intention of working in clerical and semi-skilled jobs. More males than females intended to do semi-skilled manual jobs. No girl aspired to work in the armed forces.

Urban-rural differences were also examined. Aspirations to professional and technical occupations were higher in all categories of the urban sample except Category 5. The rural sample in this category had higher percentage scores than the urban. However, only the sample from Category groups 3 to 6 showed intentions of getting into unskilled jobs, and throughout the rural sample, scores were higher than the urban. Joining the armed forces was chosen by students

from Category groups 1, 5 and 6. The urban students' aspirations were higher except in students from Category group 5.

Vocational Expectations: The uniformity which was found in the findings on vocational aspirations, was not mirrored in the expectation findings. Expectation to get into professional and administrative jobs was found among students in socio-economic Categories 1 to 5. The highest expectations were found in students from Category groups 1 and 2 (table 33). They did not expect to get into jobs below Category 4. Students with parents in Categories 5 and 6 however, expected to be unemployed.

In all categories except Category 5 more females than males expected to get into professional jobs. Similarly more girls from Category groups 1 to 4 and 6 expected to get into clerical/semi-skilled jobs. Most of the boys from different socio-economic category groups expected to enter jobs in Categories 4, 5 and 6. Nonetheless, the degree of expectation varies, for example, expectation of unskilled jobs is only 18% from students of socio-economic Category group 3, but 81% from children of unskilled parents (Category 5). No girl expected to be unemployed.

When locations of residence are compared by socio-economic categories, the findings indicate that more urban students of all socio-economic categories expected to get into professional jobs than did rural students of similar socio-economic backgrounds except Categories 4 and 5. Similar findings were revealed in job Categories 2, 3 and 4. The findings also showed that neither urban students nor students from the North region expected to be employed in unskilled jobs. However, students of socio-economic Category groups 3 and 5 expected to do so. Finally, when comparing the expectations of urban and rural samples, the findings indicated that rural sample from socio-economic Category group 5 expected to be unemployed; none in the urban region expected it.

Reasons for Expected Jobs: Five different factors had been suggested by students as the reasons for expected jobs. Almost all respondents irrespective of socio-economic background indicated that skill, knowledge and abilities would get them into a certain type of job.
High responses on this group of factors came from respondents of high socio-economic category. Respondents from unskilled category group

were fairly evenly distributed; however more gave reasons of citizenship and environmental/social factors. No student from any other socio-economic category groups gave family reasons except males from Category 5.

There was no difference between boys and girls in the giving of environmental factor reasons. A statistically significant difference at the .05 level was observed when comparing boys and girls in the abilities/knowledge/skill group of reasons. No girl except in Category 5, showed reasons of economic factors.

Discrepancies between Aspired and Expected Jobs: Students from all socio-economic categories (except Categories 5 and 7) had higher expectations for professional jobs than any other jobs. However, students with parents in professional or administrative jobs had the highest expectations. Their expectations did not go below jobs in Category 3 (clerical/semi-skilled). Students from the clerical/semi-skilled category had higher expectations in only semi-skilled manual jobs (9.37% aspirations cf 11.8% expectations), armed forces and unskilled jobs (6.5% aspirations to 11.1% expectations). Children of semi-skilled manual parents had high expectations only for the professional jobs (37.5% cf 45.5%) but low in the rest. Children of unskilled parents had lower expectations for Categories 1 to 3 jobs than their level of aspiration, but high expectations for Categories 4 to 6. They also expected to be unemployed (2.2%). Finally, children who had parents in the armed forces had expectations higher than aspirations for clerical jobs (21.5% expected cf 12.5% aspired to) and also joining armed forces (7.1% cf 6.3%) but lower expectations for the rest of the categories.

Relevance of School Subjects: No difference was revealed when examining how students perceived the school subjects related to their future working life.

Stated Needs: The two stated needs were knowledge and skills. Respondents from various socio-economic categories stated the need for knowledge to be more important than skills. The exception was observed for respondents who had unemployed parents. These ranked skills as more important than knowledge (66.7% skills cf 33.3% knowledge).

Teacher Ratings: Teacher ratings seemed to be consistent with all socio-economic categories. No difference was observed. However, Categories 4 and 6 had the highest level of ratings.

Summary

To sum up, the general trend of the findings in the socio-economic variable had comparable differences and similarities.

Most of the differences were observed in the socio-economic Category group 5. For example, in the question of continuing at school all other category groups rated the question highly, except socio-economic Category 5. They also showed no intention of continuing after Form III. This was also reflected in the level of education aspired to. Most of those who wanted to reach only up to Form IV were from socio-economic Category group 5. Reasons for continuing at school also differed from one socio-economic category group to another. For example, students who had unemployed parents (Category 7) wanted to continue at school more because of security reasons. Similarly students in this socio-economic group (Category 7), also differed from other groups because in stating their needs, they indicated that they wanted the school to provide them with skills rather than knowledge.

Gender differences between different socio-economic category groups were also observed. For example, in educational aspirations females of different socio-economic category groups showed lower aspirations, in general, than males. Parental encouragement was found to be less in girls of socio-economic Category groups 5 and 6.

Differences between socio-economic category groups among regions were also revealed. Educational aspiration was the lowest in socio-economic Category group 5 of the urban region. The highest was found in the Category groups 1, 3 and 6, of the urban region also. All socio-economic category groups except 5, in the urban region reported the highest parental encouragement. Lack of encouragement was reported by socio-economic Category groups of the rural regions.

On the other hand, similarities among different socio-economic groups were observed in vocational aspirations and expectations.

Hypotheses

Having obtained an overview of the similarities and differences of the students, in terms of gender, locality and socio-economic background, the next task will be to present the results of the hypotheses. To recapitulate, the hypotheses were originally formulated in relation to the theoretical generalizations and assumptions on educational and vocational aspirations and expectations thought to reside in the independent variables referred to above. The tests of the hypotheses will be presented below:

Hypothesis 1

> Attitudes towards school is a function of understanding about school
>
> The greater the understanding the more positive the attitudes.

This hypothesis was tested by a product moment correlation analysis. In order to determine the understanding about school, subscores of groups of three questions were computed. These were then correlated with the extent of liking school (attitudes). Table 38 shows the results. Statistically significant association between the extent of liking school and "utility" function of the school (questions 7, 8 and 9) was observed: $r = 0.2544$ $p<0.01$. Almost no correlation was found between extent of liking school and "affect" (questions 10, 11 and 12): $r = -0.0025$. The "status" questions (13, 14 and 15) also did not indicate any importance to the relations with attitude ($r = -0.0571$). The difference becomes more meaningful when viewed from the standpoint of proportion of variance accounted for (r^2). A greater amount of variance in the understanding of school can be attributed to "utility" use (6.4%) rather than "affect" and "status". The implication of the findings is that the hypothesis is supported and that the more students understand the use of school in terms of utility the more positive their attitudes towards it. But because the level of relationship is quite low, the hypothesis has little power.

TABLE 38 CORRELATION OF ATTITUDE TOWARDS SCHOOL WITH UNDERSTANDING ABOUT SCHOOL

			r
UTILITY	7	To gain knowledge	0.2544
	8	To acquire skills	
	9	To develop useful attitudes towards work, life, people etc.	
AFFECT	10	To come into contact with teachers	-0.0025
	11	To be with your friends	
	12	To be part of your school	
STATUS	13	To be treated with respect	0.0571
	14	To have other people look up to you	
	15	To be in an important organisation like school	

Hypothesis 2

Aspiration to continue school is a function of scholastic performance

On the basis of previous research it was hypothesised that the better the students' performance, the higher the aspiration to continue.

The level of continuing school was correlated with teacher ratings. The analysis revealed a positive correlation which was statistically significant at .01 level ($r = 0.2218$). Though the association is positive, the relationship does not seem to be strong as only 4% of the scholastic performance contributes to the variance aspiration to continue school ($r^2 = 0.049195$).

Hypothesis 3

Aspiration to continue school is a function of parental education

The higher the parental education the higher the aspiration.

Aspiration to continue school was measured by two questions: (i) the extent of the intention to continue at school, (ii) the level of education aspired to. The hypothesis was tested by two types of correlation, Spearman rank and Product moment correlation.

The results indicate very little association between intention to continue school and parental education (r_s = 0.0603). Similarly there was very little indication of relationship between the highest level of aspiration and parental rank (r = 0.0193). Crosstabulation and Chi square tests yielded similar results of no statistical significance.

Hypothesis 4

Educational/vocational aspiration is a function of "reality" i.e. what is going on in real world

The more understanding students have of "reality" the more realistic they become of their aspiration.

This hypothesis was split into two.

(a) Educational aspiration was correlated with reasons for aspiration as a measure of being realistic in their aspiration.
The findings indicated a negative correlation with r = -0.0876, hence it showed very little association. Other factors probably contribute to reasons for the students' level of education aspired to.

(b) Vocational aspiration as a function of "reality" -
The results indicate a positive and significant association between vocational aspiration and "reality" in terms of expected job (p = .01). Table 39 shows the results.

TABLE 39 CORRELATION OF VOCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS WITH EXPECTED JOBS/REASONS FOR EXPECTED JOBS

	r
Expected job	0.5535*
Reasons for expected job	-0.0069

* $p<0.01$

When the proportion of variance (r^2) is viewed in percentage, the findings indicate a very strong association between vocational aspiration and "reality". 30.6% of the variance in vocational aspiration is due to the understanding of what is going on in the real world. However, when vocational aspiration is correlated with "reality" in terms of reasons for expected jobs, the association is negligible and negative.

Hypothesis 5

Aspiration is a function of social values and differences associated with gender

Boys tend to have higher aspirations than girls.

The results of the correlation analysis between career aspiration and gender is 0.3149 and also found to be statistically significant at the .01 level. The conclusion can be drawn that there is a moderate but significant degree of relationship between aspiration and gender. Similarly crosstabulation and Chi square test (table 27) indicates a statistically significant difference (X^2 = 37.947; df = 5 p = 0.05).

Hypothesis 6

Choice and knowledge of career is a function of location of residence

Students who live in metropolitan areas will have more knowledge and higher ambitions than those who live in rural areas.

The findings of the correlation tests do not indicate a substantial relationship (r = 0.1499). The coefficient determination is 0.0224 (r^2)

which means location of residence accounts for only 2% of the variance of choice and knowledge of career. However, a detailed presentation of job choices among regions (table 30) indicates a statistically significant difference (X^2 = 27.52698, df = 10 $p<0.05$).

Hypothesis 7

Educational aspiration is a function of the type of job aspired to

The more prestigious the job, the higher the educational aspiration.

The correlation between educational aspiration and the type of job aspired to in terms of job prestige is very negligible and negative ($r = -0.0489$).

Hypothesis 8

Vocational aspiration is a function of parental socio-economic status

The higher the parents' socio-economic status the higher the vocational aspiration.

The findings indicate that there is very little relationship between vocational aspiration and father's socio-economic status ($r = 0.0243$). Crosstabulation and Chi square test (table 29) supports the correlation findings.

Summary

On the whole, the results of the hypotheses testing confirmed four hypotheses and did not support four.

The hypothesis that attitudes towards school is a function of understanding about school was found not to have strong relationship. However, the hypothesis indicated that students associate school with utility rather than affect and status. It was also indicated (Hypothesis 2) that students' desire to continue at school has little relationship with performance. The hypothesis that students' perception of reality is a function of vocational aspiration was supported. Choice of students' expected jobs confirmed the hypothesis, however there was little relationship with the reasons of the expected

jobs. The hypothesis that boys have higher aspirations than girls was confirmed; similarly association was confirmed between location of residence and job choices.

On the other hand, neither the intention to continue at school nor the level of education was associated with parental education. Similarly, there was very little and negative association between education aspiration and what is going on in the real world. Hence, the hypothesis that education aspiration is a function of the type of job aspired to was not supported. Finally little relationship was found between vocational aspiration and parental socio-economic status.

SECTION III

The purpose of the previous section was twofold, first to determine whether any significant differences in sex, location of residence or socio-economic surfaced, and secondly to seek valid relationships between variables and thus attempt to answer questions initially posed by the research.

The task of this section is not to discuss the results, but to assess the extent of interactions discussed in the findings of the statistical analysis of the hypotheses.

In order to assess whether hypothesis 1 had differential sex and regional affect (Q.6) the extent of liking school was tested by using two way analysis of variance. The results are shown below.

TABLE 40 ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
FOR EXTENT OF LIKING SCHOOL

SOURCE	df	MS	SS	F
SEX	1	0.304	0.304	1.054
REGION	2	1.403	2.806	4.866
INTERACTION	2	0.756	1.512	2.622

The findings indicated that there is no significant interaction effect. No difference was observed in both sex and region. However, when the question was crosstabulated with socio-economic status, difference was observed at the highest level of extent of liking school.

A certain amount of relationship between aspiration to continue school and scholastic performance (hypothesis 2) has been indicated earlier. When the three independent variables are taken into account, a number of additional conclusions are warranted. No gender effect was observed in both continuing school and scholastic performance in terms of teacher rating. The results were similar for socio-economic status. However, differences were observed among regions. This latter finding was supported by a two way analysis of variance which showed statistical

significant effect among regions, but not with gender (Region: F = 3.103; 2 df; Sex F = 0.453, df = 1 $p<0.05$). A summary of the findings appears in Appendix L.

The hypothesis that aspiration to continue schooling is a function of parental education (hypothesis 3) was rejected on the strength of the slight correlation yielded. However, when close examination of the cell frequencies was made, differences were observed. Males were found to score higher than females (males have higher aspirations than females). This was clearly observed with students who have parents in socio-economic Category group 5. Statistically significant differences were also observed in students from different socio-economic categories in regions. For university level urban students from Categories 1, 3 and 6 had the highest aspirations.

Hypothesis 4 was supported and a positive, significant association between vocational aspirations and "reality" was observed. When this relationship was tested by two-way analysis of variance to find if there were any interaction effects, the results showed that significant gender effects were found in vocational aspirations. However, no interaction was observed between region and sex. Similar findings of no interaction were found for reality (summary of results in Appendix L).

Product moment correlations supported the hypothesis that boys do tend to have higher aspirations than girls (hypothesis 5). Two-way interaction between sex and region did not disclose any significant interaction, however, a significant F was revealed only in sex but not in region. The table of means shows mean scores of the two sexes according to regions.

TABLE 41 CELL MEAN SCORE OF MALES AND FEMALES WITHIN REGIONS

GENDER	URBAN	NORTH	SOUTH
MALES	2.52	3.03	3.22
FEMALES	1.83	1.59	1.97

Summary of the analysis of variance appears in Appendix L.

The correlation test of choice and knowledge of career with location of residence (hypothesis 6) did not indicate a very strong association. Two-way analysis of variance tested for the interaction between sex and region. The results showed no interactions. However, significance was obtained for sex ($F = 37.5888$ $p<0.05$).

A slight negative correlation ($r = -0.0489$) was yielded when educational aspiration was correlated with type of job aspired to (hypothesis 7). The explanation of this might show up in sex difference. Regional differences warrant an explanation. Though the North region had higher levels of educational aspirations, than the other two regions, no difference was observed in the choice of jobs, especially high status jobs. Socio-economic status did not yield any differences.

Hypothesis 8 was rejected because the correlation test did not show any association between vocational aspiration and fathers' socio-economic status. This is supported by the examination of aspirations of boys and girls of different socio-economic status. It was found that females had aspirations for professional jobs, irrespective of their own socio-economic categories. The difference which was found among males was not strong enough to support the hypothesis.

Conclusion

The last section of this chapter has attempted to bring together different points of interests referred to earlier in the chapter, in order to explain the findings in the test of the hypotheses. Discussion of the findings will be dealt with in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V - DISCUSSION

This final chapter concentrates on the interpretation and discussion of the results and their relationship to previous studies.

First, it sets out to describe the educational and vocational aspirations and expectations of the sample and to evaluate these aspirations in the light of gender, geographical location and socio-economic status. Second, it will relate findings to the framework provided by the three main variables. Third, it will give consideration to a number of implications.

Background

This study started with a concern for the educational and vocational aspirations of school leavers. That concern was prompted by a belief that Tanzania, for its development, needed educated citizens and accordingly that the degree of education that its citizens would be likely to want depended on the extent to which they saw education as beneficial. Education hence, has been regarded as the key to a better national way of life and also as the main means which people can move into the modern sector of the economy. With the government's emphasis on the importance of education in mind parents are believed to send their children to school assuming that

(i) Schools will produce better citizens who will be open minded and readier recipients of modernity, hence,

(ii) they will bring development to the country, and also,

(iii) return individual benefits in terms of higher earnings.

Parents and pupils, it is thought, tend to have a belief that the longer one remains at school, and the more one gains in knowledge, the better the certificate to be gained and the greater the earnings to be achieved. At the outset, however, there was reason to believe that conditions might vary according to certain circumstances. Three circumstances were of particular interest; gender, geographical location

and socio-economic status for the reasons indicated below.

(i) Gender Historical, social and cultural values have tended to differentiate between males and females in Zanzibar. The male is regarded as the head of the family, the supporter and bread winner. He, therefore, deserves better education and higher earnings than the female. In Zanzibar society, girls, on the other hand, deserve to be looked after and taken care of and to be home makers. Accordingly, girls are expected to marry as early as possible, so as to be protected from temptations outside the home. Therefore, there is a tendency for girls, to have a narrow outlook of the world outside their homes. This in turn, inhibits their educational and vocational aspirations.

(ii) Socio-economic status In a society, like Zanzibar, there are no distinct social strata, however, one can discern distinctions between different socio-economic groups when certain criteria are used, viz. occupation, formal education and household possessions. Professional, administrative and high skilled technical occupations have been associated with higher income, hence with better material conditions. Similarly, higher occupations have been associated with formal or higher education. There is also a belief that the offspring of high socio-economic groups will tend to have higher aspirations than do children from lower socio-economic backgrounds. This is due to the quality of life the children experience, their parents' education which influences the degree of parental encouragement given; and also parental expectations of achievement and performance which in turn contribute to the aspirations of the children. Parents in the lower socio-economic categories, because of low income and little or no formal education, lack the force to help in the formation of high aspirations and expectations in their children. Children from low socio-economic background have accordingly been associated with low educational and vocational aspirations.

(ii) Location of residence Geographical factors need to be seen in historical and cultural perspective. The present study has differentiated between regions on some socio-economic backgrounds and as rural and urban criteria. In this respect, the identified regions are distinctive because economic policies affect regional development

in different ways. In the urban area, there is a concentration of administrative offices and the industrial enterprises which are both important for modern forms of development. Accordingly, this influences the distribution of the socio-economic status of the citizens. Most of the high income earners and middle and low income earners are in the urban region. The rural regions are composed mostly of low income, self-employed fishermen and subsistance farmers, who still use old methods. Most farmers are reliant on a very small piece of land or wait for quarterly or yearly income from cash crops.

Historically, the urban area has always been the centre of business and administration. Therefore development of schools tended to be concentrated there. Compared to the urban area, most of the schools in the rural areas are relatively new (starting from 1964). Similarly the urban region, being the major town and port, draws an influx of visitors who mingle their cultures with the urban dwellers. In this context, one can assume the urban dwellers will be more open minded, ready for new ideas and change, ready to absorb outside cultures and also to realize more of the opportunities available in employment. For these reasons geographical location should be considered as relevant to the vocational aspirations and expectations of children. It is believed that urban dwellers are likely to have higher aspirations than rural dwellers. Similarly it is believed that the level of education aspired to will be influenced by the type of job aspired to and it is also believed that aspirations are formed in terms of a realistic appraisal of prevailing conditions. Therefore, because urban dwellers are believed to have higher vocational aspirations than the rural dwellers, also they are more aware of the real situations, hence their aspirations will be influenced more by these conditions.

The following section will present general interpretation of the results in light of the comments made above.

RESULTS

The results to some extent confirmed the general interpretation made at the outset of the study.

Gender: It was demonstrated that certain gender differences existed. The first difference was found in the characteristic of the sample itself where the ratio was 2 males to 1 female. Though the findings were not statistically significant, the overall results indicated that girls had more favourable attitudes towards school than boys. However, males showed greater intentions to continue at school, after Form III, than did females. Disproportionately, more boys than girls also wanted a university education. The findings also revealed that boys got more encouragement from their parents than did girls. Similar reasons for being in school and also for continuing with education after Form III were stated by both boys and girls. The reasons for "Being in School" given by both, were in order (1) utility, (2) status and (3) affect; and the reasons given for "Continuing at School" were (1) to gain knowledge and skills (2) status and (3) to be with their friends. There were no differences between boys and girls in teacher ratings on the success in school.

Results on vocational aspirations and expectations appeared to be statistically significant and different. Girls showed lower aspirations and expectations than boys. Types of jobs aspired to and expected by boys were different from those aspired to by girls. Though some girls aspired and expected to work in professional jobs, most of them desired and also expected to be working in clerical and semi-skilled jobs. No girls aspired to be in the armed forces. Boys however, expected to be employed in manual jobs. A difference was observed with those who expected to be unemployed. No girls expected to be unemployed while a number of boys did. However, the reasons for "expected jobs" were almost similar for both boys and girls, except that a difference was observed in one category of reasons which was termed as "family". No girl included that as a reason.

No gender difference was observed in the indication of the relevance of subjects to working life, however, girls attributed less importance to education for self reliance. A difference was also observed between boys and girls in what they considered would help.

them in their future working life. Boys wanted more knowledge while girls wanted more skills.

Location of residence Geographical location yielded a number of differences. Although a majority of both rural and urban pupils showed positive attitudes to school, differences were observed in gender. Rural boys showed more positive attitudes than urban boys, while urban girls demonstrated more positive attitudes than rural girls. A finding of significance was observed in differences in the level of education aspired to, by the urban and rural samples. Rural students showed higher aspirations than urban students. However, when comparing the two rural regions (North and South) the North region indicated higher university level aspirations.

Findings on the reasons for being in school exhibited similarities. Both rural and urban students gave the reasons for staying at school as knowledge and skills (utility), to gain success and power in life (status) and also to be with friends (affect) in that order. Differences between the urban and rural samples were found in reasons for continuing at school after Form III. The rural students indicated security, knowledge, status and citizenship as their very important reasons, while the urban students indicated self/social and family reasons to be important. However, no differences were observed in the reasons for continuing. When the two rural regions were compared on this aspect, it was observed that the North region considered "status" while in the South region, pupils showed "utility" to be more important.

The findings also showed that urban pupils get more encouragement from their parents than do the rural pupils. Rural girls reported still less encouragement than did rural boys. Similarly, a small proportion (5.5%) of rural students indicated no encouragement at all from their parents.

A difference was observed in vocational aspirations. Urban students showed higher aspiration in desiring professional and white collar jobs, while rural students showed lower aspiration by expecting to get unskilled jobs. Similarly more rural students desired to join the armed forces. The vocational expectations of rural and urban students were almost similar. However, slight differences were observed when comparing males separately. Males in the rural regions expected to be

unemployed. By contrast, no female in either urban or rural areas expected to be unemployed. Differences were exhibited between the three regions in the reasons for expected jobs. Urban and South (rural) gave reasons which were similar, by indicating the importance to the "self" category reason (abilities/skill/interest/knowledge). The North (rural) appeared to be different by indicating the "citizenship and service" category as the most important.

The discrepancies between aspired and expected professional and administrative jobs were almost similar for both the urban and rural samples. However, differences, were found in technical job categories. The urban students who had higher aspirations for technical jobs, nonetheless, did not expect to get them. Similarly with unskilled jobs. The urban sample, compared to the rural sample, showed lower aspiration but higher expectations of doing them.

Urban-rural differences were observed in the relevance of political education and education for self-reliance. Urban samples could not see the relevance of these two subjects, though they did indicate that studying English was important. Differences were also found between urban and rural students in their special needs for coping with working life. The rural students wanted more skills. The findings on teacher ratings of performance showed that students in the North region (rural) were rated higher than those in the urban and South (rural).

(iii) Socio-economic status This variable demonstrated more similarities than differences though some differences did emerge. Those of greater significance were as follows.

The proportion of students who wanted to continue at school varied. Though Category 5 respondents (unskilled) showed some intention of continuing, their proportion of responses was the lowest. Similarly, some students in this category indicated no desire to continue at school. Students whose parents were in the semi-skilled Category (3) also showed less intention of continuing with education up to university level.

Differences in educational aspirations were observed among socio-economic categories when males and females were compared. In general, girls showed lower aspirations than boys. The exceptions were girls

in socio-economic Categories 3, 6 and 7 (semi-skilled/clerical, armed forces and unemployed). The rural-urban differences were also found in "Continuing up to university" level. The urban region, Categories 1, 3 and 6 (professional, clerical/semi-skilled, armed forces) showed the highest aspiration, while Category 5 of the same region had the lowest aspirations.

Differences in parental encouragement were found in Category 5 (unskilled). Students in this category reported no encouragement at all. The highest encouragement was found in children who had parents in Categories 1, 2 and 7 (professional, technical and unemployed). In comparing girls and boys within socio-economic categories, girls, in all categories except 5 and 6, indicated that they got higher encouragement than boys.

Although students from all socio-economic groups seemed to aspire to high level jobs, the highest aspirations were found in the students from unemployed homes, followed by children of professionals.

Great differences were observed in the vocational expectations of students from different socio-economic background. Students in socio-economic Categories 1 to 6 had similar expectations for professional jobs, however, the highest expectations were found in students from Categories 1 and 2. Students in these categories did not expect to work in any job below Category 4. Students who had parents in Categories 5 and 6 expected to be unemployed.

Discrepancies between aspired and expected jobs were also found. All students (except children of unskilled and unemployed) had high expectations for professional jobs. Students from the clerical/semi-skilled category had higher expectations in only semi-skilled manual jobs. Children of unskilled parents had the lowest expectations and also expected to be unemployed.

Irrespective of socio-economic categories, similarities were found in attitudes towards school, reasons for continuing at school and also for the level of education aspired to. Similarities were also observed in relevance of school subjects, stated needs to cope with future working life and also teacher ratings on the performance of the students.

These brief summaries of findings according to gender, geographical location and socio-economic background attempted to show the pattern of results that will now form the basis of the discussion. For the remaining sections of the chapter, two general issues will be discussed. The first is concerned with explanation ... why the results were as they were; and second drawing out some of the implications.

Explanation Sex differences, geographical location and socio-economic status will form the basis of the explanation. Educational aspiration in terms of (i) continuing at school, (ii) level of education aspired to, (iii) attitudes towards school, (iv) parental encouragement, (v) reasons for continuing at school. This will be followed by vocational aspirations and expectations and the relationship to educational aspirations.

In this survey, educational aspiration which was measured by the extent of liking school, continuing school and also by the level of education aspired to emerged to be very high. These findings reaffirmed a number of studies undertaken in developing countries. Studies of Nigerian and Ghanian boys by Adeyinka (1973), McQueen (1968) and Foster (1965) and also of Carribean youths by Oxtoby (1977) reported similar findings. Slivey (1967) contended that aspirations of students in developing countries tend to be high because of the returns they anticipate when they leave school. This explanation can also be applied to Zanzibar students and their parents, because education is associated with getting qualifications and wages, employment and earnings. This utilitarian aspect of the school has also been further investigated in this study. It was hypothesised that students' attitudes become more positive if they understand the benefits they will get. However, correlation analysis showed that the level of relationship to be low ($r = 0.0571$). The lack of a basis for drawing relevant conclusions about low aspirations implies that a much more specific study on attitudes towards school need to be done. However, Raby and Walford (1981) warned that aspirations cannot be easily studied by the use of attitudes towards school measures. Students do not necessarily show their attitudes openly and rarely reveal anti-school attitudes.

The relationship of educational aspirations and scholastic performance have also been investigated and found to be positive.

However, the relationship is not particularly strong as only 4% of the students' performance contributed to the aspiration variance. Currie (1977) did find a strong relationship between achievement and aspiration among Ugandan students. Two reasons emerged in this study. First, the measurement used for scholastic performance was teacher ratings and only 80% of the sample was rated. The ratings could have been biased because of the inconsistencies in ratings from different teachers and also by insufficient interaction between the pupils and the teachers who mostly change classes every year. Second, as Slivey (1967) noted in his Ugandan study, the high aspirations (in this case for continuing with education) might lie in the high degree of confidence the students show in their ability to survive the selective hurdles. This survey was administered at a time just immediately after the examination for Form IV. Students had very high hopes of getting through the examination successfully. Zanzibar, compared to Tanzania Mainland and also the number of African countries, has a high intake (35%) of students to Form IV. Therefore students have every justification to be hopeful.

The present study, also established that students do think seriously about their futures. The analyses of the data yielded six reasons for the students' aspirations and also for their intentions to continue at school. These were: need for security (better job); gaining knowledge; need of status, prestige and success; citizenship, demand of service by the nation and finally family reasons. Five of these responses are similar to the results revealed by McQueen in his study of Nigerian boys (1968) and Barkan's study of Tanzania, Ghana and Ugandan university students (1975). The present findings indicated that students are definitely aware of social and environmental factors. The responses given by a number of students, apart from fulfilling their ambitions and interests, were that some of them were still too young to be employed, or they do not have any skills or there is no work available.

As has been suggested earlier in the chapter, conditions might vary due to certain circumstances. These circumstances are gender, geographical location and socio-economic background. An attempt will now be made to discuss and interpret their relationship to educational aspiration.

Gender: The study indicated some sex differences in educational aspirations - though the results were not statistically, significant. They showed that boys had less favourable attitudes towards school than girls but also had greater intention of continuing with education and going to university level. These findings can be interpreted in two ways. On one hand, the social pressure on males to succeed in their occupations produces higher aspirations for the education necessary for getting employment. On the other, girls' aspirations are inhibited by social and cultural pressure which is partly due to Islamic religion. The over-emphasis on the role of girls in thesociety and the pressure on marriage and motherhood leads to undue pre-occupation with marriage and inhibits their imagination, initiative and independent thinking. An illustration of this was given as a response by one married girl in the survey (translated):

> "I cannot continue with any further studies even if I am interested, because I am married and have a baby, and two young children, to look after. I have no one to help me, because my mother also has a baby and young children of her own."

Marriages of girls between fourteen and sixteen is quite normal. Meleis et al (1979) in the study of Kuwaiti girls, found that similar society expectations for women and the roles defined for them inhibits their aspirations.

Sex role socialization inclines girls to stay home after school, mostly with their mothers and girlfriends. The nature and level of conversations in these circles are often not educationally stimulating and therefore do not accelerate educational thinking. Girls also undergo physical and mental exhaustion because of the extra duties they have in helping at home. Castle (1966) found similar pressure on girls in other parts of East Africa. In a similar vein, one could expect girls to get less parental encouragement. The cumulative effects of these circumstances are to lower girls' aspirations. Nonetheless, government educational policy is trying to bridge the gap between boys and girls in their access to education. For example, selection of Form III to Form IV has been increasing steadily in the case of girls and correlatively decreasing in the case of boys, though the ratio of boys to girls in Form III classes remains more or less constant.

Similar trends can also be observed in the intake of boys and girls to Form V. Table illustrates the above.

TABLE 42 GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE SELECTION OF STUDENTS TO FORM IV

YEAR	FORM III ENROLMENT			SELECTED FOR FORM IV		
	BOYS	GIRLS	N	BOYS	GIRLS	N
1976	58.32	41.6	3784	71.3	28.68	617
1977	57.74	42.5	4182	69.89	30.1	910
1978	54.8	42.27	4446	68.94	31.05	1285
1979	56.6	43.37	4051	65.36	33.07	1282
1980	-	-	4116	64.95	35.04	1424

Geographical location The major findings on educational aspiration showed an overall degree of similarity between urban and rural students. These were in positive attitudes towards school and in the reasons given for being in school. An interesting finding was revealed when rural and urban males were compared. Rural males were found to have more positive attitudes than the urban males; however, when girls were compared, urban girls had more positive attitudes than rural girls. The positive attitudes of boys in the rural areas could be explained by the emphasis put on education for all, which is regarded as a duty of the citizens, and also that going to school is in vogue in the areas where recent educational development has occurred. The differences among girls could be attributed to similar factors explained in gender differences.

Because of the recency of development of schools in the rural areas, and also because of the majority of the parents were illiterate or semi-literate, it was assumed that the rural students would have lower aspirations than urban students. The results were contrary to this hypothesis. Students in the rural areas were found to have higher aspirations and also aspired more to reach university level than did the students in the urban areas. These high aspirations might have been due to the anticipation of better employment and mobility and a move

towards modernity which is associated with higher education.

The higher aspirations of students in the rural areas have also been supported by the reasons the students indicated for continuing at school after Form III. Their reasons security, knowledge, status and citizenship are in line with the above explanation. Most of the students in the urban region indicated (i) interest in studies, (ii) that their parents wanted them to continue, as their reasons. This does not come as a surprise as most parents in the urban, have certain expectations for the achievement of their children.

Socio-economic status In this survey, the socio-economic status effect on educational aspirations was found to be unimportant. The results showed that there were no differences among different socio-economic categories. The correlation analyses which tested (i) students' intention to continue at school with parental education and (ii) highest level of education aspired to with parental socio-economic status, were both weak. Little association was observed ($r_s = 0.0603$ and $r = 0.0193$ respectively). Charlick (1978), Currie (1977) and Heyneman (1976a & b) had similar findings in Ivory Coast, Uganda and Brazil. They were concerned more with the relationship between academic achievement/ intelligence and socio-economic status. This latter study also did not find any relationship between student performance (teacher ratings) and fathers' socio-economic status. This can be interpreted to mean that the school system and egalitarian policies act as mediating agencies which diffuse the effect of family background.

However, gender differences between girls and boys in different socio-economic groups were observed. Girls, generally showed lower aspirations than boys.

Despite the unanimity of high aspirations among all students from all socio-economic categories, the study found that students from socio-economic Category 5 (unskilled) did not get as much parental encouragement as other socio-economic groups. The study also established that students from high socio-economic categories (professional and technical/skilled) had very high encouragement from their parents. An interesting finding was observed among students who came from homes with unemployed parents. They indicated a very high level of encouragement which could possibly be explained by the parents fuller appreciation

of the implications of unemployment and their wish that their children might avoid it and/or contribute to the family purse. Unlike a number of other studies, the present study found that girls in all categories (with the exception of those whose parents are unskilled farmers and fishermen and also those whose parents work in the armed forces) get more encouragement than do boys. The explanation of these findings seem to be that most of these girls are located in urban regions and parents having become aware of career opportunities open to females, encourage their children.

It would seem then that educational aspirations are very high because of two reasons - first, the strong egalitarian school system; and second, the need for qualifications which is important in the acquisition of a job. The general overall high educational aspirations of students have also been found to be influenced by the effects of gender, geographical location and socio-economic background. Thence, relationships, are taken further in the discussion of vocational aspirations and expectations in the following section.

Vocational aspirations and expectations Students' vocational aspirations appear to be determined by two factors:

"1. their basic values and motivation

2. perceptions of opportunities available" Barkan, (1975)

The present discussion of vocational aspirations and expectations will be organized around these two points. Since 1964, Zanzibar has seen a change in the education system as well as in occupational opportunities. Jobs have become more open. However, with time, the expansion of education, the educational output seemed to exceed job opportunities. For example, between 1978 and 1981, a total of 17,357 students left school after Form III. Out of these approximately only 400 students have been employed. This situation would appear contradictory to the findings of high aspirations in education which were established in the study. Some writers have argued that students' aspirations are determined largely by individual perception of opportunities, while others, contend that students always have aspirations, inadequate for the range of employment opportunities actually available because of pre-existing values, attitudes and influences which determine these aspirations. The findings of the

present study would tend to agree with the second contention. First, the timing of the questionnaire administration was particularly important to the students who knew that about 65% of them would not be able to continue with schooling. Therefore, they had their ideals. What this study cannot establish is whether these ideals were firm or just appeared on the spur of the moment. Possibly an indepth interview would have revealed this. Second, in an emergent society high hopes are not a strange phenomenon. The building of industries and economic development sectors are seen to be continuously growing. Similarly the employment system is still fluid. Those who are already in employment can be found to be changing from one job to another, which could misguide the students' perceptions of job opportunities.

Similar to previous studies by Adeyinka (1973) and Peil (1976 and 1982), the present survey found that the majority of students aspired to white collar jobs. The answers to the question: "What sort of job would you like to have when you leave school?", ranged from professional and semi-professional jobs, semi-skilled jobs, unskilled jobs, glamorous jobs (like acting, modelling, air hostesses etc.), ambitious careers in politics and high prestigious jobs like being ambassadors in the Foreign Service. Choice of some of the jobs seemed more to be due to current fashion, like television announcers and working as sailors in big ocean liners. Some of the jobs could not be very well categorized in a particular group. What the study found was that students are aware of the types of job around them. How much they know of these jobs is another question. However it seems, when all the circumstances were taken into consideration, the general picture is quite unrealistic. Approximately 75% of the respondents aspired to white collar and high skilled technical jobs, 11% clerical and semi-skilled jobs, 7% traditional farming and fishing and 8% armed forces. These results are comparatively similar to Peil's (1982).

In stating these occupations it does not mean that their aspirations will be met, they only reveal the values held for achievement and success in life. Students tend to willingly accept whatever is available when their educational careers end. This was confirmed in their responses about the type of job actually anticipated. In most cases the students' vocational expectations were lower than their aspirations. Only 68% of the students expected to be employed in white collar, high skilled technical and clerical semi-skilled jobs. Discrepancy with

aspiration was also observed in professional and semi-professional job expectation. While 45% aspired to these jobs, 49% expected to be employed in them. The reason for this, seems to be that students are to some extent aware of realities. Teaching, as one choice is not to a number of students, their ideal job, but in present conditions, it is the only job which draws a lot of respondents, presumably because of the recognized need for teachers in the rapid expansion of education.

Overall then, the hypothesis that was set to test vocational aspiration as a function of "reality" was confirmed. The results indicated a strong positive and statistically significant association between vocational aspiration and "reality" in terms of expected jobs ($r = 0.5535$). Some 30% of the variance in vocational aspiration was due to the understanding of what is going on in the real world. This also confirmed that some students (2%) also expected to be unemployed. The analysis also revealed discrepancies in technical skilled jobs. Eight percent of the students aspired to engineering and high skilled jobs but only 2% expected to get them. The expectation is that these jobs need higher university education which most students realized would not be accessible to them. A significant and interesting finding was associated with unskilled occupations (farming/fishing). Some 7% aspired to such jobs but 6% expected to be doing them. Most of those who aspired to these jobs, aspired to be self employed. However, due to certain factors, it seemed impossible, viz: insufficient land, lack of sophistication in farming and fishing methods together with low and irregular income and earning and living in (unpopular) rural areas. The image of good citizenship and patriotism has inspired a number of young people into expecting to be employed in armed forces. Even so, although only 8% aspired to them, 10% expected to be employed in them.

Students who were involved in the present study were undergoing an academic type of curriculum. The only practical subject in the school is education for self reliance. Because of the assumption on the role the school plays in employment, students were asked to show from a list of subjects the ones they thought would be helpful and relevant in the type of job they aspired to or expected to be employed in. The findings revealed that most students do not associate school subjects with working life. There were exceptions, but they were not significant enough to alter the findings. One would have expected

that students understanding realities would have shown education for self reliance as important, however in most cases it was ranked as second to last. This can be due to the laissez-faire attitudes teachers and schools are adopting towards the subject. Students did show an urge for the schools to give them more knowledge and skills which would be useful in working life.

The following subsections will examine the influences of gender, location of residence and socio-economic status on the above findings.

Gender Differences appeared between the occupational aspiration and expectations of boys and girls. In general girls showed lower aspirations and expectations than boys. This suggests that unless a girl is bright and gets encouragement from both home and school, she will not develop high aspirations and competitive attitudes to further her ambitions. The society indirectly does not encourage them to have such attitudes. Due to sex differentiation, females do not see themselves working, though at present a number of females do work because they need money to support families. This was confirmed when no girl showed "helping her family economically" as the reason for working. Girls also are still imbued with the idea of developing personal skills which can make them marketable for marriage, rather than for a career.

Types of jobs aspired to and expected by girls seemed to be limited. The narrow range of choices were clerical work, nursing and teaching. The survey revealed that this distribution is consistent with adult female occupations. Several studies on sex differences have observed similar trends (Peil, 1982; Early, 1981; Rosen & Anshensel, 1978; Barkan, 1975; Gupta, 1974). The present study also revealed that there are exceptions. Some girls do aspire to male dominated jobs. This trend may be due to official policy in Zanzibar which does not differentiate between males and females as far as career and working place are concerned. However, individual attitudes still remain.

The findings also revealed that girls are unrealistic compared to boys. Not a single girl expected to be unemployed. This may be due to lack of awareness because the women and friends girls associate with do not discuss work opportunities. It may also be due to regarding domestic work as not being unemployed.

The study indicated that girls needed skills but they too did not count education for self reliance as giving them any. Boys showed more knowledge was important to them. Foster (1965) stated that students always list these two factors (knowledge and skill) as being very important, but his study had only boys in the sample.

Location of residence Several studies have indicated that students in urban areas show higher aspirations than those in rural areas. This is because of the limited range of opportunities available in the rural areas (Peil, 1982; Nucklos & Banducci, 1974; Sewell & Oreinstein, 1965). Differences have also been noted in this study. However, in testing the hypothesis that choice and knowledge of career is a function of location of residence, the relationship observed was low ($r = 0.1499$). This suggests that students in the rural areas know nearly as much as, or as little about job alternatives as do the students in the urban area. Possibly this was the reason for high aspirations in both groups.

Most of the jobs aspired to and expected in the rural areas revolve around teaching, medicine, nursing and clerical work. According to Peil (1967), the clerical/teaching syndrome is symptomatic of an early stage of educational and occupational development. This is true of most parts of the rural regions in Zanzibar, where most schools are comparatively new, and where people have just realized the benefits of education.

When giving the reasons for the choice of occupations, urban students and to some extent students in the South (rural) exhibited individualistic attitudes. The rural (predominantly the North) credited citizenship and service which was also exhibited in the choice of jobs too, like teaching, nursing, politics and joining armed forces.

To suggest patriotism would not be correct, however, cultural unity and ideology of collectivism is very important in the rural areas more than in the urban areas. Limited job opportunities in the rural areas and also somewhat homogeneous influences, seem to limit the rural sample perspective on reality. Students showed themselves to be unaware of the real job opportunity situations. While the urban sample did not expect to be working in highly skilled technical jobs, and also expected to be working in unskilled jobs, the rural students' expectations were the reverse.

Political ideology and mass mobilization of the citizens for the overall development of the regions has tended to inspire rural students in the interest of political education and education for self reliance. In this survey, these two subjects have been downgraded by the urban sample who indicated the learning of English is important for their future working life.

Socio-economic status In the present survey it was exhibited that ascribed traits are not important in forming high aspiration to career. The explanation for this has been given earlier in respect of high educational aspirations of students. It was suggested that achievement is more important for subsequent occupational recruitment, than socio-economic status of the parents. It may be due to the small size of the study sample, that differences could not be found. However, a close scrutiny of current events can show that indirectly fathers' socio-economic status does influence aspirations as well as expectations. It has been noticed that in the rural areas where well above 75% of the students came from peasant backgrounds, the occupational choices revolved around a few limited options; while in the urban areas, where parents were from Categories 1-3, students had a lot of ideas about different types of careers.

Students' expectations did show differences among different socio-economic groups. Students from Categories 1-3 expected to get better jobs because of the influences of their parents, who knew of different types of jobs available. Students in the categories below these did not have high expectations. Currie (1977) observed similarly, that father's socio-economic status influences occupational attainment indirectly, through the father's educational attainment. Peil (1982) also observed that socio-economic background is relatively unimportant, though high socio-economic status children will have more help in finding employment than low socio-economic status school leavers.

Comment This study warrants the comment that in general, students indicated that educational achievement is regarded as important for their future occupational attainment. Similarly gender, rural-urban differences and socio-economic status have been found to act as intervening variables due to certain socialization and cultural values. Unlike other studies in developing countries however schools have not

been found to influence directly either educational or vocational aspirations, presumably because of uniformities in all schools in both structure and curriculum.

Implications

Any implications to be drawn from the study must of necessity depend on a number of assumptions about what the nature of the society, the education system and indeed the people are, and ought to be. With reference to the results there are several practical considerations that should be mentioned.

Students The results indicate that the high aspirations both educational and occupational are not necessarily attributable to unrealistic perceptions of the students. Their expectations are less optimistic. Nonetheless if high aspirations cannot in many cases be realized they are likely to serve no good purpose. The wase and disappointment may be considerable. What is implied is that guidance and counselling might well prove useful if the students are to understand and become aware of opportunities and also of their duties and roles as future productive citizens of a developing nation. This need seems to have been neglected either because the system of labour-recruitment does not give options, or because it was not considered necessary. An effective system of guidance should provide scope for students to realize opportunities available in the country, and get in touch with vocational information and possibly with employers. The whole idea could be built within the framework of education for self reliance. Only a partial change of the existing education system would be entailed.

Education system: A more thorough and close examination of the aims of education is needed. "Aims of education often become blurred because of the failure to distinguish between two related but distinct meanings." (Beeby, 1979). These two are (i) aims of the school which are a statement of qualities, attitudes, knowledge and skills a school should try to develop in students before they leave and (ii) the government's aims for the educational system, in some cases changing the functions of the schools. What Zanzibar needs is examination of both, and an attempt to integrate both in order that education can serve the economy and development. As has been the comment of many

educationists, education cannot solve unemployment or economic problems, however it can bridge a gap by changing the attitudes of the people and making them aware of their problems by giving them alternative ways of problem solving. Change of the educational and school system calls for a change in curriculum and instruction methods.

The present division of labour in the society has been influenced by the curriculum which has differentiated between mental and manual labour (Saunders, 1982). The organizational change of the academic curriculum and education for self reliance calls for an integration of theory and practice. Students have indicated no importance in education for self reliance, because of the lack of relationship to the school subjects. Therefore, to bring about change and relevance to the curriculum, the attitudes of both students and teachers should be changed. This will need a systematic change in both in-service and pre-service teacher education. A training programme should develop new ideas of teaching and learning strategies, and also create methods which will be geared for the future, incorporating scientific and problem solving and also the active participation of students.

The assumption that specialized vocational education can solve social and economic problems has long been discounted (Foster, 1965; Slivey, 1967). Concentration should be put (a) on life long education suitable for working lifetime. General basic education should be accompanied by working experience. Accordingly, schools should be both a learning place and part of the community and therefore serve as tools of production.

Society

In order to bring about change in the education system, changes in the society are apparent. When outlining the need for change in education, President Nyerere (1968) contended that social values from and by the family, school, and society as well as the total environment in which a child develops should be considered. Attempting to solve societal and economic problems is beyond the scope of this thesis. However, in every innovation, change of attitudes is of prerequisite importance. It remains, the great responsibility of the society as a whole to inculcate the ideology of egalitarianism and equal opportunity for all. If it is to the benefit of the students,

parents and the community, social stratification, urban-rural differences and gender differences should be eliminated. The societal values that allow girls to marry before finishing school should be changed. The gap between males and females should be narrowed. If the majority of school leavers are to remain in the rural areas and work on land, amenities and attractions should be part of the development. Similarly attitudes should be changed in the value given to white collar jobs as being more important and prestigious, than being self employed. Where land shortage exists as in Zanzibar, because of the size of the islands, cooperative and communal working should be emphasised.

The implications of the findings outlined above are not totally encompassing or conclusive. This study started not as an end to the problem but as a means of identifying the sources of the problem and hence leading to a better understanding before attempting to solve it.

APPENDIX A - MAP

ZANZIBAR ISLAND

APPENDIX B - QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH)

QUESTIONNAIRES TO FORM III

Introduction

This investigation is a study to find out what students like you in different schools of Zanzibar think about a number of things in schools, and what they will like to do or to be when they finish school. Each of us has got ambitions and expectations of what we will like our life to be. Some of our ambitions come true and some do not for one reason or another. At the same time school to each of us means different things, apart from knowing how to read and write.

This inquiry is very important because it will enable people concerned to see how you as students feel about what you are learning in school. Therefore, I would like you to treat it seriously and to do your best in answering all the questions.

I assure you that this is not part of an examination and all that is in this form is confidential, no name is required on the form.

It is important that you read the instructions carefully and follow them as asked. Please answer all the questions yourself. Do not ask your teacher or your friend.

Some questions may be answered by ticking appropriate brackets, others by filling in the spaces provided.

THANK YOU.

1. Name of school ..... 2. Region .....

3. Sex (i) Male ( ) (ii) Female ( )

4. Date of birth ....
Day Month Year

5. Parent's or guardian's occupation .....

Most of the questions ask to indicate the extent to which you prefer something or another and are set out so that five alternatives are available. For each question you have to choose one alternative and put a tick in the appropriate set of brackets. There is an example below.

	very much indeed	quite a lot	to some extent	a little	not at all
To what extent do you enjoy playing soccer?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

In the example the tick indicates that the person did not enjoy playing soccer very much but he did not dislike it.

	very much indeed	quite a lot	to some extent	a little	not at all
To what extent do you like being in school?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
People go to school for many reasons. To what extent do you think being at school gives you the opportunities listed below in questions					
7. To gain knowledge	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. To acquire skills	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. To develop useful attitudes towards work, life, people etc.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. To come in contact with teachers	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. To be with your friends	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. To be part of your school	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13. To be treated with respect	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
14. To have other people look up to you	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	very much indeed	quite a lot	to some extent	a little	not at all
15. To be in an important organization like school	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
16. To do what <u>your parents</u> consider is the right thing	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
17. To do what <u>you</u> consider is the right thing	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
18. To do what important people consider to be the right thing	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
19. To what extent <u>would you really</u> like to continue at school next year?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
20. To what extent do you think <u>your parents</u> would like you to continue at school?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
21. To what extent do you think your community and nation would like you to continue at school next year?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

22. Please indicate below by ticking the correct bracket which of the following classes do you think you will go to

	YES	NO
Form 4	( )	( )
Form 5-6	( )	( )
University	( )	( )

23. If you think you will continue at school for one year or more please indicate why .....
.....
.....

	very much indeed	quite a lot	to some extent	a little	not at all
If you do go back to school next year to what extent do you consider it is because you want:					
24. To be able to get a better job (because of your knowledge or skills)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	very much indeed	quite a lot	to some extent	a little	not at all
25. To get more education and higher qualification (because people will look up at you)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
26. To spend your time pleasantly (because you will be with your friends)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

By now most of you must have thought of what you will like to do when you finish school, or must have had an interest in a type of job you will like. Please indicate in the blank spaces below

27. What sort of job would you like to have when you leave school? .....

28. What sort of job do you think you will have when you leave school? .....

29. Why do you think you will have that sort of job? .....

30. Indicate below by ranking 1-9 beside each subject you think will help you in your job (starting with 1 as the most important in your job)

Geography	( )
Political education	( )
History	( )
English	( )
Kiswahili	( )
Biology	( )
Physics	( )
Chemistry	( )
Mathematics	( )
Education for self-reliance	( )

31. You might have an idea of what more schools can provide in terms of knowledge and skills for the preparation of your life, please write it down in the space provided .....

APPENDIX C - QUESTIONNAIRE (KISWAHILI)

UTAFITIKWA WANAFUNZI WA FORM III

Utangulizi

Uchunguzi huu unahusika na utafiti wa wanafunzi katika maskuli mbali mbali ya Unguja na jinsi wanavyofikiria kuhusu mambo kadha yanavyofanyika katika maskuli.

Uchunguzi huu vile vile unahusika na wao wenyewe wanafunzi binafsi, kwa kueleza wangelipenda kufanya nini au kuwa nani watapomaliza skuli. Kila mmoja wetu ana malengo na matumaini ya kutaka kufikia wapi katika maisha. Baadhiya malengo yetu hutokea yakawa kweli na mengi hayawezi kuwa tutakavyo, kutokana na sababu zisoweza kuzuwilika. Vile vile kwenda skuli kwa kila mmoja wetu kunaweza kuwa na maana yake nyingine (muhimu wake mwingine), mbali ya kule kujua kusoma na kuandika.

Uchunguzi huu ni muhimu sana kwa sababu utawawezesha watu wanaohusika kuelewa jinsi, ninyi, nafsi zenu, kama ni wanafunzi, mnavyoona na kuhisi katika mambo mbali mbali mnayojifunza katika maskuli. Kwa hivyo, ningekuombeni mlichukulie jambo hili kama ni muhimu na mjaribu kuyajibu masuali yote.

Nakuhakikishieni kwamba masuali haya hayuhusiki na mtihani na wala hayakujaribuni kwa vyovyote vile, na yote yaliyomo katika karatasi siri, kwa hivyo haina haja ya kuandika jina lako.

Ni muhimu kusoma maelezo kwa uangalifu na kufuata jinsi ulivyotakiwa. Tafadhali jibu masuali yote wewe mwenyewe. Usimulize mwalimu au rafiki/ shoga yako.

Baadhi ya masuali yataweza kujibiwa kwa kuweka alama ya sahihi katika braketi inayohusika (✓), na mengine kwa kujaza nafasi maalumu zilizowachwa wazi.

ASHANTE.

1. Jina la Skuli ..... 2. Mkoa .....

3. Jinsi (i) Mume ..... (ii) Mke .....

4. Tarehe ya kuzaliwa ....
siku (tarehe) Mwezi Mwaka

5. Kazi ya mzazi au mlezi .....

Mengi katika masuali yaliyomo katika Fomu hii yanakuhitaji uoneshe kwa kadiri gani unapendelea jambo hili au lile, kwa hivyo masuali haya yamepangwa katika vifungu vitano vya majibu. Kwa kila suali unatakiwa uteue jibu moja na uweke alama ya sahihi (✓) katika braketi inayofaa. Suali lifuatalo ni la mfano:

	sana sana	sana	kwa kadiri	kidogo	siyo kabisa
Kwa kadiri gani unapenda kucheza mpira?	( )	( )	(✓)	( )	( )

Katika mfano huu alama ya sahihi (✓) inaonesha kuwa mtu huyu hapendi sana kucheza mpira lakini siyo kwamba anachukia kufanya hivyo.

	sana sana	sana	kwa kadiri	kidogo	siyo kabisa
6. Kwa kadiri gani unapenda kwenda skuli?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Watu huenda skuli kwa sababu mbali mbali. Kadiri gani unafikiria kuwepo kwako skuli kutakupa nafasi zilizoorodheshwa hapo chini kuanzia suali la 7 mpaka 19:					
7. Kupata maarifa	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
8. Kupata stadi (ufundi)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
9. Kukuza silka zinazofaa katika kazi maisha na watu	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
10. Kukutana na walimu	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
11. Kuwa pamoja na rafiki zako	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
12. Kuwa mmoja wa waliyoma katika skuli yako	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
13. Watu waweze kukuheshimu	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
14. Watu waweze kuona kuwa unastahiki heshima na unafahamu mambo	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	sana sana	sana	kwa kadiri	kidogo	siyo kabisa
15. Kuwemo katika jumuia muhimu kama skuli	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
16. Kufanya vile ambavyo wazee wako wanafikiria ni sawa	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
17. Kufanya ambavyo wewe unafikiria ni sawa	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
18. Kufanya ambavyo wakuu wanaona ni sawa	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
19. Kwa kadiri gani ungelipenda kuendelea na skuli mwakani (baada ya Form III)?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
20. Kwa kadiri gani unafikiria wazazi wako wangelipenda wewe kuendelea na skuli mwakani (baada ya Form III)?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
21. Kwa kadiri gani unafikiria taifa lako lingependelea wewe uendelee na skuli mwakani (baada ya Form III)?	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

22. Tafadhali onesha hapo chini kwa kuweka alama ya sahihi ( ) katika braketi inayofaa mpaka wapi unafikiria unaweza kuendelea:

	NDIYO	HAPANA
Form 4	( )	( )
Form 5-6	( )	( )
Chuo Kikuu	( )	( )

23. Ikiwa unafikiria kwamba utaendelea na skuli mwakana eleza sababu zake .....
.....
.....

Ikiwa utaendelea na skuli mwakani kwa kadiri gani unafikiria ni kwa sababu unataka

	sana sana	sana	kwa kadiri	kidogo	siyo kabisa
24. Unaweza kupata kazi bora zaidi (kwa sababu ya maarifa yako, ujuzi au stadi ulizo nazo)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
25. Kupata elimu zaidi kwa hivyo sifa zaidi (kwa sababu watu wanautambua ujuzi wako na kona unastahikikazi na mshahara zaidi)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

	sana sana	sana	kwa kadiri	kidogo	siyo kabisa
26. Kupitisha wakati waki vizuri zaidi (kwa sababu utakuwa na rafiki zako)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

Bila shaka kwa sasa wengi wenu mtakuwa mmtakuwa mmekiwisha kufikiria mtapenda kufanya nini mtakapomaliza skuli, au mna mapendekezo ya kazi ambayo mngependa kufanya kufanya- Tafadhali andika katika nafasi zilizoachwa wazi hapo chini kuanzia suali la 27-29

27. Kazi ya aina gani <u>ungependa kufanya</u> utapomaliza skuli? .....
.....

28. Kazi ya aina gani <u>unafikiria utapata</u> utapomaliza skuli? ... .

29. Kwa nini unafikiria utapata kazi hiyo? .....
.....

30. Onesha kwa kuorodhesha 1-9 katika braketi, pembezoni mwa kila somo unalofikiria litakusaidia katika kazi yako (anza na I kwa some unalofikiria ni muhimu kabisa katika hiyo kazi na kuendelea mpaka 9)

Jiografia	( )
Siasa	( )
Historia	( )
Kiingereza	( )
Kiswahili	( )
Biology	( )
Physics	( )
Chemistry	( )
Hesabu	( )
Elimu ya kujitegemea tegemea	( )

31. Kwa sasa labda utakuwa unayo mawazo kuhusu nini zaidi unataka skuli ikupe kwa njia ya maarifa na stadi (ufundi) ili kwa kujitayarisha katika maisha yako; tafadhali andika maelezo yako katika nafasi iliyoachwa wazi. .....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

APPENDIX D - SURVEY INSTRUCTIONS TO TEACHERS AND TEACHER RATINGS (ENGLISH)

FORM III SURVEY INSTRUCTIONS ON QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTRATION

To the Coordinator and all Teachers Concerned

I would be very much thankful for your assistance in carrying out this survey. The survey will help us in understanding and evaluating the most important service we give our nation, and will also enable us to see how students value our teaching.

Instructions

1. This questionnaire is for students, therefore I would suggest that they are given as little help as possible in filling them. The aim is students' answers.
2. Assistance can be given to students where meaning is concerned, for clarification.
3. The questionnaires should be filled in front of a teacher in the classroom.
4. Numbers should be assigned instead of names. No names are needed. Sitting positions could be used for assigning the numbers.
5. Finally, I would appreciate a brief report on the procedures as follows with particular emphasis on:
   a) General comments on the procedure
   b) Number of students who participated
   c) Average time taken
   d) Any problems
   e) How the problems were solved

THANK YOU.

TEACHER RATINGS

Dear Teachers,

I would very much appreciate your assistance and cooperation in providing me with some details of Form III Students who will participate in Form III Survey.

In most cases teachers can predict the performance of their students. Therefore, from your understanding, I would like you to grade your students according to their performance and the three year continuous assessment (Form I-III).

The instructions are as follows:

Student #	Student Performance			
1	1	2	3	4
2				
3				
4				
5				
↓				

Numbers 1-4 indicate the students' gradings

1 - Highly likely to go to Form IV
2 - Most likely to go to Form IV
3 - Possibly
4 - No chance at all

The column numbers are students' serial numbers corresponding to the questionnaire number assigned (instead of name).

For further information please refer to the instructions on the "Questionnaire Administration".

THANK YOU.

APPENDIX E - SURVEY INSTRUCTIONS TO TEACHERS AND TEACHER RATINGS (KISWAHILI)

MWONGOZO WA UENDESHAJI WA UTAFITI WA FORM III

Ndugu Mwongozaji wa Utafiti,

Nitashukuru kupata msaada wako, katika kazi hii, ambayo huenda ikatupa mwelekeo wa kuona kazi yetu muhimu na ya huduma inaelekea wapi katika kujenga taifa letu, na vile vile kuturidhisha mioyoni mwetu kwamba huduma tunayowapa watoto wetu wanaithamini. Kwa hivyo ningelipenda kutoa mwongozo mfupi juu ya hiyo shughuli yenyewe.

Maelezo maalumu

1. Kwa sababu utafiti unaohusu wanafunzi wenyewe ningeliomba wasisaidiwe katika kujaza hizo fomu: ufanisi wa uchunguzi huu ni hayo majibu halisi ya wanafunzi- au itapoteza maana yake kabisa.

2. Wanafunzi wajibu wao wenyewe ila kwa pale wasipofahamu lugha tu- (Mwendeshaji anaweza kutoa maelezo ya lugha bali siyo ya majibu).

3. Fomu ijibiwe darasani na kukusanywa baada ya kujibiwa tu, juu ya usimamizi maalumu.

4. Mwanafunzi hatahitaji kuandika jina lake, lakini itabidi kuandika namba nyuma ya karatasi ya majibu kwa mpango atakaoelezwa.

5. Ningeomba umpe msaada mwalimu kwa kujaza sehemu yake kama itakavyoelezwa katika maelezo maalumu kwa mwalimu.

6. Mwisho ningependa kupata ripoti fupi kwa mpango ufuatao:

a) Uendeshaji ulivyokwenda kwa jumla

b) Muda waliyochukua wanafunzi kujaza

c) Idadi ya wanafunzi waliojaza

d) Matatizo kama yalikuwepo

e) Vipi matatizo yalitatuliwa

Ripoti hizo ni kwa kila skuli iliyohusika.

Maelezo kwa Mwalimu

Ndugu Mwalimu,

Ningeshukuru kupata msaada wako kuhusu wanafunzi wa Form III. Mwalimu mara nyingi anaweza kujua, kutokana na maendeleo ya wanafunzi wake, ikiwa mwanafunzi huyo anaweza kuendelea juu zaidi au la.

Kwa hivyo, naomba kupata makisio yako kwa kila mwanafunzi kutokana na maendeleo ya kila siku pamoja na mitihani yao kwa miaka mitatu Form I-III.

Utaratibu wa makisio hayo ni kama ufuatavyo:

Makisio ya Mwalimu juu ya Ufanisi wa Mwanafunzi

Namba	1	2	3	4
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7			✓	
8				
9				

Namba 1-4 ndizo zitazotumika kwa kutoa makisio ya kila mwanafunzi kwa utaratibu ufuatao

1 - Bila shaka
2 - inawezekana
3 - huenda ikawa
4 - siyo kabisa

Namba zilizo simama ni mfano wa namba ambazo Mwalimu ataweza kuwapa wanafunzi kwa jinsi wanavyokaa.

Maelezo zaidi ya kutoa namba ni kama hayo yaliyoelezwa katika karatasi ya Waendeshaji wa Utafiti.

ASHANTE.

APPENDIX F - CODING CATEGORIES

CODING CATEGORIES

	Q.#	Information to be coded
Column 1 - 3		Identification number of the respondents
Column 5	3	Sex of the student
		0 - No response
		1 - Male
		2 - Female
Column 7	2	Region
		0 - No response
		1 - Urban West
		2 - North
		3 - South
Column 9	5	Father's socio-economic status (occupation)
		0 - No response
		1 - Profession/managerial/administrative
		2 - Technical skilled
		3 - Clerical/semi-skilled
		4 - Semi-skilled manual
		5 - Unskilled (traditional)
		6 - Armed forces
		7 - Unemployed
Column 11	6	0 - No response
		1 - Very much indeed
		2 - Quite a lot
		3 - To some extent
		4 - A little
		5 - Not at all
Column 12	7	Reason for being in school: Gain knowledge
		0 - No response
		1 - Very much indeed
		2 - Quite a lot
		3 - To some extent
		4 - A little
		5 - Not at all

	Q.#	
Column 13	8	Reason for being in school: Acquire skills

0 - No response
1 - Very much indeed
2 - Quite a lot
3 - To some extent
4 - A little
5 - Not at all

Column 14	9	Reason for being in school: To develop useful attitudes

0 - No response
1 - Very much indeed
2 - Quite a lot
3 - To some extent
4 - A little
5 - Not at all

Column 15	10	Reason for being in school: To come in contact with teachers

0 - No response
1 - Very much indeed
2 - Quite a lot
3 - To some extent
4 - A little
5 - Not at all

Column 16	11	Reason for being in school: To be with friends

0 - No response
1 - Very much indeed
2 - Quite a lot
3 - To some extent
4 - A little
5 - Not at all

	Q.#	
Column 17	12	Reason for being in school: To be part of school

0 - No response
1 - Very much indeed
2 - Quite a lot
3 - To some extent
4 - A little
5 - Not at all

Column 18	13	Reason for being in school: To be treated with respect

0 - No response
1 - Very much indeed
2 - Quite a lot
3 - To some extent
4 - A little
5 - Not at all

Column 19	14	Reason for being in school: To have people to look up to

0 - No response
1 - Very much indeed
2 - Quite a lot
3 - To some extent
4 - A little
5 - Not at all

Column 20	15	Reason for being in school: Belong to an important organisation

0 - No response
1 - Very much indeed
2 - Quite a lot
3 - To some extent
4 - A little
5 - Not at all

	Q.#	
Column 21	16	Reason for being in school: Parent considers it right

0 - No response
1 - Very much indeed
2 - Quite a lot
3 - To some extent
4 - A little
5 - Not at all

Column 22	17	Reason for being in school: Student considers it the right thing to do

0 - No response
1 - Very much indeed
2 - Quite a lot
3 - To some extent
4 - A little
5 - Not at all

Column 23	18	Reasons for being in school: Important people consider it right thing to do

0 - No response
1 - Very much indeed
2 - Quite a lot
3 - To some extent
4 - A little
5 - Not at all

Column 26	19	Extent of liking to continue at school after Form III

0 - No response
1 - Very much indeed
2 - Quite a lot
3 - To some extent
4 - A little
5 - Not at all

	Q.#	
Column 27	20	Parents wanting student to continue after Form III 0 - No response 1 - Very much indeed 2 - Quite a lot 3 - To some extent 4 - A little 5 - Not at all
Column 28	21	Community and nation want student to continue after Form III 0 - No response 1 - Very much indeed 2 - Quite a lot 3 - To some extent 4 - A little 5 - Not at all
Column 29	22	Level of education aspired to 0 - No response 1 - No (Do not intend to continue) 2 - Form IV 3 - Form V - VI 4 - University
Column 30	23	Reason for continuing: If you think you will continue at school indicate why 0 - No response/irrelevant responses 1 - Security 2 - Knowledge 3 - Status/power/success 4 - Citizenship/service 5 - Self/social 6 - Family

	Q.#	
Column 32	24	Student goes back to school because: To get a better job (knowledge/skill) 0 - No response 1 - Very much indeed 2 - Quite a lot 3 - To some extent 4 - A little 5 - Not at all
Column 33	25	Student goes back to school because: To get higher qualification (people will look up to him/her) 0 - No response 1 - Very much indeed 2 - Quite a lot 3 - To some extent 4 - A little 5 - Not at all
Column 34	26	Student goes back to school because: To spend time pleasantly (with friends) 0 - No response 1 - Very much indeed 2 - Quite a lot 3 - To some extent 4 - A little 5 - Not at all
Column 36	27	Aspired job 0 - No response 1 - Professional/managerial/administrative 2 - Technical skilled 3 - Clerical/semi-skilled 4 - Semi-skilled manual 5 - Unskilled (traditional) 6 - Armed forces

	Q.#	
Column 37	28	Expected job 0 - No response 1 - Professional/managerial/administrative 2 - Technical skilled 3 - Clerical/semi-skilled 4 - Semi-skilled manual 5 - Unskilled (traditional) 6 - Armed forces 7 - Unemployed
Column 38	29	Reasons for expected jobs (Why do you think you will have that job?) 0 - No response 1 - Environmental/social factors 2 - Family reasons 3 - Citizenship/service 4 - Abilities/skill/interest/knowledge 5 - Economic factors
Column 41-60	30	Ranking subjects in order of students' perception of relevance to future working life 00 - 10 Geography Political Education History English Kiswahili Biology Physics Chemistry Mathematics Education for Self-Reliance Note: Each student ranked to his/her own order.

	Q.#	
Column 62	31	Idea of what more schools can provide in the preparation of life 0 - No response 1 - Knowledge 2 - Skill
Column 64	-	Teacher ratings of student performance and chances of being selected for further education (based on continuous assessment Form I - III) 0 - No response 1 - Very high 2 - High 3 - Maybe 4 - Not at all

APPENDIX G - FATHERS'/GUARDIANS' OCCUPATIONS (SES)

FATHER OR GUARDIAN'S OCCUPATION SES

I Professional/administrative

Regional Commissioner
Education officer
Teacher
Nursing/medical assistant
Assistant Secretary (political party)

II Technical/skilled

Telecommunication

III Semi-skilled clerical/skilled manual

Clerk (civil servant)
Shop assistant
Typist
Driver
Carpenter
Plumber
Mechanic
Dressmaker/tailor

IV Semi-skilled manual

Factory worker

V Unskilled

Farmer/fisherman
Watchman/caretaker
Office cleaner/messenger
Labourer

VI Armed forces

Police/police marine
Army/navy

APPENDIX H - REASONS FOR CONTINUING AT SCHOOL

CATEGORIES OF REASONS FOR CONTINUING AT SCHOOL

1. SECURITY

To be able to get work

Education is necessary for getting a job with good pay

Student has to work hard to get qualification because he does not get necessities from parents

2. KNOWLEDGE

To increase his level of knowledge and skills for future use

Not satisfied with present level of education

3. STATUS/POWER/SUCCESS

Self advancement

University level is important for success

Form III leavers are not regarded as educated

To get prestigious job

To be an important person and have a better life

4. CITIZENSHIP/SERVICE

Development of nation

Nation wants people to be educated

To work for the nation

5. SELF/SOCIAL

Fulfilling his aim

Likes being with friends in school

Enjoys school, interested in studies

Ability

Will get through examination

Still young/nothing to do

6. FAMILY REASONS

Parents want him to continue

Parents encourage him

Parents will be happy

APPENDIX I - CATEGORIES OF STUDENTS' ASPIRED JOBS

STUDENTS' ASPIRED JOBS

Note: The jobs were grouped in six main categories from the responses of an open ended question:

What sort of job would you like to have when you leave school?

Some of the responses were vague and could not be categorized properly.

I Professional/managerial and administrative

Teaching
Medicine
Journalism
Civil servant (assistant secretaries, principal secretaries)
Politics (trade unionist minister, regional commissioner, parliamentarian)
Banking
Working with international organizations - FAO, UNO
Publisher/printer
Nursing/medical assistant
TV and radio announcer

II Technical/skilled

Electrical engineering
Mechanical engineering
Air traffic controller
Telecommunications
Television producer
Navigator
Air pilot
Aeroplane technician

III Semi-skilled clerical/skilled manual

Clerk
Typist
Carpentry
Driver
Plumber

Mechanic/motor
Dressmaker/tailor
Retail business (self-employed)

IV Semi-skilled manual

Machine operator in factory
Machine maintenance
Sailor

V Unskilled

Fishing
Farming

VI Armed forces

Prison warden
Navy
Police/Police marine
Army
Youth brigade

Jobs which could not be categorized clearly

Movie stars
Professional footballer
Athletics
Air hostess
Ground hostess in an airline

APPENDIX J - CATEGORIES OF STUDENTS' EXPECTED JOBS

STUDENTS' EXPECTED JOBS

Note: The jobs were grouped in seven main categories from the responses of a question.

What sort of job do you think you will have when you leave school?

I Professional/managerial and administrative

- Teaching
- Nursing/medical assistant

II Technical/skilled

- Engineering
- Electrician

III Semi-skilled/skilled manual

- Clerk
- Typist
- Driver
- Carpentry
- Masonry
- Shop assistant
- Dressmaking
- Retail business (self-employed)
- Motor mechanic

IV Semi-skilled manual

- Working in a factory
- Sailor
- Any semi-skilled job

V Unskilled

- Fishing)
- Farming) self-employed

VI Armed forces

- Navy
- Police
- Army

VII Unemployed

Jobs which could not be categorised clearly

Jobs dealing with sports

Any sort of work

Transport

APPENDIX K - CATEGORIES OF STUDENTS' REASONS FOR EXPECTED JOBS

CATEGORIES OF REASONS FOR EXPECTED JOBS

1. SOCIAL/ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

There is no job in the area
There is no other job available/only vacancy available
Most of the boys in the area got into that type of job
Shortage of teachers
Wants to visit other countries

2. FAMILY REASONS

Brother already made arrangements
Family occupation
Ought to help parents

3. CITIZENSHIP/SERVICE

Building the nation
Service to the citizens
Economic development of the community
The nation needs teachers
The nation needs citizens for defence
The nation needs doctors

4. ABILITIES/SKILLS/INTEREST/KNOWLEDGE

Already trained for the job
Physically able to do the job
The student has got abilities
The student has got qualification for the job
Student likes language
Level of education is not high enough
The student is working very hard to get the job

5. ECONOMIC FACTORS

The job has good pay

APPENDIX L - STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

TWO WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEX
AND REGION ON STUDENTS' VOCATIONAL ASPIRATIONS

SOURCE	df	SS	MS	F
SEX	1	88.798	88.798	37.584*
REGION	2	9.183	4.591	1.943
SEX X REGION (INTERACTION)	2	6.974	3.487	1.476
ERROR WITHIN	302	713.517	2.363	

* F ratio sig at $\alpha = 0.05$

TWO WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEX
AND REGION ON STUDENTS' CONTINUING AT SCHOOL

SOURCE	df	SS	MS	F
SEX	1	0.367	0.367	0.453
REGION	2	5.023	2.512	3.103*
SEX X REGION (INTERACTION)	2	4.419	2.210	0.067
ERROR WITHIN	317	256.606	0.809	

* F ratio sig at $\alpha = 0.05$

TWO WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEX AND REGION ON STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF REALITY TO EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATION

SOURCE	df	ss	MS	F
SEX	1	0.812	0.812	0.347
REGION	2	27.362	13.681	5.849
SEX X REGION (INTERACTION)	2	0.109	0.054	0.023
ERROR WITHIN	268	626.804	2.339	

TWO WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR SEX AND REGION ON STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF REALITY TO EDUCATIONAL ASPIRATION

SOURCE	df	ss	MS	F
SEX	1	0.386	0.386	0.358
REGION	2	2.854	1.427	1.321
SEX X REGION (INTERACTION)	2	1.181	0.591	0.547
ERROR WITHIN	216	233.254	1.080	

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