AN ASSESSMENT OF THE EMPLOYMENT AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS IN TANZANIA

Privatus Christopher, Assistant Lecturer, Department ICT and Mathematics, College of Business Education, Tanzania, P.O. BOX 1968, Dar es Salaam; E-mail: p.ntare@cbe.ac.tz
George Rujomba, Assistant Lecturer, Department of business administration, College of Business Education, Tanzania, P.O. BOX 1968, Dar es Salaam; E-mail: g.rujomba@cbe.ac.tz

ABSTRACT

This study empirically assesses employment among college students in Tanzania. It examined the effect of age and gender on student employment, the factors that lead employed people to join undergraduate studies, and identified ways that colleges may use to help employed students to succeed in their studies in Tanzania. Data were collected using questionnaires, interviews and analyzed quantitatively through descriptive analysis and multiple logistic regression. Logistic regression results showed that the employment probability was steadily increasing between ages 18 to 33, but then after it decreases steadily with age at least after age 34, and the male students had an average chance of employment 2.15 times the chance of female students. Descriptive statistics results showed that the factor that leads employed people to join undergraduate studies were: the need for technical skills, knowledge, exposure, job security, social status, job market, job promotion, get new friends, internal motivation, and unemployment. Also, the results showed that the ways to improve education success among employed students were the introduction of evening courses, student interaction with instructors, offering students access to an academic advisor, career counseling, offering weekend courses, increase the students' assessment criteria's, involve students in outreach activities, and offering the online courses.

Keywords: Age, Gender, Logistic regression, Students employment, Undergraduate studies.

INTRODUCTION

Background Information

The number of employed students has increased markedly in the recent decades around the world (Roshchin & Rudakov, 2017). Burnside et al., (2019) reported that approximately 80% of college students in USA colleges were participating in some form of paid employment. In Russian, 64.7% of students combined study and work and most of them began working during their third year of study (Roshchin & Rudakov, 2017). The increase in student employment leads to concern about the effects of work while studying for academic success and the long-run labor market outcome of college students. Understanding how employment affects students’ education is difficult since there are different reasons why students work while studying. Perna, (2010) argued that many students must work to pay the cost of attending colleges, other students required to work as part of their financial package, some may use employment as a way to explore career options or earn spending money, and other students especially adult work while studying is the part of their identity.

Most of the job requirements have increased from secondary schools to tertiary education in combination with high-quality experience due to changes in economic structure from an industrial to a post-industrial economy (Anthony P. Carnevale & Smith, 2018). This has led to increasing concern about the effects of work while studying for academic success and the long-run labor market outcome of college students. Alongside economic, social, and political factors, demographic factors may also influence student employment. Demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status, and children may all influence student employment indirectly through financial factors (Roshchin & Rudakov, 2017).

Despite various studies being conducted in this area, the issues related to the extent to which undergraduate student employment is related to age and gender, the factors that lead employed people to join undergraduate studies, and the ways colleges may use to help employed students in Tanzania to succeed in their studies need to be disregarded. Therefore, this study focused on addressing these matters. The primary questions in this study were as follows: (a) to
what extent student employment was related to age and gender? (b) What factors lead employed people to join undergraduate studies? (c) Which ways colleges may use to help employed students to succeed in their studies?

LITERATURE REVIEW
Factors that lead Employed People to Join Undergraduate Studies
The number of students who seek and obtain employment while attending college increases as the cost of attending college education increases (Halper et al., 2020). It is very important to make a clear choice of the future profession when a person selects the form of studies and the college. The wrong choice may affect finding employment within the preferred area of studies (Vinichenko et al., 2016). Existing studies concerning college students’ employment address important questions related to student affairs. For example, The study by Richardson et al.,(2013) on the academic achievement of students in a New Zealand university showed no difference in grades between employed students and non-employed students. Safara et al., (2017) study on creativity and self-esteem in students with employed and household mothers showed that there was a significant difference between self–esteem in employed and non- employed students.

The study by Choi, (2018) on student employment and persistence found employment as one of the factors that can contribute to students dropping out. Riggert et al., (2006) study on student employment and higher education warned that employment not only limits the time one has for academic studies, it also limits the student opportunities for interaction with other students and faculty. The study by Baert et al., (2018) on student employment and academics found the association between hours of student work and the percentage of courses passed for employed students.

Through this literature, there has been little discussion about what motivates people to join college studies. This study offers a new angle of discussion consistent with the themes of employed students learning and development, it asked what enhanced employed people to join undergraduate studies.

Supporting Employed Students
Colleges have been critiqued by the industry for the lack of competence and practical training to students which results in producing incompetent graduates who require extensive supervision and mentoring when they join the industry after graduation (Papier, 2017). Due to these reasons, colleges have an obligation of creating a conducive environment for students. Colleges should provide orientation courses to first-year students which assist in the transition of students (Grogan, 2015). They should ensure that students are fully involved and actively participated in the learning process (Giust & Valle-Riestra, 2017). Also, colleges must educate both instructors and administrators about the prevalence of students’ employment and how to connect students’ work and academic experiences and then change the institutional policies, structures, and practices to promote such connections (Perna, 2010).

The college effort of creating a culture that promotes the success of employed students is required. The professional identity and development of expertise should be reflected in college programs, the current state of theoretical and practical approaches is mostly unsatisfactory (Penttinen et al., 2013). Furthermore, colleges should give students an opportunity for interactions with their instructors and such interactions may be beneficial to working students (Perna, 2010). Theriault, (2019) suggested that colleges should use oral participation as a way to demonstrate interest and keep class active and moving forward particularly when students are not feeling confident in their knowledge or understanding. Brooms ( 2018) Suggests that students should be enhanced with the sense of mattering and belonging on the campus through helping them access sociocultural capital, providing holistic support, and engendering student’s persistence.

METHODOLOGY
Study area and Design
The study was carried out in Dar es Salaam. The area was selected since it was the region with many higher learning institutions with more working students in Tanzania. The research employed the case study design and quantitative methodological approach. These approaches provide an in-depth understanding of the problems under study (Guetterman & Fetters, 2018).
Sampling and Sample size

The study employed both purposive and random sampling techniques. The colleges were selected randomly and from each college, we employed purposive sampling to obtain the employed students. The purposive sampling technique was used to obtain respondents who were aware of the phenomena under the study (Ames et al., 2019). Then from the sampled colleges, a total of 400 questionnaires were distributed and 49 students were interviewed.

Data collection

Data were collected using the questionnaire and interview. A questionnaire with a total of 35 questions was used. The first part contained 10 questions regarding the working students’ profiles and attributes. The second part contained 15 questions regarding reasons that lead employed people to join undergraduate studies such as job promotion, change the current job, funding from the employer, internal motivation, social life, family influences, job market, job security, academic exploration, and social status. The five-point Likert-type items ranging from “1= strongly disagree” to “5 = strongly agree” for measuring these items were used. Moreover, the third part of the questionnaire contained 10 questions regarding ways of helping employed students to succeed in their studies such as career counseling, interaction with instructors and fellow students, evening, weekends, and online courses. These also were measured by using the five-point Likert type items ranging from “1= strongly disagree” to “5 = strongly agree”.

The Interview was conducted using close-ended questions. This gave respondents room to choose responses from a distinct set of pre-defined responses. The proceedings of the interview were conducted in both English and Swahili and recorded by audio recorders. Data collected in Swahili were transcribed then into English.

Data Analysis

To answer question (a) of the study, we used multiple logistic regression analyses using the statistical software environment R (R core Team, 2018). The model looked at the main effect of age and gender as the explanatory variables on employment as the response. The fitted model will have the form of

\[ \text{logit}(\pi_i) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 \]

The response variable (employment) were be coded as 0 if the student is permanently employed and 1 if he is temporarily employed. If the binary response coded in the form of \( Y \in \{0,1\} \), the linear logistic model is often used and it models the log-likelihood ratio as the linear combination

\[ \ln \left( \frac{P(Y = 1|X = x)}{P(Y = 0|X = x)} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 \]

Where \( X_1 \) and \( X_2 \) are explanatory variables, \( X_1 \) is age and \( X_2 \) is gender, \( \beta_0 \in R \) is an intercept term and \( \beta_1, \beta_2 \in R \) are the vector regression coefficients.

To answer the question (b) and (c) we used descriptive analyses. The data were analyzed through descriptive analysis at the ordinal measurement scale. The descriptive analyses used included the mean for central tendency and standard deviation for variability (Boone & Boone, 2012).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Demographic Characteristics of Surveyed Students

Four hundred (400) questionnaires were distributed of which 250 were fully completed and returned and 49 respondents were interviewed. Among the respondents, 109 (36.4%) were from the College of Business Education (CBE), 76 (25.4%) from Dar es Salaam Institute of Technology (DIT), 49 (16.4%) from the National Institute of Transport (NIT) and 65 (21.7%) from Tanzania Institute of Accountancy (TIA). 254 (84.9%) respondents were permanently employed and 45 (15.1%) were temporarily employed. Males were 156 (52.1%) and females were 143 (47.8%). 235 (78.6%) of respondents used the diploma qualification to join the undergraduate studies while 64 (21.4%) used the form six criteria to join undergraduate studies.

Relationship of Student Employment to Age and Gender

From figure 2, we observed that the employment possibility among males was greater than for females, perhaps narrowing the gap among the teenage people, but the data get bigger towards the upper range of age.

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Figure 2 assumed the linear relationship between the log odds of employment and age. To check whether the relationship between employment and age is non-linear, we allowed the quadratic relationship with age. The results are shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3 is providing some additional information. It shows a quite different regime relating the employment for males and females. For both groups, the employment probability was steadily increasing between ages 18 to 33, but then after it decreases steadily with age at least after age 34. We still observe that for all age groups the employment probability for the male is greater than the female.

Since some types of distribution are assumed in advance, parametric fitting can lead to fitting the smoothed curve that misrepresents the data. To avoid that, the non-parametric loess smooth was fitted as shown in figure 4.
The curve for females and males in figure 4 is similar to that of the quadratic fit in figure 3, but the curve for males and females is very close at age 24. Another observation to be drawn from these graphs is that the linear logistic regression may tell only the part of the story.

The Best Model

The suggestions from exploratory graphs (Figures 1, 2, and 3) can be used to define some models for student employment. But the questions of interest were: Is the relationship different for males and females? This is, is it necessary to allow for interaction of age with gender, or separate fitted curves for male and female students?

Is the relationship between employment and age well-represented in a linear or non-linear logistic regression model? To address these questions, we built a variety of logistic models and subsequently assessed them. We fitted the 2 * 2 collection of the models to the data corresponding to whether or not age and gender effects are additive and whether the effects are linear on the logit scale or non-linear (quadratic).

i. Model 1: \[ \text{Logit}(\pi) = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 \]

ii. Model 2: \[ \text{Logit}(\pi) = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_1X_2 \]

iii. Model 3: \[ \text{Logit}(\pi) = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_1^2 + \beta_3X_2 \]

iv. Model 4: \[ \text{Logit}(\pi) = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_1^2 + \beta_3X_2 + \beta_4X_1X_2 + \beta_5X_1^2X_2 \]

To make the intercept meaningful, we fitted all four models centering age near the mean. A compact summary of these models, giving the likelihood ratio test of goodness of fit, together with the AIC and BIC statistics are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Likelihood summary:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>AIC</th>
<th>BIC</th>
<th>LR Chisq</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Pr(&gt;Chisq)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model 1</td>
<td>247.66</td>
<td>258.76</td>
<td>241.66</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>0.9908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 2</td>
<td>249.66</td>
<td>264.46</td>
<td>241.66</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>0.9897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 3</td>
<td>225.41</td>
<td>240.21</td>
<td>217.41</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>0.9998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 4</td>
<td>227.70</td>
<td>249.91</td>
<td>215.70</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>0.9998</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By AIC and BIC, model 3 was best, but like other models, it has a non-significant LR likelihood ratio chi-square (residual deviance). Therefore the answers to our questions looked to be that (a) there was evidence that the relationship of employment to age differ for male and female students in Dar es Salaam. (b) These relationships are well-described by the non-linear (quadratic) logistic regression. For more clarification, the summary for model 3 is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Summary for model 3

\[
\text{glm(formula = employment ~ poly(Age, 2) + gender, family = binomial, Data = student2)}
\]

Deviance Residuals:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Min</th>
<th>1Q</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>3Q</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-1.1941</td>
<td>-0.5531</td>
<td>-0.3846</td>
<td>-0.2557</td>
<td>2.8863</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coefficients:

| Estimate | Std. Error | z value | Pr(>|z|) |
|----------|------------|---------|---------|
| (Intercept) | -2.4993 | 0.3070 | -8.141 | 3.93e-16 *** |
| poly(Age, 2)1 | 10.2111 | 3.2319 | 3.159 | 0.00158 ** |
| poly(Age, 2)2 | -15.4000 | 3.7070 | -4.154 | 3.26e-05 *** |
| Gender: Male | 0.7670 | 0.3546 | 2.163 | 0.03055 * |

Signif. Codes: 0 0.001 0.01 0.05 0.1 1

(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
Null deviance: 253.30 on 298 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 217.41 on 295 degrees of freedom
AIC: 225.41
Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 5
From Table 2 the fitted model was be given by Equation 4.

\[ \text{Logit}(Employment) = -2.4993 + 10.2111 * \text{Age} - 15.4 * (\text{Age})^2 + 0.7670 * \text{Male} \] 

From equation 4, we observe that the intercept term \( \beta_0 = -2.4993 \), this implies that at age 24, the chance of employment among female students is \( \exp(-2.4993) = 0.08 \). The coefficient \( \beta_2 = 0.7670 \) which suggests that the male students have an average chance of employment 2. 15 times the chance of female students. The positive and negative effects are zero when \( \frac{10.2111}{15.4} = 0.66 \). This is the point where the odds begin to decrease, that is to say for the value of age between negative infinity to 0.06 odds are increasing as the age increases, but afterward, odds decrease as the age increases. This can also be verified in Figures 3 and 4.

Factors that lead Employed People to join Undergraduate Studies

Pretesting

The original instruments consisted of a total of 15 items (measured variables) representing the factors that lead employed people to join undergraduate studies in Dar es Salaam city. To ensure validity and reliability, the instrument was pre-tested through a pilot study with a group of 35 returned questionnaires and 10 interviews. As the measure of reliability, Cronbach’s \( \alpha \) values of the construct were calculated using the pysch package in R (Revelle, 2019). The results showed that all the items have adequate reliability since all Cronbach's \( \alpha \) values were exceeding the cut-off value of 0.7 as suggested by (Al-Dhaafri et al., 2016). The reliability analysis results of pre-testing data are given in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability if an item is dropped:</th>
<th>raw_alpha</th>
<th>std.alpha</th>
<th>G6(smc)</th>
<th>average_r</th>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>ase</th>
<th>mean</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>median.r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employer</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change. Job</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social. Life</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job. Market</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job. Security</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical. Skills</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social. Status</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Descriptive Statistics Results

Figure A2 shows the descriptive statistics for the factors that lead employed people to join undergraduate studies. A high mean indicates that more respondents see the factor as the motivator while the smaller mean indicates the opposite. The variables with the highest means for motivators are the need for technical skills (4.12), knowledge (4.09), get exposure (4.06), job security (4.01), social status (3.96), job market (3.81), get job promotion (3.70), get new friends
The variables with the lowest means for motivators are needed for social life (2.95), job change (2.63), financial assistance from an employer (E-employer) (2.3), family influence (1.91), and an employer force (E-force) (1.57). The results indicate that factors that lead employed people to join undergraduate studies are a combination of both internal and external.

Figure A2: Heat plot showing the mean, standard deviation (SD), and percentage selection of responses for each item (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree).

Noting technical skills, knowledge, and exposure as some of the key factors to join undergraduate studies is not surprising. This is due to the reasons that in the current globalized work environment, exposure increase employability opportunity among graduates and help to equip them with technical skills which are needed by employers (Eaton & Kleshinski, 2013). The results also suggest that the need for promotion was also a key factor. This is due to the reasons that college degree holders earn higher salaries and experience less unemployment than non-degree holders, and have higher rates of job satisfaction, promotion opportunities, increased work responsibilities, and improved work performance (Weiss et al., 2014).

Consequently, many respondents perceived that the need for social life, social status, and job security was the motive to join undergraduate studies. This result is not surprising since the colleges provide opportunities for students to interact with each other and enrich student’s social life and increases their social support network. Social status also moderates the extent to which individuals are focused on others. Muscatell et al., (2012) gave the idea that social status is the fundamental and neurocognitive connected to how individuals process and navigate their social worlds. Job security result is similar to other parts of the world where degree holders have high job security than non-degree holders. For example, a study by Mehta & Ronald, (2017) showed that people with a degree in business administration or computer science have high lifetime earnings, job security, and job satisfaction.

Most of the respondents disagreed that they joined undergraduate studies to change their jobs, need for social life, financial assistance from an employer, family influence, or forced by employers. This indicates that most of the employed students were satisfied with their jobs which imply that they do not understand how to take advantage of higher learning education and training to change their job and navigate their careers. Most employers do not put much effort into pushing their employees to join the undergraduate studies. This finding is, however, not surprising because both the public and private sectors in Tanzania do not prepare enough budget for funding the in-service training.

Ways to Improve Education Success among Employed Students

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Figure A3 shows the descriptive statistics for the ways to improve education success among employed students. A high mean indicates that more respondents perceive the way as strategies for improving academic success while the smaller mean indicates the opposite. The variables with the highest means are the need introduction of evening courses (4.31), interaction with instructors (4.19), offering students access to an academic advisor (4.03), career counseling (3.95), offering the weekend courses (3.92), increase the students' assessment criteria’s (3.74), involve students in outreach activities (3.73) and offering the online courses (3.59). The variable with the lowest means for motivators is the extension of semesters (3.00).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weekend courses</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>4.01%</td>
<td>11.37%</td>
<td>6.35%</td>
<td>45.15%</td>
<td>33.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semester extension</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>9.36%</td>
<td>37.12%</td>
<td>9.03%</td>
<td>32.78%</td>
<td>11.71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outreach activities</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.33%</td>
<td>9.03%</td>
<td>23.75%</td>
<td>51.17%</td>
<td>15.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online courses</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>3.34%</td>
<td>19.08%</td>
<td>11.71%</td>
<td>47.16%</td>
<td>18.73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructors</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.67%</td>
<td>4.68%</td>
<td>6.35%</td>
<td>51.17%</td>
<td>37.12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fellow students</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.67%</td>
<td>3.01%</td>
<td>9.03%</td>
<td>68.23%</td>
<td>19.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evening course</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.33%</td>
<td>2.34%</td>
<td>4.01%</td>
<td>52.51%</td>
<td>40.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career counseling</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.33%</td>
<td>10.03%</td>
<td>10.03%</td>
<td>53.18%</td>
<td>26.42%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Assessment criteria’s</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>5.02%</td>
<td>11.04%</td>
<td>10.03%</td>
<td>52.84%</td>
<td>21.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic advisor</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>1.34%</td>
<td>7.02%</td>
<td>3.34%</td>
<td>63.88%</td>
<td>24.41%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure A3: Heat plot showing the mean, standard deviation (SD), and percentage selection of responses for items for ways to improve education success among employed students (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree).

These results are similar to other parts of the world. For example, Perna, (2010) suggested that to help working students in American colleges to succeed in academic, colleges should include offering evening courses, weekends courses, online courses, academic advising, and support, providing career counseling and occupational placement, and help working students to connect their employment and educational experiences. This is also in line with the argument by Anothony P Carnevale et al., (2015) who proposed that to help the student counseling system should be information-based and must be available at the beginning of a person’s education pathway, and mandatory for all students.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
This article identified several factors that lead employed people to join undergraduate studies as well as the ways colleges may use to improve education success among employed students. Demographic characteristics such as age and gender explained a fraction of variance observed in undergraduate student employment. For both males and females the employment probability was steadily increasing between ages 18 to 33, but then after it decreased steadily with age after 34 years. We also observe that for all age groups the employment probability for the male is greater than the female.

The findings of this study have numerous implications for working students, colleges, and employers. Due to technological changes and the rising of unemployment, colleges and employers should be aware that employed people need to study to acquire new skills while working. Despite the need to work, employed students should be aware of what effects it may have on their academic success and ultimately their ability to progress in studies. When choosing the college, employed students should seek out the colleges which are sensitive to their needs. Employed students should also seek out the courses that meet their needs and employers' demand, this can help to alleviate some of the employees' and employers' conflicts. Colleges should ensure that they provide training programs that strike a balance between what the employed students know and what they will need to know and be able to do in their workplace during and after training. Colleges’ recognition of employed students’ needs, is very potential in enhancing students learning
and ensuring that prevailing colleges’ policies, practices, and structures recognize that some students have jobs while enrolled for undergraduate studies.

A better understanding of factors that lead employed people to join undergraduate studies and ways that colleges may use to help employed students to succeed in their studies will ensure that the colleges provide the highest level of education in the most conducive environment. In doing so, employed students will graduate with the knowledge and skills needed to be successful in the work industry.

This study unveiled some other questions that could be further studied by using either qualitative or quantitative research techniques. One area that can be studied includes a detailed analysis of the effects of college tuition fees, financial aid, and scholarship program on the academic success of employed students in Tanzania. Further research can be done in examining the relationship between working while studying and post-college labor success for employed students.

REFERENCES


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