

ANNE PYLVÄNÄINEN

# Development Evaluation for Local Impacts

*Evaluation Elements contributing to Evaluation Use,  
A Vocational Education Case in Tanzania  
as an Awakener*



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ACADEMIC DISSERTATION

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ACADEMIC DISSERTATION  
Tampere University, Faculty of Education and Culture  
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Anne Pylvänäinen





# ABSTRACT

Evaluation, if utilised to its full potential, would be an important tool for helping governments, the private sector and civil society to increase human well-being. Unfortunately, though the number of evaluations conducted is increasing world-wide, a low rate of utilisation of these evaluations is increasing as well. An example of this is the development field, where countless evaluation reports are produced and assumed to be used as sources of learning, when in reality they lie untouched. This non-actualised “use” is a real waste of time and of limited public funds. The usefulness of evaluations, when strictly determined based on the use of the published evaluation reports (as is the case most of the time), neglects the usefulness and reduces the utilisation of other evaluation elements available, such as evaluation commissioning or evaluation process, which further reduce the overall impact of the evaluation.

This evaluation experiment, conducted in the Tanzanian vocational education and training (VET) centre, Mwanza Home Craft Centre (MHCC), was designed to utilise the evaluation, especially its process, to show evaluation impacts. My experiment, conducted upon the development intervention of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) established by Finnish funds, was performed concurrently alongside and from within the development intervention, in contrast to the poorly utilised development evaluations conducted for dominating accountability and control purposes by external evaluators using a past-focussed orientation combined with hard evaluation methods, all of which were exclusive and unfamiliar to the locals and thus, had minor local evaluation impact. In those evaluations the donor-centred standpoint, overarching evaluation paradigm and hegemonic language, having their origin in the New Public Management movement were favoured. Instead, I devised a micro explanation of, and provided reflections about, the donor-sponsored, local- and stakeholder-centred, learning- and future-oriented, and locally utilised development evaluation with impacts.

The evaluation experiment consisted of two components. In the evaluation section, the socio-economic impacts of VET were studied. In the research on evaluation section the focus was put on the process use of evaluation and evaluation impacts. In the VET project, all the stakeholders’ evaluative learning was targeted to

be supported with the assistance of the process use of evaluation while evaluating. It was aimed at individual, interpersonal and collective evaluation impacts through personal and organisational involvement, evaluative experience and training received, as well as dialogue. My mandate was to integrate into the evaluation process, evaluation “masses,” that is, the aid recipients, to generate stronger local evaluation impacts, and to look at the relation to power in evaluation from their standpoint. Generally speaking, they have less power and voice in the current development evaluations than do “the elite,” the financial donors. I hypothesised that every research and evaluation research is standpoint-bound, which has influence on evaluation usability, and then, on evaluation impacts, their types, levels, user groups, and duration. In this research, emphasis was placed on those elements playing key roles in evaluation use and evaluation impact, such as the evaluation paradigm, evaluation design and methodology; the evaluator’s location and standpoint; the position of the evaluation users; the evaluation purpose; the evaluation time-frame; and evaluation ethics.

In this research, the action research-oriented strategy was used. The research data was generated during two Tanzanian field trips by utilising various data generation methods. Evaluation impacts and process use of evaluation were studied through the data received from the VET case, its two seminars and workshops organised for the MHCC staff and committee members, as well as from thematic interviews of some staff persons and written evaluative feedback given by the committee, staff members and an 11-participant group interview. Again, socio-economic VET impacts were collected through the data of 115 former students’ written stories and background questionnaires, as well as of 11 former students’ and 20 other evaluatees’ thematic interviews. The written data of the evaluation experiment was coded by using the theory-driven (or theory-directed) qualitative content analysis, on which the conclusions were based and drawn.

The evaluation experiment at MHCC indicated that the chosen evaluation standpoint and paradigm, through the utilisation of various elements existing in the evaluation factor, affected evaluation use and evaluation impacts. The experiment contributed to impact; the evaluation was automatically brought into utilisation while evaluating due to its process use. The first-hand evaluative experience of the participants and of their institutions involved in the evaluation process could not “just be left on the shelf.” Their individual, interpersonal and collective evaluative learning, while evaluating, inevitably contributed not only to immediate but also to long-term cognitive, affective, social, behavioural, even economic, and cultural

changes at various levels of the development intervention, even outside the VET centre.

Based on findings of this research, I suggested that the processual use of evaluation was a powerful tool and an accelerator of MHCC's change processes, even for those stakeholders whose evaluative minds were made up. This change in the pattern of thought, enlightenment ("mwanga"), enabled a shift in focus from the post- and past-oriented, history observing thinking, to the future-directed independent line of development action. This research data might imply that evaluation process, with its findings utilised simultaneously as evaluative learning sources, had long-term effects — maybe longer than the findings use alone can generate. These impacts could become the lifeblood at MHCC for reflection, quicker reactivity to the environment and on-going adaptation. This presented an explanation for how the VET institution MHCC could have been capable of being renewed continuously and transforming its activities, as needed, regarding its economy and the demands of surrounding society, as well as being self-supporting for over 20 years (which is unique in the educational sector worldwide, let alone in the developing countries, like Tanzania). In addition, with the experiment, the new knowledge was received about the evaluand, MHCC and its students, its evaluation practices, and MHCC's surrounding reality. Again, the VET centre's name was changed, new departments such as motor vehicle, electricity, as well as hotel management and tourism were launched, and new evening courses, further education and training in welding and fabrication, as well as computer and English language courses, were started.

As the general conclusion of this research I state that NGOs still have an important role as VET providers of Tanzanian development interventions, for four reasons. First, because the country's general education level has dramatically deteriorated. Second, because of a lack of sufficient VET opportunities. Third, because in general VET was beneficial: it seemed to have had impacts not only on an individual's poverty reduction, but even more widely on the society. However, this data also provided surprising evidence that, in direct contradiction to Western linear thinking and assumptions about the enormous economic power and benefit of vocational skills for its acquirer gained in VET, even full-time employment did not function as a tool for alleviating poverty and automatically raising the person's living standards. Nevertheless, as was evidenced by the lives of these VET trainees, who experienced positive, significant, sustainable economic, social, and personal education impacts due to the development project MHCC, these material and immaterial socio-economic impact chains were positive and productive and seemed

to have had very far-reaching and significant ramifications for the lives of extended families, peers, community members, and the Tanzanian society. A case in point was the informal “private apprenticeship training system” offered by the former students to their relatives, peers and community members; through which one MHCC graduate has unofficially “trained” over 50 persons. Indeed, these socio-economic impacts of education could have been intensified by resourcing and carrying out evaluations frequently as well as by feeding their results forward for the VET institution’s service improvements (e.g., equipment or entrepreneurial courses for VET graduates). Fourth, the research indicated that jobs in the developing countries were offered in the informal sector and self-employment was, for the majority of graduates, the sole option to be employed. Hence, NGO-implemented VET, with their essential income-generating projects for the institution’s sustainability (generally lacking from government-owned VET centres), could operate as an excellent learning environment, strengthening the entrepreneurial spirit.

The research findings might have the following applications. First, the worrying trend towards evaluation non-use and/or deficient use is worth acknowledging. Second, evaluation commissioners, initiators, funders, and donors need to gain further knowledge about significant positive or prohibitive contextual, evaluation and human factors (with their related elements) that lie behind evaluation utilisation and impact. For instance, those contextual factors which are related to financial and political constraints and evaluation systems and which negatively affect evaluation utilisation and impacts must be revealed. Third, an attack against the inadequate use of evaluations could be launched among others with processual evaluation use. Fourth, in every evaluation policy and plan in an evaluation commissioning phase, concrete actions need to be made necessary for evaluation utilisation. A written plan on evaluation use with evaluation impacts intended should be demanded to be produced from every evaluation conducted with public funds before the evaluation commissioning phase. Fifth, evaluation use in the vocabulary of evaluation policies and plans should be reconceptualised. All the available key elements of the evaluation use — the evaluation commissioning, evaluation process (not solely evaluation findings) — should be maximally harnessed at all the evaluation levels, also in NGOs, due to the scarcity of funding opportunities available for evaluations, to bring maximal value to a target of the evaluation, its stakeholders and evaluation users. Sixth, evaluation utilisation should be instructed, encouraged and funded. Evaluation stakeholders and their organisations should be rewarded by evaluation commissioners and funders, if the evaluation is used and it contributes to impacts. Seventh, terms such as evaluation impact/impacts need to be clarified, to refer not

only to positive evaluation consequences but also to negative, unintended impacts, which must also be tackled.

**Key words:** development evaluation, empowerment evaluation, evaluation-based research, evaluation experience, evaluation factor, evaluation impact/s, evaluation standpoint, learning in evaluation, non-governmental organisation, process use of evaluation, vocational education and training case, Tanzania



# TIIVISTELMÄ

Arviointi, mikäli sen kaikkia mahdollisuuksia hyödynnettäisiin, olisi tärkeä työkalu avustamaan julkista sekä yksityissektoria ja kansalaisyhteiskuntaa inhimillisen hyvinvoinnin lisäämiseksi. Valitettavasti, vaikka tehtyjen arviointien määrä on maailmanlaajuisesti lisääntymässä, näiden arviointien alhainen hyödyntämisyhteysaste on samoin kasvamassa. Tästä esimerkkinä on kehitystyö, jossa lukemattomat tuotetut ja oppimislähteenä käytettäväksi oletetut arviointiraportit kuitenkin todellisuudessa makaavat koskemattomina. Tämä toteutumaton ”käyttö” on todellista ajan ja rajallisten julkisten varojen tuhlausta. Arviointien hyödyllisyyden määrittäminen tiukasti näiden julkaistujen arviointiraporttien käyttöön perustuvaksi, mikä useimmiten on tilanne, laiminlyö ja vähentää muiden käytettävissä olevien arviointielementtien, kuten arviointitoimeksiannon tai arviointiprosessin hyödyntämistä ja käyttöä, mikä yhä enemmän supistaa arvioinnin kokonaisvaikuttavuutta.

Tämän tansanialaisessa ammattikoulussa, Mwanza Home Craft Centressä (MHCC), toteutetun arviointikokeilun tarkoitus oli hyödyntää arviointia, etenkin sen arviointiprosessia, arviointivaikutusten osoittamiseksi. Kokeiluni, joka toteutettiin suomalaisin kehitystyövaroin käynnistetyssä kansalaisjärjestöhankkeessa, tehtiin kehityshankkeesta rinnan hankkeen edetessä, oli vastakohta kehnosti hyödynnettyille ulkopuolisten arvioitsijoiden vallitsevaa tilivelvollisuus- ja kontrollitarkoitusta varten tekemille, menneeseen fokuoituneille ja kovia tutkimusmenetelmiä käyttäville kehitysarvioinneille, jotka sulkevat paikalliset ulkopuolelle ja ovat heille vieraita, ja siksi saavat vähäistä paikallista arviointivaikuttavuutta aikaan. Noissa arvioinneissa on suosittu hallitsevaa länsimaista ja Eurooppa-keskeistä positivistista tulokulmaa, rahoittajakeskeistä arviointiparadigmaa ja hegemonista kieltä, joka saa alkunsa uudesta julkishallinnon johtamisliikkeestä. Sen sijaan, kokeiluni oli mikrokuvaus ja reflektio hankkeen rahoittajan sponsoroimasta, paikallis- ja asianomaiskeskeisestä, oppimis- ja tulevaisuussuuntautuneesta, paikallisesti hyödynnetystä ja vaikuttaneesta kehitysarviointista.

Arviointikokeilu koostui kahdesta komponentista. Arviointiosuudessa tutkittiin ammatillisen koulutuksen sosio-ekonomisia vaikutuksia. Arviointitutkimusosiossa fokuoitettiin arvioinnin prosessikäyttöön ja arvioinnin vaikuttavuuteen.

Ammattikouluhankkeessa kaikkien asianomaisten arviointioppimista pyrittiin tukemaan arvioinnin aikana arviointiprosessia hyödyntäen. Yksilöllisiä, interpersoonallisia ja kollektiivisia arviointivaikutuksia tavoiteltiin henkilökohtaisen ja organisaation osallistumisen, saadun arviointikokemuksen ja valmennuksen sekä dialogin kautta. Mandaattini oli integroida, ”arviointimassoja”, tarkoittaen avun vastaanottajia, paikallisten arviointivaikutusten aikaansaamiseksi, ja tarkastella arvioinnissa suhdetta valtaan heidän näkökulmastaan. Yleisesti ottaen heillä on vähemmän valtaa ja ääntä nykyisessä kehitysarvioinnissa kuin vahvemmillä, ”eliitillä”, avun rahoittajilla. Asetin hypoteesikseni, että jokainen tutkimus ja arviointitutkimus on tulokulmasidonnaista, mikä vaikuttaa arvioinnin käytettävyyteen, ja siten myös arvioinnin vaikutuksiin, vaikutustyyppisiin, -tasoon, -ryhmiin, ja vaikuttavuuden keston. Tässä tutkimuksessa painotettiin sellaisia arvioinninkäytössä ja arvioinnin vaikuttavuudessa keskeisessä roolissa olevia elementtejä, kuten arviointiparadigmaa, arviointimallia ja metodologiaa, arvioijan asemaa ja näkökulmaa, arvioinnin käyttäjien asemaa, arviointitarkoitusta, arvioinnin aikakehikkoa, ja arviointietikkaa.

Tässä tutkimuksessa käytettiin toimintatutkimuksellisesti suuntautunutta strategiaa. Tutkimusaineisto koottiin kahden Tansanian kenttämatkan aikana useita aineistonkeruumenetelmiä hyödyntäen. Arvioinnin vaikutuksia ja arvioinnin prosessikäyttöä tutkittiin aineistosta, joka saatiin ammattikoulutustapauksen kahdesta MHCC:n henkilöstölle ja komiteanjäsenille organisoidusta seminaarista ja työpajasta, samoin kuin henkilöstön jäsenten teemahaastatteluista ja komitean, henkilöstön antamasta kirjallisesta arviointipalautteesta ja yhdestä 11 hengen ryhmähaastattelusta. Lisäksi, ammatillisen koulutuksen sosio-ekonomisia vaikutuksia kerättiin 115 opiskelijan kirjallisen kertomuksen ja taustalomakkeen sekä 11 opiskelijan ja 20 muun arvioijan teemahaastattelun avulla. Kirjallinen aineisto koodattiin käyttäen teoriavetoista (tai -suuntautunutta) laadullista sisällönanalyysiä, johon pohjautuen johtopäätökset tehtiin.

MHCC:n arviointikokeilu osoitti, että valittu arvioinnin tulokulma ja paradigma erilaisten arviointifaktorissa olevien elementtien hyödyntämisen kautta vaikutti arvioinnin käyttöön ja arvioinnin vaikutuksiin. Kokeilu sai aikaan vaikuttavuutta; arviointia automaattisesti hyödynnettiin jo arvioitaessa sen prosessikäytön vuoksi. Arviointiprosessiin osallistuneiden henkilöiden ja heidän instituutioidensa omakohtaisia arviointikokemuksia ei voinut vain ”jättää hyllylle”. Heidän yksilöllinen, henkilöiden välinen ja kollektiivinen arviointioppiminen arvioidessa kiistatta myötävaikutti, ei vain välittömiin vaan myös pidempiaikaisiin kognitiivisiin, affektiivisiin, sosiaalisiin, toiminnallisiin, jopa taloudellisiin ja kulttuurillisiin muutoksiin kehitysintervention eri tasoilla, jopa ammattioppilaitoksen ulkopuolella.



Tämän tutkimusten löydösten perusteella, päätelin, että prosessuaalinen arvioinnin käyttö oli vahva työkalu ja MHCC:n muutosprosessien kiihdyttäjä, etenkin niille arvioinnin asianomaisille, jotka omaksuivat arvioivaa mieltä. Tämä ajattelutavan muutos, valistuminen (’mwanga’), mahdollisti siirtymisen jälki- ja menneisyysorientoituneesta historiaa tarkastelleesta ajattelusta tulevaisuussuuntautuneeseen omaehtoiseen kehittämistoimintaan. Tämä tutkimusaineisto antanee ymmärtää, että arviointiprosessilla ja -tuloksilla samanaikaisesti hyödynnettynä arvioivan oppimisen lähteinä oli pitkäaikaisia vaikutuksia – ehkä pidempiaikaisia kuin vain arviointituloksia yksin hyödynnettäessä voitaisiin aikaansaada. Nämä vaikutukset saattoivat muodostua MHCC:n reflektion, nopeamman ympäristöön reagoinnin ja jatkuvan sopeuttamisen elinehdoiksi. Tämä selitti, kuinka ammattikoulutusinstituutio MHCC on ollut kykenevä jatkuvasti uudistumaan ja muuttamaan toimintojaan tarvittaessa, huomioiden taloutensa ja ympäröivän yhteiskunnan vaatimukset sekä olemaan taloudellisesti itsensä kannattava yli 20 vuotta (mikä on ainutlaatuista koulutussektorilla maailmalajuisestikin, puhumattakaan kehitysmaista, kuten Tansaniasta). Lisäksi, kokeilun ansiosta saatiin uutta tietoa arviointikohteesta, MHCC:stä opiskelijoineen, sen arviointikäytännöistä ja oppilaitosta ympäröivästä todellisuudesta. Ammattikoulun nimi muutettiin, uusia osastoja, kuten ajoneuvo, sähkö, sekä hotellinjohto ja turismi, lanseerattiin, ja uusia iltakursseja käynnistettiin, metallityön lisäkoulutusta, sekä tietokone- ja englannin kielen kursseja aloitettiin.

Tämän tutkimuksen yleisenä yhteenvedona totean, että kansalaisjärjestöjen rooli on edelleen tärkeä ammatillisen koulutuksen järjestäjänä Tansanian kehityshankkeissa neljästä syystä. Ensiksi, koska maan koulutuksen yleistaso on dramaattisesti huonontunut. Toiseksi, koska riittävät ammattikoulutusmahdollisuudet puuttuvat. Kolmanneksi, koska ammattikoulutus on yleisesti ottaen hyödyllistä: se näytti vaikuttaneen ei vain yksilön köyhyyden vähentämiseen vaan laajemminkin yhteiskuntaan. Kuitenkin, tutkimustulokset esittivät yllättävän todisteen, mikä on vastakkaista länsimaalaiselle suoraviivaiselle ajattelulle ja oletukselle ammatitaidon ja ammatillisen koulutuksen valtavasta taloudellisesta voimasta ja hyödystä saajalleen; ei edes kokoaikatyö köyhyyden vähentämis- ja automaattisesti elintaso nostavana keinona toiminut. Kaikesta huolimatta, minkä ammattiin opiskelleiden elämää koskeva aineisto todistaa, niiden, jotka kokivat positiivisia, merkittäviä, kestäviä taloudellisia, sosiaalisia ja henkilökohtaisia koulutusvaikutuksia MHCC:n koulutushankkeen vuoksi, nämä ammatillisen koulutuksen sosio-ekonomiset materiaaliset ja immateriaaliset positiiviset, tuotteliaat vaikutukset näyttivät ulottuneen myös laajennettuun

perheeseen, ikätovereihin, yhteisöjen jäseniin ja tansanialaiseen yhteiskuntaan merkittävien seurannaisvaikutuksien. Esimerkkinä mainittakoon valmistuneiden opiskelijoiden sukulaisilleen, ikätovereilleen ja yhteisöjensä jäsenilleen tarjoama ”epävirallinen, yksityinen oppisopimuskoulutusjärjestelmä”; jonka kautta yksi MHCC:stä valmistunut on epävirallisesti kouluttanut yli 50 henkilöä. Tosin, näitä sosio-ekonomisia koulutusvaikutuksia olisi voitu tehostaa resursoimalla ja tekemällä säännöllisesti arviointeja sekä syöttämällä niiden tuloksia edelleen ammattioppilaitoksen palvelujen parantamiseksi (esim. työvälitteet tai yrittäjyyskurssit ammattiin valmistuneille). Neljänneksi, tutkimus osoitti, että kehitysmaissa työpaikat olivat tarjolla pääasiassa informaalilla sektorilla ja itsenäisenä ammatinharjoittajana työskenteleminen oli useimmille valmistuneille ainoa työllistymisvaihtoehto. Näin ollen, kansalaisjärjestöjen toteuttama ammattikoulutus oppilaitoksen kannattavuudelle välttämättömine tulonhankkimisprojekteineen (jotka yleensä puuttuvat valtion omistamista ammattioppilaitoksista) voi toimia erinomaisena yrittäjyysshenkkeä vahvistavana oppimisympäristönä.

Tutkimuslöytöjä voitaneen soveltaa seuraavasti. Ensiksi, huolestuttava arviointien käyttämättömyys ja/tai tehon käyttö tulee tiedostaa. Toiseksi, arvioinnin teettäjien, käynnistäjien, rahoittajien ja avunantajien tulee saada lisätietoa merkittävistä arvioinnin positiiviseen käyttöön ja vaikuttavuuteen tai sitä estävistä kontekstuaalisista, arviointi- ja inhimillisistä tekijöistä elementteineen. Esimerkiksi, sellaisia kontekstuaalisia tekijöitä, jotka liittyvät taloudellisiin ja poliittisiin rajoitteisiin ja arviointisysteemeihin ja jotka negatiivisesti vaikuttavat arviointien hyödyntämiseen ja vaikutuksiin, tulee paljastaa. Kolmanneksi, arviointien puutteellista hyödyntämistä vastaan tulee hyökätä muun muassa arviointiprosessia käyttämällä. Neljänneksi, jokaisessa arviointipolitiikassa ja -suunnitelmassa jo arvioinnin toimeksiantovaiheessa tulee edellyttää konkreettisia toimia arviointien hyödyntämiseksi. Jokaiselta julkisista varoin tuotetulta arvioinnilta tulee vaatia arviointikäytösuunnitelma tavoiteltavine arviointivaikutuksineen ennen arvioinnin toimeenpanon vaihetta. Viidenneksi, arviointikäyttö tulee uudelleen käsitteellistää arviointipolitiikkojen ja -suunnitelmien sanastossa. Kaikki tarjolla olevat arvioinnin käytön keskeiset elementit — arvioinnin toimeksianto, arviointiprosessi (eikä ainoastaan arviointilöydökset) — tulee maksimaalisesti valjastaa kaikilla arvioinnin tasoilla, myös kansalaisjärjestöissä, rajallisten evaluointiresurssien vuoksi, tuodakseen maksimaalisen arvon arviointikohteelle, sen asianomaisille ja arvioinnin käyttäjille. Kuudenneksi, arviointien hyödyntämistä tulee ohjeistaa, kannustaa ja rahoittaa. Arvioinnin käynnistäjien ja rahoittajien tulisi palkita arvioinnin asianomaisia ja heidän organisaatiotaan, mikäli arviointia hyödynnetään ja se saa aikaan vaikuttavuutta.

Seitsemänneksi, arvioinnin vaikuttavuus/vaikutus -termit tarvitsevat selkeyttämistä, ei ainoastaan viitaten vain arvioinnin positiivisiin seurauksiin, vaan myös sen negatiivisiin, tahattomiin vaikutuksiin, joihin täytyy myös puuttua.

**Asiasanat:** kehitystyön arviointi, empowerment-arviointi, arviointiperustainen tutkimus, arviointikokeilu, arviointifaktori, arviointinäkökulma, arvioinnissa oppiminen, arvioinnin vaikutukset/ vaikuttavuus, kansalaisjärjestö, arvioinnin prosessikäyttö, ammattikoulutustapaus, Tansania



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# ABBREVIATIONS

C&J	Carpentry and Joinery Department of MHCC
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
EFA	Education for All
EU	European Union
F	Female
Fida	Fida International ry
FPCT	Free Pentecostal Church of Tanzania
FQ	Feedback Questionnaire
GI	Group Interview
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
LFA	Logical Framework Approach
LKA	Lähetysten Kehitysapu, [the Development Aid of the Mission], now called Fida
M	Male
MFA	Ministry for Foreign Affairs
MHCC	Mwanza Home Craft Centre (today Nyakato Vocational Training Centre)
N	Number
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPM	New Public Management Movement
NVTC	Nyakato Vocational Training Centre (previously MHCC)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
Q	Questionnaire
RVTSC	Regional Vocational Training and Service Centre
Sida	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
S&W	Seminar and Workshop
T	Tailoring Department of MHCC
TI	Thematic Interview
Tsh	Tanzanian Shillings
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNESCO-UNEVOC	International Centre for Technical and Vocational Education and Training
VET	Vocational Education and Training
VETA	Vocational Education and Training Authority
WB	World Bank
W&F	Welding and Fabrication Department of MHCC
WS	Written Story



# PART I INTRODUCTION





# 1 RESEARCH BACKGROUND

The Zambian scholar, Dambisa Moyo, advocated in 2009 that “dead aid” to Africa should be halted within five years, even though this official development assistance<sup>1</sup> accounts for the largest proportion of external official funding,<sup>2</sup> especially in many countries in sub-Saharan Africa<sup>3</sup>. To Moyo, this aid has created a culture of dependency by hindering free entrepreneurship. It has often been rife with corruption and conflicts as well as generally worsening the state of poverty in Africa. Based on these alleged dismal results she suggested adopting market-oriented models to expand Africa’s free trade and to develop its banking sector rather than using this unhelpful aid.<sup>4</sup>

Development aid is an essential part of international politics and development policy<sup>5</sup>. This core component of international interaction and relations, the subject of occasionally heated, widespread public and political debate, is defined in several ways.<sup>6</sup> One of the official definitions is put forth by the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (later OECD-DAC), established in 1961 to foster cooperation between donor countries. To this committee development aid is a cooperative partnership between a donor and a recipient.<sup>7</sup> Traditionally, contributing partners of development aid are called donors while receiving partners have been

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<sup>1</sup> Such concepts as international development aid, development assistance, foreign aid, and either overseas or official development assistance (ODA) if given by the official sector, are used in this research interchangeably. See e.g., Armytage 2011; Degnbol-Martinussen & Engberg-Pedersen 2003, 56; Rebien 1997, 451.

<sup>2</sup> See e.g., Adams, Johansson de Silva & Razmara 2013; Clements, Chianca & Sasaki 2008, 199; Nagao 2006, 31; Rugumamu 2005, 92.

<sup>3</sup> Sub-Saharan Africa covers countries on the African continent located south of the Sahara Desert, except Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco, Tunisia, and Western Sahara (Population Reference Bureau 2013).

<sup>4</sup> Ferguson 2010, x–xi in Moyo 2010; Jones 2012, 2; Moyo 2009

<sup>5</sup> However, Koponen (2009, 38) argued that discussion has been more focussed on development policy aiming at improving economic and social development through development interventions in the poorest countries, than on development aid.

<sup>6</sup> Clements, Chianca & Sasaki 2008; Thomas 2010, 545

<sup>7</sup> OECD-DAC 1992, 131

known as recipients, beneficiaries, or counterparts.<sup>8</sup> The other, more idealistic view on development aid was assumed by Danish scholars, John Degenbol-Martinussen and Poul Engberg-Pedersen. They pointed out that,

foreign aid is about the development among the poorest people in the world, among the most marginalized and oppressed peoples and societies ... a solidarity effort to achieve greater equality between countries, the people in developed and developing countries, and between people within developing countries.<sup>9</sup>

Indeed, development aid can be approached from different viewpoints. Aid can be analysed as a transfer of resources from rich countries to poorer ones, from state to state, and as a part of international politics, economy and action; as a planned project or programme that Koponen termed a rationalistic development intervention; as well as an unplanned process of social negotiation and struggle.<sup>10</sup> Typically, these resource transfers for development aid are channelled through states via bilateral aid (e.g., sector or budget support<sup>11</sup>), or multilateral aid organisations (e.g., the United Nations, the European Union), or multilateral development banks (such as the World Bank or the International Monetary Fund), or regional development banks, while project and programme practices are chiefly linked with non-governmental organisations (NGOs<sup>12</sup>),<sup>13</sup> as well as the growing actions of private donors. In the vocational training case of this research in Tanzania, namely in Mwanza Home Craft Centre (later MHCC), the development funding was channelled through NGOs.

Notwithstanding the highly critical and provocative arguments being brought to the fore by aid sceptics directed at development aid itself, the reasons behind my

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<sup>8</sup> Crewe & Harrison 2002, 70; Vainio-Mattila 2000, 434 in Alasuutari 2005, 52

<sup>9</sup> Degenbol-Martinussen & Engberg-Pedersen 2003, xv

<sup>10</sup> Koponen 2009, 38–45

<sup>11</sup> The sector-wide approach (SWAP), linked to pooled financial and technical development assistance, is used for reforming the regulations, improving physical infrastructure, supporting training, and capacity development in the sector. Instead, “general budget support” is targeted at assisting the general role and activities of governments in developing countries through development funds. From evaluation perspective, Conlin and Stirrat saw that these forms of assistance challenge evaluators to find firm conclusions as to attribution of results to inputs and the chain of causation. (Conlin & Stirrat 2008, 196.)

<sup>12</sup> NGOs form a part of civil society and are formed by private initiatives. They are distinct from the market or business; independent, neither part of a government or state, nor controlled by a public body or by the private sector. Characteristically, NGOs are not established for profit and cannot distribute any surplus as a profit to owners or staff. (Fowler 1998, 38 in Paterson, Brochmann, Evensmo, Lambert-Madore, Bohwasi & Parakrama 1998, 18–19; Mälkiä & Hossain 1998, 32.)

<sup>13</sup> Degenbol-Martinussen & Engberg-Pedersen 2003, 56; Koponen & Seppänen 2007, 340

decision to undertake this research were not based on the critique of aid itself<sup>14</sup>, but rather on its evaluations<sup>15</sup> and their poor use. Development evaluation, the term preferred in this report, is known also as aid evaluation, international aid evaluation or evaluation of foreign aid. This activity is generally linked to evaluation of such interventions (e.g., projects, programmes, policies, or processes) which are funded by donors and targeted to promote development.<sup>16</sup>

Evaluation is universally accepted to be not only a natural, but also useful part of, and instrument to control qualities of all sectors. Governments, other donors and service providers could use evaluations as tools for monitoring and implementing their policies and on-going activities, but also for designing future activities. By means of evaluations, procedures could be legitimised, the public could be informed about the performance of these services, resource use could be kept under control and resource allocation to certain activities or sectors maximised.<sup>17</sup>

Evaluations indisputably have their benefits, if used. Evaluation use can be divided into different forms; based either on their intended or unintended consequences. Feinstein calls evaluation non-use potential use, in distinction from actual, real evaluation use. In potential use some barriers may prohibit utilisation, which means that this evaluation will remain non-used.<sup>18</sup> It follows then that evaluation findings can be completely ignored for unjustifiable reasons, for burial or ignorance of the results, or for justifiable reasons, being either rational or political. Evaluation findings can also be used incorrectly, either by mistake, due to incompetence, uncritical acceptance, or unawareness, or intentionally, due to manipulation or coercion.<sup>19</sup> To Patton, apart from evaluation findings' use or misuse

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<sup>14</sup> e.g., Easterly 2008; 2009; Kääriäinen 2015; Moyo 2009 in Jones 2012, 2

<sup>15</sup> Lincoln and Guba following Scriven's (1967) footsteps define evaluation as "a type of disciplined inquiry undertaken to determine the value (merit and/or worth of some entity – the evaluand – such as a treatment, program, facility, performance, and the like – in order to improve or refine the evaluand (formative evaluation) or to assess its impact (summative evaluation)". "Evaluand's" merit refers to its inner, intrinsic and context-free value, while its worth covers its extrinsic or contextual value. (Lincoln & Guba 1986, 550.) Evaluation is the product of this process (Scriven 1991a, 1).

<sup>16</sup> see e.g., Feinstein & Beck 2006, 536

<sup>17</sup> See. e.g., Armytage 2011; Clements, Chianca & Sasaki 2008; Cracknell 1996 in McDonald 1999, 163; Cracknell 2000, 28; Descy & Tessaring 2005; Feinstein & Beck 2006, 538–539; Holma & Kontinen 2011, 181; Laukkanen 1998, 44–45; Liverani & Lundgren 2007; MFA 1998, 59; New Directions in Educational Evaluation 2005, 3; OECD-DAC 1991, 5; 1992, 132; Rebien 1997, 438; Schaumburg-Müller 2005, 214; Stern 2004; Thomas 2010.

<sup>18</sup> Feinstein 2002, 434

<sup>19</sup> Carlsson 2000, 121; Christie & Alkin 1999, 3–6; Cousins & Shulha 2006, 281–282, based on Cousins 1994; Patton 1998, 227

even evaluation processes can be used and abused.<sup>20</sup> Furthermore, Christie and Alkin took the view that not only can these two dimensions in evaluation use be misused — evaluation findings and evaluation processes — but commissioning of the evaluation itself can be misused also.<sup>21</sup>

Evaluation non-use and misuse have important roles in the debate over evaluation impacts. However, since this research stressed the “positive” evaluation use it was impossible to shift the primary focus of the research interest to include misuse. That being said, some reasons for the reverse side of evaluation use — this is to say, non-use — were touched upon to reveal key factors engendering deficient development evaluation impacts. Evidently, from the perspectives of these impacts, the non-use of development evaluations and the incomplete use of these international and national evaluations is a real challenge to be met.<sup>22</sup>

Evaluations, if having impact, could be of great benefit to their users. To Mark and Henry evaluations are advantageous if social betterment and improvements in social conditions occur as a result.<sup>23</sup> Michael Scriven, the major figure in evaluation literature, argued that evaluations are profitable if they save stakeholders’ lives and health by means of a better product and service provision, improve their life quality and/or save their resources. To him, evaluation can be used as a key tool in the service of justice, when channelling products and services to the neediest people in the areas of the most urgent needs. Evaluation can reveal when new and better solutions should be considered. Furthermore, evaluation can be used for supporting thinking, providing new insights and gaining deeper reciprocal understanding of the evaluand. Moreover, with the assistance of evaluation its stakeholders and their institutions can reflect their practices and learn from the past as well as alter, develop and improve those activities which need to be changed. Further, evaluation is said to contribute, for instance, to democratic governance, organisational learning, capacity development, openness in society, and to transparency. Evaluation, when allowed to be conducted by all interest groups, can be taken as a positive sign of democracy.<sup>24</sup>

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<sup>20</sup> Patton 1998, 227

<sup>21</sup> Christie & Alkin 1999, 3–6

<sup>22</sup> Carlsson, Eriksson-Baaz, Fallenius & Lövgren 1999; Cracknell 2000, 349; Forss, Rebien & Carlsson 2002, 29; Liverani & Lundgren 2007, 253; Rebien 1997; Taut 2007c; Thoening 2000

<sup>23</sup> Cousins 2003 in Mark & Henry 2004, 37; Henry & Mark 2003; Mark 2011; Mark & Henry 2004

<sup>24</sup> Laukkanen 1998, 45; Linnakylä & Atjonen 2008b, 88; Preskill & Torres 1999; Sanders 2003; Scriven 1991a; Shaw & Faulkner 2006, 44

## 1.1 Criticism: The impacts of evaluations are limited by the evaluation factors used, as well as by dominant standpoints and hegemony<sup>25</sup> that overrule local context

At present, development aid as well its evaluation is focussing increasingly on accountability and results. This pressure derives from changes taking place in global dynamics, in essence, due to contextual factors having impact on evaluation use.<sup>26</sup> To this needs to be added not only the New Public Management (NPM) movement with management for development results and results-based management and the Logical Framework Approach (LFA)<sup>27</sup> applied, but also the following strategies achieved, and agreements reached, that have led to focus shifting ever-increasingly toward outcomes and impacts. They are: The United Nations Millennium Development Declaration;<sup>28</sup> the national Poverty Reduction Strategies;<sup>29</sup> the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development set by the United Nations with 17 Sustainable Development Goals and 169 targets for the next years;<sup>30</sup> the Monterrey Consensus on Financing for Development in 2002<sup>31</sup> that focussed on management for

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<sup>25</sup> “The notion of hegemony contains the dialectic of coercion and consent. Neo-Gramscian scholars focus on the emergence of consent in otherwise coercive international relations. To Stephen Gill (1990), hegemony ‘generally refers to a relation between social classes, in which one class fraction or class grouping takes a leading role by the active consent of other classes and groups. Hegemony, therefore, is not a relation of coercive force as such (as it is viewed in political realist theory), but rather one of consent gained through ‘intellectual and moral leadership.’” (Hattori 2003, 165.)

<sup>26</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003, 4

<sup>27</sup> This LFA technique, tool, framework or method, has become an increasingly common method for planning, implementing and evaluating international development projects since 1992, when it was adopted by the World Bank and all major agencies, such as the OECD-DAC. Since then, the European Commission has utilised the approach as a part of its project cycle management. The LFA addresses development process, achievement of results of an intervention, linkages between development objectives and results by illustrating impact chains (inputs → throughputs → outputs → outcomes → impacts); uses performance indicators that indicates changes relative to the intervention; and compares results with targets stated. (Armytage 2011, 268; Arsaló 1999, 35, 98; Aune 2000; Berlage & Stokke 1992, 29; Cracknell 2000, 41, 101–121; Dale 2003, 57; European Commission 2001, 1; Gasper 2000; Sasaki 2006, 12, 68; 2008, 12, 15–16; The Logical Framework Approach (LFA) 1996; 6.)

<sup>28</sup> United Nations Millennium Declaration A/RES/55/2 (United Nations 2000). These goals ranged from halving extreme poverty up to providing universal primary education (UPE), but what was the most important, specifically, as one of these goals to develop a global partnership for development was demanded. (Alasuutari 2005; Degnbol-Martinussen & Engberg-Pedersen 2003; Eyben, León & Hossain 2007, 168; Kushner 2009, 417–422; United Nations 2000.)

<sup>29</sup> UNESCO 2002, 106; von Bonsdorff & Voipio 2005, 15

<sup>30</sup> United Nations 2015

<sup>31</sup> IMF 2002

development results; and an agreement called “the Paris Principles,”<sup>32</sup> covering the Paris Declaration on Aid.

Many agreements have also pushed NGOs (the contextual framework for this research) acting in the development field to verify their results. Among them are, for instance, the Fourth High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness in Busan at the end of 2011<sup>33</sup> along with the global civil society organisation agreement, Istanbul Principles for Civil Society Organisation Development Effectiveness<sup>34</sup>; and the International Framework for Civil Society Organisation Development Effectiveness<sup>35</sup>. With these conventions, the role of evaluation in NGO development aid has strengthened, demands for evidence-based results and for employment of hard evaluation methodologies have grown as has emphasis on aid effectiveness and a programmatic approach<sup>36,37</sup>

If we look at Finland’s development field, the tendency for overrating results has intensified. Since 2012 the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs (MFA) has increasingly brought the results of its development policies into focus, including both its development cooperation and its evaluation. Thereafter, the MFA has introduced results-based indicators partly due to an evaluation completed on the results-based approach of 17 projects and with 120 MFA staff members in development evaluation.<sup>38</sup> In fact, a formulation of a results-based action plan, to adopt a program approach based on management for results, was evaluated in 2011.<sup>39</sup> In addition, in 2012 the Aid for Trade Action Plan was piloted in a large results-based management

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<sup>32</sup> The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness, the document with indicators codified already emerging principles for development partners, focussed on improvement of development aid through five key principles: ownership, harmonisation, alignment, managing for results and mutual accountability. The first principle stresses ownership of the development country that owns its development strategy. In addition, donors tend to align their procedures and activities behind the country’s strategy by working jointly and by harmonising their different approaches as well as by giving greater attention to results management. Then both donors and partner countries commit to mutual accountability for achieving the results. (OECD 2005/2008.) See Armytage 2011, 263–270; Giffen 2009; Holma & Kontinen 2011, 181; Holvoet & Renard 2007, 67.

<sup>33</sup> Busan Partnership for Effective Development Co-operation 2011; Hayman 2012

<sup>34</sup> The Istanbul principles for Civil Society Organisation Development Effectiveness (2011).

<sup>35</sup> The Siem Reap Civil Society Organisation Consensus on the International Framework for Civil Society Organisation Development Effectiveness (2011).

<sup>36</sup> This approach looks at a programme either from a geographic or thematic perspective, defines a strategic direction over a period, and covers series of projects which work together towards the programme objectives (Giffen 2009, 2).

<sup>37</sup> Armytage 2011, 263–270; Crawford 2004; Giffen 2009; Holma & Kontinen 2011, 181; Holvoet & Renard 2007, 67; Thomas 2010, 542

<sup>38</sup> MFA 2011/2, 30–31

<sup>39</sup> MFA 2011/2

work inside the MFA.<sup>40</sup> Another example is an evaluation on Finland’s Development policy programs from 2003 to 2013, in which these policies were evaluated in 2015 from the point of view of results-based management.<sup>41</sup>

Regarding Finnish NGOs funded by the Finnish MFA, the MFA’s demands for their better results are striking and increasingly called for. A typical example of this is Fida (the Finnish Free Foreign Mission, now Fida International, the background organisation of this vocational education and training (VET) evaluation experiment, MHCC).<sup>42</sup> Fida was a participant of a 3-round evaluation, together with other five Finnish NGOs, in 2016–2017 on programme-based support of the Finnish MFA in development cooperation and humanitarian assistance performed during 2010–2016.<sup>43</sup> “Results Based Management in Finland’s Development Cooperation: Concepts and Guiding Principles”<sup>44</sup> was used in Fida’s development program evaluation. In the summary of this evaluation report published in March 2017 and commissioned by the MFA, the evaluators recommended Fida verify results more effectively, quote “Fida needs better indicators for outcomes, impacts and higher-level results.”<sup>45</sup>

The OECD-DAC links evaluation to developmental results and impacts of development aid, which includes the use of public funds in an accounting and legal sense, as well as responsibility for the results and impacts for the public and the leaders in both donor and recipient countries. By asking and answering, “Does aid work?” and “How effectively does development aid work?”, evaluation has tended to “prove” and ensure that resources are consumed, and outcomes are delivered appropriately based on the plans established.<sup>46</sup>

During economic slowdowns, development evaluation’s controlling role strengthens. With less freely available funds, the public and governments demand more knowledge on the accountability, as well as the impacts of aid funds and of effective development. On the other hand, in the development field skepticism about the use of development funds pressures donors. Increasing demands are placed on transparency, control and efficiency of these grants. Demonstration of

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<sup>40</sup> MFA 2016/2

<sup>41</sup> MFA 2015/1

<sup>42</sup> see Fida 2014b

<sup>43</sup> MFA 2017/3a, 82

<sup>44</sup> MFA 2015

<sup>45</sup> MFA 2017/3a

<sup>46</sup> Cracknell 2000, 54–55; Crawford, Perryman & Petocz 2004, 175; MFA 1998, 59; OECD-DAC 1991, 5–6; 1992, 132

development impacts are required.<sup>47</sup> These targets are assumed to be met not only through the increased numbers of evaluations conducted but with their designs: the accountability purpose favoured, summative (e.g., impact evaluations), hard evaluation methods overrepresented, external evaluators valued, and the past-oriented, historical time frames prioritised, as Cracknell also reported.<sup>48</sup>

Finland's late economic recession has reflected in the development activities and evaluations of the Finnish MFA and of NGOs during this decade. In Finland, drastic cuts of 43% in development funding earmarked for NGOs since the beginning of 2016 stopped one hundred NGO projects from going ahead and made cuts in funding of over two hundred existing projects.<sup>49</sup> Undoubtedly, this massive, historically unprecedented fiscal belt-tightening of development spending for NGOs could have been viewed as the accelerator behind the rise in the numbers of evaluations commissioned by the Finnish MFA on these organisations. A typical example was the recent evaluation on the Ministry's multiyear programme-based support funding instrument created for NGOs. This 3-part evaluation conducted between September 2016 and September 2017 covered the development cooperation programmes of all 22 civil society organisations receiving this support.<sup>50</sup>

Development evaluation is virtually monopolised by the funding agencies, the national agencies administering the programmes being evaluated, either by international or national evaluation consultants or researchers or evaluation firms. O. W. Andersen demonstrates below the considerable amount of money spent on these development evaluation consultancies carried out for development projects in the OECD-DAC countries.

In 2013 OECD-DAC members provided US\$135 billion in development assistance.<sup>51</sup> According to OECD-DAC, these donors produce more than 600 evaluations, including decentralised evaluations, per year and on average use 0.5–1.0 per cent of their development assistance on development evaluation (OECD2010). This implies that US\$0.6–1.3 billion is spent annually on development evaluation. To this can be added evaluation budgets of new donors, private foundations, etc. Their budgets can, however, be assumed to be relatively small compared to the OECD-DAC donors' budgets for evaluation. Most evaluation budgets are used for different purposes related to evaluation (own staff costs, preparation and dissemination of evaluations, etc.) and not only for development evaluation consultants. If it is assumed that other donors than the OECD-DAC donors use 10 per cent of what is used by the OECD-

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<sup>47</sup> Carden & Alkin 2012, 108; Ryan 2004, 443

<sup>48</sup> Cracknell 2000

<sup>49</sup> Keva 2016

<sup>50</sup> MFA 2017; 2017/3a, 12–13

<sup>51</sup> OECD 2014



DAC donors, and that approximately 50 per cent are used on development consultants, the size of the market for development evaluation consultants is about US\$300–600 million per year.<sup>52</sup>

Indeed, Morra Imas and Rist foresaw the growth in the numbers of external development evaluators. These scholars having long cooperated with the World Bank in the evaluation field, predicted that “continued strong demand for results will mean that development evaluation flourishes not only within management M&E [monitoring and evaluation] units but also in requests for evaluations conducted by external consultants and firms.”<sup>53</sup> In like manner, the study made by the OECD-DAC on its DAC Network members’ evaluation systems and resources in 2009 indicated that most evaluation departments (N = 38) used consultants to conduct their evaluations.<sup>54</sup>

Finland provides another case in point. The Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland markedly increased the use of external consultants between the years 2007–2010, as the Finnish authors Kuusela and Ylönen revealed in their publication “Konsulttidemokratia [Consultancy democracy]” in 2013.<sup>55</sup> Similarly, Ahonen, in his findings when studying institutionalisation of evaluation among the Finnish government and agencies, including also the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland in 2015, substantiated that these prevailing practices favoured have necessitated the use of external evaluators.<sup>56</sup>

Globally, there has been dramatic growth in the number of impact evaluations of international development interventions. Cameron, Mishra and Brown, for instance, selected 130 studies at random from a dataset of 2,259 impact evaluations conducted in 145 low- and middle-income countries and territories between the years 1981–2012. Most of them were carried out in South and Southeast Asia, East Africa, or in South and Central America, primarily in sectors such as health, education, agriculture, and social protection. The scholars found a dramatic increase in the numbers of impact evaluations after the year 2008.<sup>57</sup>

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<sup>52</sup> Andersen 2014, 78; OECD 2010. These figures cover development evaluations, not development reviews, appraisals, etc., that are also conducted by development consultants. Therefore, the real budgets for their evaluative tasks are much higher.

<sup>53</sup> Morra Imas & Rist 2009, 519

<sup>54</sup> OECD 2010, 32, 76; OECD-DAC 2009, 21

<sup>55</sup> Kuusela & Ylönen 2013, 125–126

<sup>56</sup> Ahonen 2015

<sup>57</sup> Cameron, Mishra & Brown 2016, 1, 5

From the perspectives of use and the impacts of development evaluation, our real source of worry should be the growing numbers of evaluations synchronous with their decreasing use. These trends were found by Preskill and Caracelli, as well as Fleischer and Christie.<sup>58</sup> Their studies dealt with evaluation use among the US members of the American Evaluation Association. The survey conducted in 1997 included 282 evaluators while the latter included 1,140. These research results established a marked increase in the numbers of those respondents who regarded non-use of evaluation as a major problem over the course of a number of years — being 46% in 1997<sup>59</sup> and 68% in 2009<sup>60</sup>.

The results of the meta-evaluations on 29 Finnish development evaluations commissioned by the MFA of Finland in 2006 provided evidence that, as I expected, these evaluations have not been made use of effectively. It revealed the “learning illusion” that has been cultivated, the underlying assumption about evaluation as mutual learning between the evaluation partners, namely, the donors and recipients. Furthermore, the results of the meta-evaluation demonstrated that due to the lack of standard processes for sharing evaluation results and their follow-ups, evaluations, their findings and their recommendations had often simply been shelved and stored away. The evaluators explicated the situation as a loss both of important lessons learned and of ways to improve aid quality. In addition, they made the depressing finding that recommendations from the studied evaluation reviews were hardly put to use in some cases. These results revealed that evidently this high-priced evaluation business with its multiple development evaluation reports has unfortunately failed to meet targets such as “evaluation for impacts” or “evaluation for development.”<sup>61</sup> Similar results were found in the meta-evaluation carried out on project and programme evaluations of the Finnish MFA in 2014–2015, which confirmed minimal evaluation impacts caused by evaluation as well as poor learning on evaluation. Namely, there were no findings on the evaluation which was conducted in partnership with the key recipient country executing agency or with another agency of that government.<sup>62</sup>

There is no exception in the non-use or deficient use of evaluations for NGOs (the contextual framework for this research). In his doctoral dissertation in 2008, Chianca studied evaluation with a sample of 50 US-based international non-profit

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<sup>58</sup> see e.g., Fleischer & Christie 2009, 166; Preskill & Caracelli 1997

<sup>59</sup> Preskill & Caracelli 1997

<sup>60</sup> Fleischer & Christie 2009, 166

<sup>61</sup> MFA 2007/2, 11, 22, 68

<sup>62</sup> MFA 2016/5, 96

organisations operating within international aid work. He found that these agencies insufficiently used the published evaluations. Of them, 44% reported having a system to collect evaluation reports of programs, projects or other efforts they sponsor or implement; 28% indicated periodically synthesising and sharing findings from the evaluations that they sponsor or conduct; only 8% indicated having conducted any formal meta-evaluation<sup>63</sup> of their evaluations.<sup>64</sup>

Snibbe has criticised a multitude of funders for creating evaluation reports on NGO activities. To him, these written statements have unfortunately not improved programme effectiveness but wasted operators' time and demanded from them a lot of effort. Namely, these evaluation findings were neither used by their funders to make programmatic changes nor did they assist the organisations in their programmes' improvement. He concluded that non-profits' survival has been dependent on their grantors, not on evaluation reports.<sup>65</sup> Snibbe's views were supported by Carman as well. Below, Carman demands, with good reason, that funders reward organisations for their evaluation utilisation, which to me alludes to evaluation impact/s and process use of evaluation — both key topics of this research.

Funders need to stop asking community-based organizations to provide them with reports designated for accountability purposes that simply monitor or report evaluation and performance data, and they need to start asking (and then rewarding) community-based organizations for reports designed to demonstrate how they are using evaluation and performance data to improve service delivery.<sup>66</sup>

An additional factor contributing to ongoing low use may be the poor quality of the evaluators, with short field periods and poor partnerships in evaluations, which was confirmed in the results of the evaluations committed by the OECD-DAC and the Finnish MFA.<sup>67</sup> In addition, Fleischer and Christie found that external evaluators were not interested in knowing how evaluation findings were fed forward to organisational use within these institutions involved in the evaluation activity.<sup>68</sup>

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<sup>63</sup> Meta-evaluation, the evaluation of evaluation, the term introduced by Scriven in 1969 (see Scriven 1969 in Stufflebeam 2001, 185) refers to any evaluation of an evaluation, evaluation system or evaluation device and means evaluation on completed evaluations (Cracknell 2000, 67; Stake & Schwandt 2006, 404; Stufflebeam & Shinkfield 2007, 7).

<sup>64</sup> Chianca 2008a, 3

<sup>65</sup> Snibbe 2006, 39–44

<sup>66</sup> Carman 2007, 72

<sup>67</sup> Fleischer & Christie 2009; Liverani & Lundgren 2007; MFA 2016/5, 96; OECD 2010, 33, 36; OECD-DAC 2009, 28, 31–34, 39; Preskill & Caracelli 1997; Taut 2000c

<sup>68</sup> Fleischer & Christie 2009, 168

Understandably, one reason for this might be the hard, quantitative methods demanded to be used. They automatically distance the evaluators from the evaluation users due to the detachment and impartiality required from the evaluatees and their organisations.<sup>69</sup> What is more, there is a growing trend towards investing in this lucrative business, hiring more of these so-called “objective externals” to carry out evaluations on these development field operations, although the worth of these large evaluation activities with their deficient utilisation is questionable.

Furthermore, the results-based evaluation practices favoured in their current forms will soon affect more deficient development evaluation use and poor, invisible, low-grade evaluative learning results. When referring to the time elapsed between a development intervention and the publishing of impact evaluations reports, it is too long. When looking at the former sample (N = 130) of Cameron *et al.* from the standpoint of how timely the published evidence was, an average 4.69 years existed between end line data collection and the year of publication.<sup>70</sup> This means that the day-to-day processes of a development intervention could not be modified in real time or be made more successful by the intervention implementers who should learn how actions could be made more successful and achieve the best impacts in the complex and unpredictable context of this intervention.<sup>71</sup> Very seldom were impact evaluations carried out on on-going development activities.<sup>72</sup>

This move toward and pressure for methodology orthodoxy (e.g., impact assessment, impact evaluation) as a result of the underlying end-result tendency and the positivist approach (with variables having a strong correlation that is understood to signify a causal relationship between these variables), have strongly been criticised in development evaluation. This criticism comes particularly because development evaluation is becoming more complex and challenging in more a diversified environment, such as the developing world is at present.<sup>73</sup>

As a corollary issue, this “objective,” “Western and Eurocentric,” positivist evaluation (which props up the donors’ hegemony), requires involvement of external evaluators, so-called experts, because it is presumable that social relations pollute, contaminate or bias evaluation results. Also, these currently prioritised evaluation

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<sup>69</sup> Abma 2006, 191–193; Abma & Widdershoven 2008, 216; Bamberger 2000, 96; Carlsson & Wohlgemuth 2000, 16; Clements 2008, 52; Patton 1997, 138–139; Rubin 1995, 44; Savedoff, Levine & Birdsall 2006, 28–29; Van Den Berg 2005

<sup>70</sup> Cameron, Mishra & Brown 2016, 11, 13, 18

<sup>71</sup> see e.g., Clemens & Demombynes 2013; Guijt & Roche 2014; Pritchett, Samji & Hammer 2013

<sup>72</sup> Lensink 2014, 15

<sup>73</sup> Savedoff, Levine & Birdsall 2006, 28–29; Van Den Berg 2005

methods, for instance impact evaluations, demand that an evaluator has administrative independence and emotional distance from a granting agency.<sup>74</sup> So, impact evaluations have aptly provoked severe criticism of how they validate knowledge and whose knowledge. Patton viewed that summative evaluations, like impact evaluations, are “the current outcome mania,”<sup>75</sup> and can be enemies of innovation. In fact, they tend to support carrying out the same programme repeatedly without considering changes occurring in conditions.<sup>76</sup> Apart from the long timeline between data collection and publishing and the strong affiliation of the evaluators to Northern institutions, typical is the Northern origin of this donor-driven approach, negligence of local evaluation utilisation and learning, unclear causality, high expenses, the use of the historically-oriented timeframe, solo efforts of external evaluators, elements of ambiguity in concept impact, and so forth.<sup>77</sup>

As could be expected, in his study in 2012 of 15 major donor agencies, Sasaki documented that attribution based on the OECD-DAC criteria requiring changes and results achieved be linkable to a specific intervention is methodologically challenging to measure and difficult to evaluate satisfactorily.<sup>78</sup> This concern is expressed in the meta-evaluations conducted since 2007 within the Finnish MFA as well. For instance, the meta-evaluation of 41 project evaluations commissioned by the Finnish MFA from 2010 and 2011 established that result frameworks of projects were generally weak. This meant that a definition of result targets (i.e., outputs, outcomes) was inadequate, indicators were unmeasurable and baseline studies<sup>79</sup> missing.<sup>80</sup> One of these meta-evaluations conducted on evaluation reports of the Finnish development cooperation programmes and projects (N = 36) carried out by consulting companies or consultants between the years 2013–2015 indicated that the information required was not gathered systematically and statements of impact, for instance, were not evaluable because of being written in high-level conceptual language. The results underlined that when addressing impact, the Finnish government “cannot rely on evaluation reports to provide it with information on, or

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<sup>74</sup> Abma 2006, 193; Abma & Widdershoven 2008, 216–217

<sup>75</sup> Patton 1998, 227

<sup>76</sup> Patton 1997, 286

<sup>77</sup> Cameron, Mishra & Brown 2016; Guijt & Roche 2014; Pritchett, Samji & Hammer 2013

<sup>78</sup> Sasaki 2012, 32

<sup>79</sup> Baseline study is an analysis which describes the situation before a start of a development intervention and against which progress can be evaluated or compared (Sida 2007, 13).

<sup>80</sup> MFA 2012/8, 13

the potential for, impact. Evaluation reports just don't deal adequately with impact, even though there are sporadic examples of anecdotal justification provided."<sup>81</sup>

The massive increase taking place in the number of evaluation reports focussing on development impacts, with evaluation design prioritised, which require the use of summative evaluations, evaluation findings and external evaluators, and which still suffer from missing systems for utilising these publications, may unfortunately presage more of these publications being left shelved, as Liverani and Lundgren, as well as Taut observed.<sup>82</sup>

What is more, when adopting these results-focussed policies with external evaluators in their full extent, the local use of evaluation and local impacts at the level of the development intervention are totally swept away. As identified by Nagao, any pre-existing asymmetrical interest will become more differentiated due to the methodology valued. The first asymmetry was between the results-based, impacts-focussed, effectiveness-centred practices of development evaluation valued by donors, and the self-reliant approaches for capacity development within the process of development and evaluation valued by recipients. The second dissymmetry was related to the point in time an evaluation is carried out, and can vary from donors' finite-time span to recipients' boundless time horizon in development.<sup>83</sup> In evaluation practices this means that the involvement of local partners, and their learning, will be flatly rejected because the donors and the recipients will not be brought to the same table to be engaged in negotiations, conversations and dialogues to learn to communicate equally without role differentials or domination of any parties. The strict categorisation of the dualism of a knower and known, an observer and observed, object and subject, both partners — the evaluator and evaluatees, the programme decision makers, staff and service users, will continue unchanged.<sup>84</sup>

This view, taken by the donors, of evaluation use based single-mindedly on evaluation findings, namely the development evaluation reports, will systematically overtake the possibility of recipient learning, future-oriented "evaluations for development," or "evaluation for impacts" needs and demands for self-reliant approaches for capacity building purposes utilised within the process of development and evaluation. Donors, with their hegemonies, will put a high value

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<sup>81</sup> MFA 2016/5, 25, 104

<sup>82</sup> Abma 2006, 191–193; Abma & Widdershoven 2008, 216; Bamberger 2000, 96; Carlsson & Wohlgemuth 2000, 16; Clements 2008, 52; Patton 1997, 138–139; Rubin 1995, 44; Savedoff, Levine & Birdsall 2006, 28–29; Van Den Berg 2005

<sup>83</sup> Nagao 2006, 28–31

<sup>84</sup> Abma 2006, 195–196; Guba & Lincoln 1989, 44–45; Rajavaara 1999, 48–49; Rebien 1997, 449

on the past-oriented, “evaluations of development” and “evaluations of impacts” procedures for controlling development resources in forms of results-based, impacts-focussed, effectiveness-centred practices in development evaluation.<sup>85</sup> Again, this means that many more evaluation products and processes will be going unused in the future, for evaluation (which is quickly becoming one of society’s most fundamental disciplines<sup>86</sup>, is a growing professionalised industry<sup>87</sup> and a powerful social force<sup>88</sup> in the society) is predicted to continue its rapid spread via institutionalisation, internationalisation, and globalisation.<sup>89</sup>

It is time to wake up to the fact that the growing quantities of development evaluations and numbers of published reports do not automatically maximise the benefits in the forms of intensified use of evaluations or their positive impacts, as expected; unfortunately, in too many cases the opposite takes place: the loss of evaluation value.<sup>90</sup>

The growth in evaluation numbers and in their poor use have reflected in their depreciating value; a topic which deserves more serious consideration. We should realise that people have become “fed up” with evaluations and suffer from evaluation “gripes.”<sup>91</sup> Evaluations have been regarded as depressive activities leading to more questions, anxiety and resistance.<sup>92</sup> This was demonstrated, for example, by Bornstein in her research on South African NGOs. She found that monitoring and evaluation amongst these organisations have created fear and deceit, as well as systemic falsification of information and at the same time, fewer improvements for development in the projects and their implementation.<sup>93</sup> Apart from evaluation fatigue and cynicism, the rapid increase in evaluation activities has caused a decrease in operational resources and increased sentiment about sprawling administration.<sup>94</sup> Hence, with good reason, the United Nations designation of the year 2015 as the International Year of Evaluation, “EvalYear 2015” should have been a wake-up call to all evaluation actors globally. This was intended to assist all evaluation partners in

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<sup>85</sup> Nagao 2006, 28–31

<sup>86</sup> Stufflebeam & Shinkfield 2007, 4

<sup>87</sup> Leeuw 2002; 2005

<sup>88</sup> Greene 2006, 118–140; House 1993, 1

<sup>89</sup> Fetterman 2001, 38; Mark 2001, 473–474; Worthen 2001, 410–411

<sup>90</sup> Bornstein 2006; Vuorenmaa 2001 in Linnakylä & Atjonen 2008b, 88

<sup>91</sup> Vuorenmaa 2001 in Linnakylä & Atjonen 2008b, 88

<sup>92</sup> Geva-May & Thorngate 2003

<sup>93</sup> Bornstein 2006

<sup>94</sup> Huusko 2008, 137

realising the need for stronger evaluation utilisation, more advanced evaluation capacity development, stronger status of evaluative actions, and development of evaluation as a discipline.<sup>95</sup>

Hence, with this research I propose that every evaluation conducted should be beneficial for someone via its use. I see that deficient development evaluation impacts, ensuing from non or insufficient use of the evaluation itself, should be identified as a waste of resources and taxpayers' money, which needs to be acknowledged and prevented. Additionally, if managed well with local evaluation use as a target, the locals need no longer feel that development evaluation is “a necessary evil that accompanies foreign aid,”<sup>96</sup> or “evaluation as resources drain and distraction (i.e., waste of time, money; required by funders)”<sup>97</sup> as Degnbol-Martinussen and Engberg-Pedersen, or Carman and Fredericks, respectively, described the locals' attitudes towards these evaluations.

In contrast to these degrading perspectives, I ask, based on encouraging results of Podems's study carried out in South-Africa, for utilising every evaluation process so that it would: impart useful knowledge by creating space for local learning; clarify the programme goal among non-profit directors; contribute to learning about the programme; and pave the way for giving voice to the non-profits' beneficiaries.<sup>98</sup> My research shall demonstrate how evaluation use could be boosted by means of evaluation process use, and includes results. This is exemplified in the VET case, MHCC,<sup>99</sup> in Tanzania through the locals' evaluative training and learning with concrete changes taking place at all the local levels of the development intervention. Therefore, in this research, evaluation processes were looked at closely (in addition to evaluation findings) when discussing “positive” evaluation usage, that is, evaluation that contributes to more purposeful and stronger evaluation impacts (“evaluation for impacts” or “learning in evaluation,” in my vocabulary) at local levels of a development intervention.

Next, we shall look more closely at the background, phases, context, and focus of this research.

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<sup>95</sup> EvalPartners 2015

<sup>96</sup> Degnbol-Martinussen and Engberg-Pedersen 2003, 226

<sup>97</sup> Carman & Fredericks 2008, 58–66

<sup>98</sup> Podems 2007, 92–95

<sup>99</sup> Subsequently in 2003, the name of MHCC was changed for Nyakato Vocational Training Centre (Jinega 2.3.2004). However, throughout this report I devoted to use acronyms MHCC when referring to this VET centre located in Nyakato, Mwanza, Tanzania and owned by the Free Pentecostal Church of Tanzania (FPCT).



## 1.2 Research purpose, task, strategy, questions, and stakeholders

My practical training in development cooperation issues, began in 1991, when I worked for five years in the VET project, MHCC, in Tanzania. It was my direct experience during those years that first prompted me to carry out this research. The local participants' need for evaluation on this development project, chiefly funded by the MFA of Finland and channelled through NGOs, was voiced in Tanzania for the first time by the current Archbishop of the Free Pentecostal Church of Tanzania (later FPCT)<sup>100</sup>, Mr Batenzi. As the committee chairman of MHCC he especially emphasised the need for an evaluation on VET impacts of the centre — precisely, regarding MHCC's former students within the Tanzanian labour market and more broadly the impacts of VET on these students' lives. In 1997, this research received additional impetus from Mr Karanko, the Director for the Evaluation Unit of the Finnish MFA at the time, who indicated to me his strong support for the suggestion made in Tanzania of needing an evaluation study on VET impacts of MHCC. (Figure 1.)

In the late 1990s, I moved back to Finland. I became very interested and involved in studying the quality of development interventions and their evaluations when working with the project dealing with development of self-evaluation practices among the Finnish NGO, Lähetyksen Kehitysapu (henceforth LKA), [the Development Aid of the Mission], today known as Fida International ry (later Fida).<sup>101</sup> Following that, I became absorbed in reading and analysing several development evaluation reports, researching multiple stakeholders' involvement in evaluation processes and their possibilities to utilise the published evaluation results. Based on mapping out these evaluation reports, I concluded that the majority of evaluations, excluding mid-term reviews, had been conducted after the termination or during the latter part of development intervention, by external evaluators. After reading another evaluation on MHCC conducted on the initiative of the Finnish MFA, I became more mystified as to why evaluation results were seldom fed back<sup>102</sup>

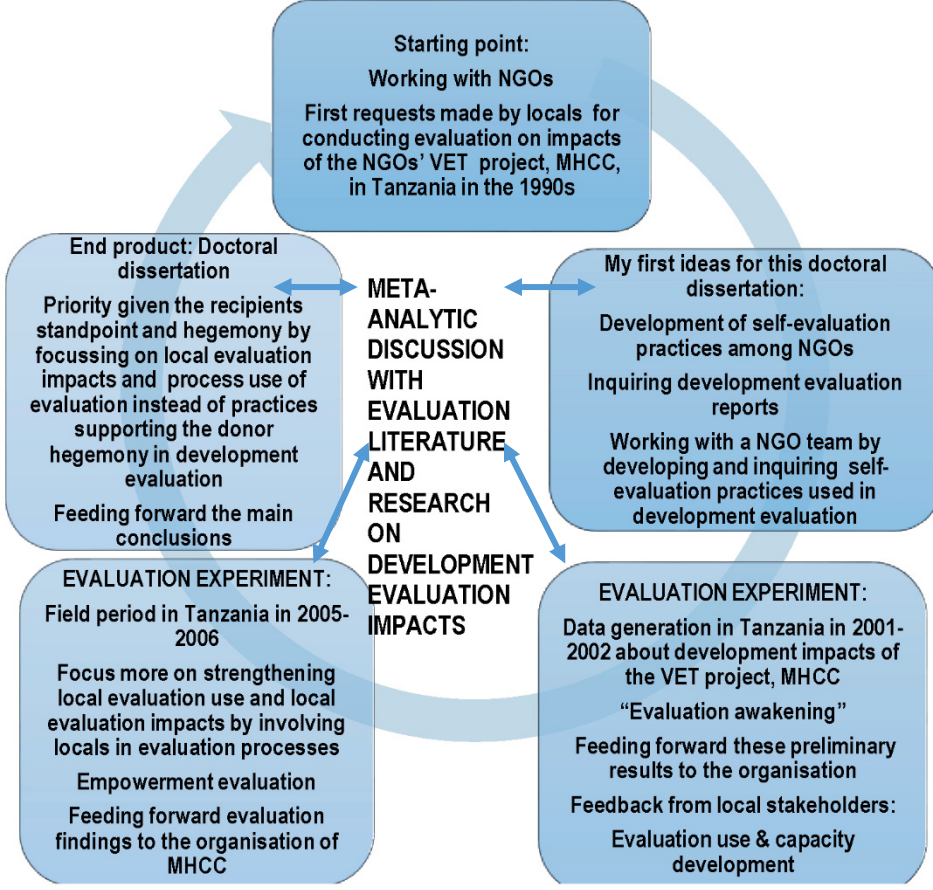
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<sup>100</sup> FPCT 2009b

<sup>101</sup> Fida 2014b

<sup>102</sup> Feedback evaluation looks only backwards by summing up knowledge, while feed forward –saying expresses a requirement for feedback evaluation activities having the future orientation by building the future and by looking also forwards on (Linnakylä & Atjonen 2008a, 60; 2008b, 80). Thus, I suggest that evaluation should produce 'not only 'feedback' from the past but also knowledge (i.e., feed forward) for the future so that the future activities could be planned and developed (see e.g., Weeden, Winter & Broadfoot 2002).

to the “recipients”, to the local Southern organisations and their stakeholders. This meant the loss of possibilities to further develop their activities, capacities and those of their organisations, and to simply learn during the evaluation, by means of the evaluation itself while evaluating. Thus, I formulated the initial idea for the research purpose of my doctoral thesis as follows: to strengthen self-evaluative capacities among NGOs. (Figure 1.)



**Figure 1.** The research process of this thesis

My own evaluation experiences, combined with the needs of the Tanzanian decision makers and of the Finnish officials, as well as results of evaluation reports, began to sow seeds in my mind. With power intertwined in evaluation and reflected in its utilisation, power relations affect evaluative processes in several ways through such issues as what the target of an evaluation is, what methodological choices are used, by whom evaluation is conducted and used, and with whose values, as well as the

question of who has power to decide over these issues, as Guijt and Roche emphasised.<sup>103</sup> I realised that every evaluation initiator, commissioner and evaluator have a lot of power and roles in evaluation, for they can influence evaluation use and impacts, especially through its evaluation factor, as Alkin and Taut's findings confirmed.<sup>104</sup> Inarguably, these key evaluation agents consider the standpoint(s) of those for whom the results of this certain activity are produced and whose learning is aimed through evaluation use.

In my research, the case selected was the development intervention, the VET programme at MHCC, channelled through NGOs in Tanzania, for case study-based evaluations typically focus on the evaluation of certain programmes, projects or interventions,<sup>105</sup> as was true in my case. This evaluation experiment consisted of two components. In the evaluation section, the socio-economic impacts of VET in the Tanzanian VET centre were studied, while in the research on evaluation portion the processes and influences on its participants and VET services were examined. This micro and local perspective taken in the evaluation experiment was intended to contribute to evaluative learning, to produce action-oriented knowledge and to assist stakeholders to learn about themselves. Next, the issues from the viewpoints of individuals and groups, directly working with the intervention, at the VET centre, or affected by it, were looked at. To this end, the centre's future implementation could be improved by focussing on its internal structures and issues. In this way, evaluation would become a never-ending, cyclical learning and social change process, if utilisation of evaluation processes did not become neglected as learning sources.<sup>106</sup>

This research on evaluation was meant to test for impacts by the local multi-stakeholders of evaluation. Thus, the statement made by Ofir, who demanded an "evaluation for development" approach be used more intensively in development evaluation (rather than the prevailing "evaluation of development" approach) was supported.<sup>107</sup> This research was conducted "for impacts," not "of impacts" solely, and was not based only on evaluation findings but also on evaluation processes, then simply called a process use of evaluation.<sup>108</sup> This means that active, local participation, training and learning of the local multi-stakeholders in evaluation processes would strengthen local evaluation impacts, through evaluation utilisation,

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<sup>103</sup> Guijt & Roche 2014, 51

<sup>104</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003

<sup>105</sup> Yin 2009a, 19; 2012, xix, 171

<sup>106</sup> See Armytage 2011, 273; Rebien 1997, 453.

<sup>107</sup> Ofir 2013, 584

<sup>108</sup> Baptiste 2010, 58

as well as contribute towards improvement of development practices.<sup>109</sup> In this research, a group of evaluation and research learners as well as their users were targeted to be widened outside the typical evaluation commissioners: the policy-makers, the funders or donors. Thus, three learning groups, named by Suzuki, played a key role. They were two organisational groups inside MHCC: development practitioners (the staff) and development leadership (the committee); the beneficiaries (the former students of MHCC and their extended family members); as well as a third group outside the organisation (the employers of MHCC's former students and VET officers).<sup>110</sup>

In this evaluation experiment, three analytical tiers were identified. Figure 2, below, displays the various interest groups, stakeholders — typical of the action research strategy as well as of evaluation research approaches used in this research — and service users of the evaluation experiment, the VET case at MHCC.<sup>111</sup> The VET case at MHCC included three levels: micro (former students of MHCC, their extended families and communities), meso (the VET programme at MHCC and its multi-stakeholders, such as the trainers, the management group and committee members of MHCC), and macro levels. At the third, macro level, the multi-stakeholders represented the national and international partners of MHCC both from the development cooperation and the VET field; including the Finnish NGO (i.e., Fida) and the Tanzanian one (i.e., FPCT), as well as the Tanzanian VET authority (VETA<sup>112</sup>), the Finnish development policy actor and the donor agency, the MFA of Finland. The representatives of Tanzanian private VET providers and employers were also placed in this third category. Moreover, topics such as VET utilisation were examined at three levels and evaluation impacts by means of the process use; (i.e., individual, interpersonal and collective ones); the conscious standpoint taken; and the paradigm chosen in development evaluation. When one refers to meta-analytic discussion based on the evaluation literature, the key players on the donor side were found among the policy level representatives of foreign aid and its evaluation, as designers, funders and decision-makers of these actions, shown in Figures 1 and 2.

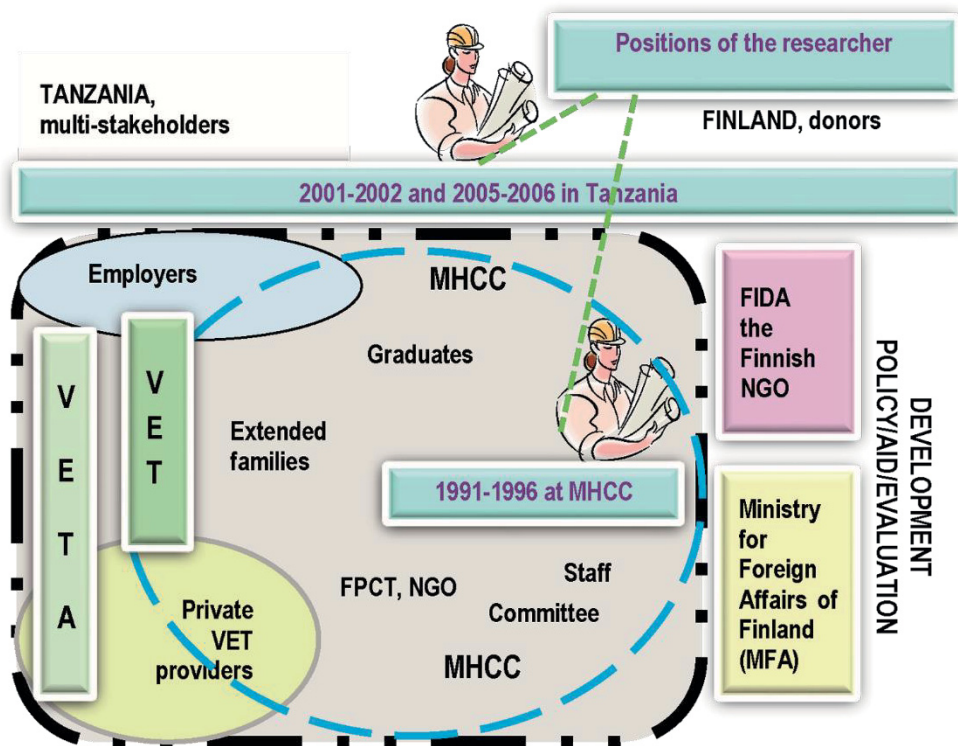
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<sup>109</sup> Linnakylä & Välijärvi 2005, 22; Patton 1997, 121; Pickford & Brown 2006; Saunders 2012

<sup>110</sup> Carlsson 2000, 121–122; Suzuki 2000, 93

<sup>111</sup> Kuusela 2005, 59–64

<sup>112</sup> VETA 2014a



**Figure 2.** Positions of the researcher among multi-stakeholders of this evaluation experiment, the VET case at MHCC

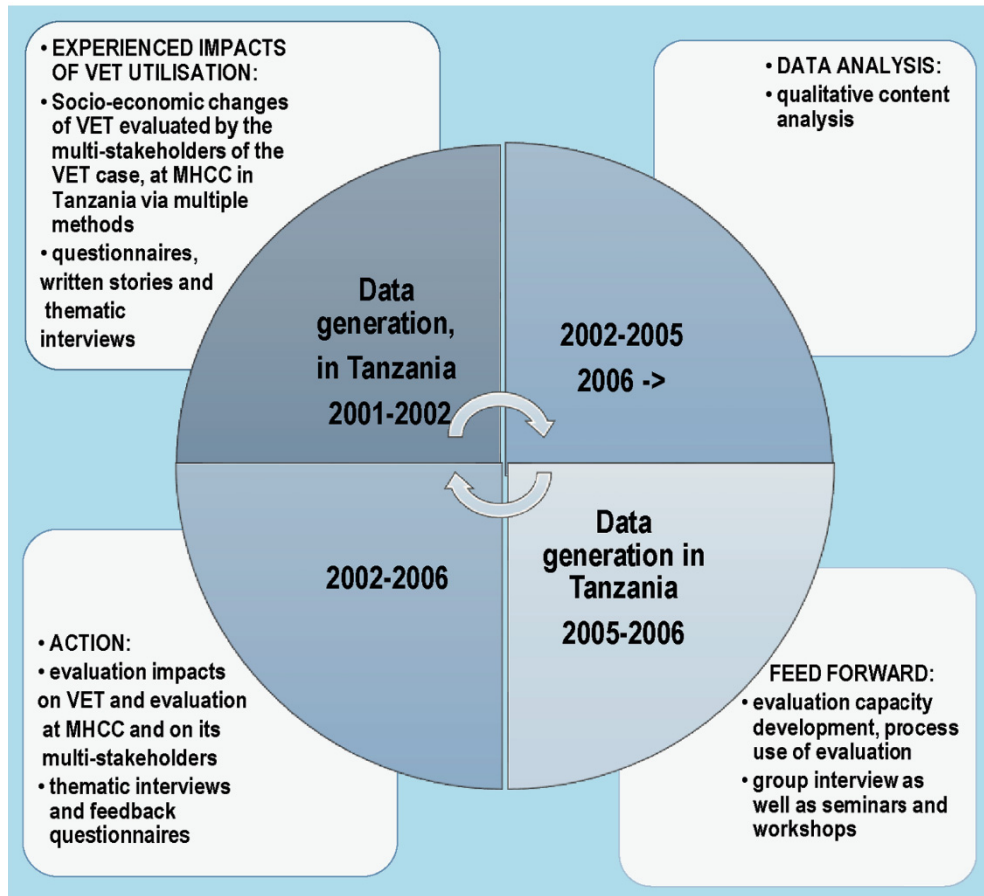
The research process of this evaluation experiment was carried out by emphasising the recipient hegemonic paradigm and standpoint of the locals.<sup>113</sup> Thus, my working hypothesis set for this research runs as follows: The conscious standpoint taken by the evaluator (then referring primarily to one of Alkin and Taut’s three factors, viz. the evaluation component, having impact on the evaluation use<sup>114</sup>) could generate stronger evaluation impacts at the local level of the intervention. Therefore, in this research, stress was laid on such evaluation elements and procedures chosen over which we, I together with the local evaluation participants, could exercise power and have influence on stronger evaluation impacts and utilisation. These parts of the evaluation factor, if referring to Alkin and Taut, Saunders as well as Pickford and Brown,<sup>115</sup> covered the evaluator’s position, the users’ location, the evaluation goal,

<sup>113</sup> Collins 2000; 2013

<sup>114</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003, 4

<sup>115</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003; Pickford & Brown 2006; Saunders 2012

the evaluation design and methodology, as well as its time-line. What is more, it was essential from viewpoints of evaluation utilisation of both processes and findings that I, as the researcher and evaluator, revealed evaluation logic, knowledge, skills and evaluation standards, while non-evaluator stakeholders brought their knowledge of the evaluand and evaluation context, and then evaluation was carried out in our cooperation.<sup>116</sup>



**Figure 3.** The research strategy used for the evaluation experiment, the VET case at MHCC

Many elements from the first idea paper have proven relevant and useful. However, more steps were gradually taken towards the research on evaluation use and impacts by utilising the evaluative action research strategy over the course of my research

<sup>116</sup> Cousins, Goh, Clark & Lee 2004, 106–107, 124; Fetterman 2003, 49; Harnar & Preskill 2007; King 2007, 46; Preskill & Boyle 2008a. See Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein & Cousins 2009, 204.

process (Figure 3). To carry out the interventionist research process, enlightened by thoughts of Waterman, Tillen, Dickson, and de Koning, I used one of the action research orientations: empowerment evaluation.<sup>117</sup> This meant, as Figures 1 and 3 demonstrated, that scientific procedures and professional learning processes of the evaluation experiment were related to development of certain everyday life questions at MHCC.

I opted for using the qualitative approach as the research methodology due to the focus of my research task. This focus was on strengthening of evaluation impacts derived from the process use of evaluation and from the evaluation paradigm emphasising the local recipients' involvement and learning in the evaluation process. The standpoint of resisting asymmetric power relationships is again stressed. This mode and standpoint chosen allowed me to crosscut various issues such as disciplines, fields and subject matters.<sup>118</sup> Typical of the boundaries which I needed to cross were disciplines (Education Sciences and Development Studies); contexts, spheres and levels (foreign aid: donor [government] and recipients [NGOs; local stakeholders]); cultures (Tanzanian and Finnish); and subjects (VET and evaluation).

In this evaluation experiment at MHCC, democratisation of knowledge with the assistance of local learning and active local participation was emphasised. This knowledge was neither to be produced for knowledge's sake nor evaluation for evaluation's sake but for being used, so that the local participants could become social actors in the VET programme. It was aimed at improving the lives of people involved in and maximising impacts of evaluation and of VET activities at MHCC in Tanzania through their experiences and participatory, evolving and mobilising processes.<sup>119</sup> In addition, reflection and adaptation of the VET were concentrated on the locals' evaluative thinking, involvement and skills needed for an on-going evaluation. This type of evaluation experiment not only gave voice to the stakeholders engaged in it, but also preserved their multiple realities, experiences, and interpretations by focussing on the participants' perspectives in their cultural context.<sup>120</sup>

The research methodology, a branch of philosophy or logic, used in this research, combined the questions' formulation as well as the data generation and analysis by using certain research methods. To an extent, it followed the footsteps of

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<sup>117</sup> Waterman, Tillen, Dickson & de Koning 2001

<sup>118</sup> Denzin & Lincoln 2013, 5

<sup>119</sup> see e.g., Gaventa & Cornwall 2001, 76; 2006, 126–127

<sup>120</sup> see Ronkainen, Pehkonen, Lindblom-Ylänne & Paavilainen 2011, 81; Wandersman, Snell-Johns, Lentz, Fetterman, Keener, Livet, Imm & Flaspohler 2005, 28

Rwegoshora and Silverman.<sup>121</sup> Regarding this research, the methodology selected, being predominantly qualitative, was holistic (e.g., contextual, case oriented, resistant of reductionism and elementalism, relatively non-comparative); empirical (e.g., field-oriented, privileging of natural language descriptions, underscoring observables also made by stakeholders); interpretive (e.g., stressing a researcher-subject interaction); and empathic (e.g., design responsive). These characteristics of qualitative research were adopted from Stake.<sup>122</sup>

The formulation of the research questions had a strong influence on my research design. They gave shape and focus to this research, and they also helped me to choose the appropriate methods and means of analysis. Simply put, to keep me, as the researcher, on track.<sup>123</sup> These research questions solidified the theoretical presuppositions underlying the questions themselves, as well as the ontological and epistemological standpoints taken in this research. Thus, to contribute to stronger evaluation use and impacts at the local level of the case, value was placed on the process use of evaluation with empowerment evaluation and utilisation of the social relationship between the researcher and the researched. Further, the emphasis was put on the processes, meanings and qualities of entities instead of the measurements or analysis of causal relationships between experimentally<sup>124</sup> measured or examined variables. This focus on local actors in the process did not conform to the politics of strengthening donor hegemony and methods of positivism used in the majority of development evaluations.<sup>125</sup>

It is often said that determining the research questions, is the most significant part of the research process, to which I agree. Indeed, I realised that good research questions shaped the study and caused me to focus on those essential issues that

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<sup>121</sup> Rwegoshora 2006, 95; Silverman 2006, 15

<sup>122</sup> Stake 1995, 12, 47–48; Stake & Abma 2005, 376–380; see also Mathison 2005, 396–397; Ronkainen, Pehkonen, Lindblom-Ylänne & Paavilainen 2011, 81–83; Rossman & Rallis 2003, 8, 11 in Marshall & Rossman 2011, 2–3

<sup>123</sup> Flick 2006, 137; Laine, Bamberg & Jokinen 2007, 47; Ronkainen, Pehkonen, Lindblom-Ylänne & Paavilainen 2011, 42–45; Simons 2009, 31–32

<sup>124</sup> In a classic experimental design with randomisation typically two groups – the treated one and untreated one – were measured before and after the treatment of one. Comparing changes in these groups enables one to evaluate the cause and effect, as well as impact of the programme and its effectiveness on the grounds of the theory of causation. Evaluation designs without randomisation but involving pre- and post-tests and which compare groups are called quasi-experiments. Generally, experimental and quasi-experimental evaluation represents methodologically “hard” approaches and uses quantitative methods. (Campbell 1969 in Pawson & Tilley 2000, 4–5.)

<sup>125</sup> see Denzin & Lincoln 1994, 4



could be answerable.<sup>126</sup> So, when comparing the target of this evaluation research, two typically separated actions,<sup>127</sup> namely the evaluation and the research on it were carried out. When the evaluation research covered the action- and change-oriented evaluation on the VET impacts, as an evaluation characteristically does, the research part focussed on utilisation and impacts of development evaluation. In addition, it was evaluation questions which determined the use of the most appropriate methodology in the evaluation context, as Ginsburg and Rhett made clear.<sup>128</sup>

The VET experiment was concentrated on the evaluation factor of the evaluation use, recognising that the context factor is most commonly valued in evaluation use and evaluation research, but which has also been seen to cause inefficient evaluation use and impacts. Typical of this situation are the institutional evaluation systems with their power over development evaluations. The research results on evaluation literature referenced earlier revealed that the evaluation paradigm and standpoint chosen had an impact on evaluation utilisation as well as on learning in evaluation; understanding that decisions made on epistemological, ontological and methodological stances valued in evaluation had crucial effects later, on evaluation utilisation and finally, on evaluation impacts.<sup>129</sup> Thus, in the end, the major research question took its final form as follows:

**How did the evaluation factor (through the conscious standpoint taken in evaluation), and the evaluation paradigm chosen, impact utilisation of evaluation among multiple, local stakeholders of a development cooperation intervention?**

To be able to answer this key question, the following specific sub-questions were asked, each of which touched on the evaluation experiment carried out on the VET case in Tanzania.

1. What were the key evaluation impacts of the use of the “recipient hegemonic” standpoint and paradigm in development evaluation utilisation on the evaluation experiment?

1.1 How did the evaluation process proceed?

1.2 What were the evaluation findings from the VET utilisation?

1.3 What was the kind of process use of evaluation in the VET case? With what results?

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<sup>126</sup> Laine, Bamberg & Jokinen 2007, 47; Ronkainen, Pehkonen, Lindblom-Ylänne & Paavilainen 2011, 42; Simons 2009, 31–32; Yin 2009a, 13–14

<sup>127</sup> Botcheva, Shih & Huffman 2009, 178

<sup>128</sup> Ginsburg & Rhett 2003, 497

<sup>129</sup> see e.g., Heikkinen 2004

1.4 How was evaluation used? How were impacts of the evaluation experiment carried out manifested at the personal, interpersonal and collective levels of the VET case? What changed?

### 1.3 Research context

Development is a complex concept and difficult to define specifically. Development aid generally aims at change, though not just any change: change for the better in the conditions defined of its target groups. In this research context if looking at the research questions posed, development was observed through two elements. The first part, VET impacts, comprised socio-economic changes resulting from the private VET of NGOs in Tanzania and experienced by its local stakeholders. The second component, evaluation use and impacts, consisted of personal, interpersonal and organisational changes gained through utilisation of evaluation processes and findings. Regarding the topic of this research, this means definite improvements and continuous betterment targeted by means of evaluation that should have made sense to the local people and have been in line with their values and their capacities and be culturally, socially, economically, technologically, and environmentally appropriate for them.<sup>130</sup>

Referring to VET at MHCC, throughout the institution's evolution it has always stressed its genuineness. This development has had to be originated in the Tanzanian society and community, not being a copy or an imitation of somebody else's development. Hence, the centre's founders had capably understood before its establishment that MHCC would not have survived up until now as a copy of the Finnish VET school, without its indigenous knowledge and pedagogies used as well as learning which had taken place through activity and collaboration.<sup>131</sup> This I ascribed to strong cultural competence gained by the Finnish initiators during their long-term living in Tanzania and working in close relationships with the locals.

It is worth noting that development or improvement, specifically, the change desired, takes time. This pattern of thought is difficult to accept, especially in Western culture, as we tend to have a fixation for, and often pressure towards, quick results. Thus, in this VET case, research was not targeted at a parachute-type single action, but rather a developmental, partnership process with local evaluation impacts, like learning, concrete actions and changes. In addition, it was aimed at

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<sup>130</sup> See e.g., Pratt & Boyden 1985, 13 in Slim 1995, 145.

<sup>131</sup> see e.g., Tusiime 2015, 102–103

continuity (sustainability<sup>132</sup> in development jargon), one of the elements playing a key role in development, which guarantees a future for continual improvements. Therefore, evaluation, if being an on-going and highly locally owned process, can be used as a powerful tool for continuous adaptation and development within the local institution.

Again, I emphasised that development was more than economics,<sup>133</sup> although the non-profit sector, the operational context of this research, has also been affected by the performance management movement. This current funding and political environment, demonstrated by the neoliberal order and poverty reduction agenda with impact evaluations, requires NGOs to demonstrate their value for money; prove accountability and evidence of impact to funders, donors and communities to an ever-increasing degree; modify individual services; and gain wider knowledge for policy decision makers through external evaluations and hard methods.<sup>134</sup> In the past, NGOs have highlighted the learning role of evaluation,<sup>135</sup> but today these organisations have faced increasing demands to provide evaluative information and demonstrate their effectiveness, and illustrate outcomes of their activities to governments, other financial supporters, and stakeholders.<sup>136</sup>

NGOs are delivering an unprecedented range of public services with government grants and contracts. Notwithstanding their seemingly independent nature, many institutional donors (e.g., bilateral government donors or multilateral donors, such as the European Commission, the United Nations and investors [e.g., the World Bank]), in practice, play significant roles not only as the financiers of NGOs but also as the source of ideas and of conditions for their development actions and even for their evaluations, whose procedures and principles these non-profit organisations should follow.<sup>137</sup> In this regard, the NGO term is misleading when denying

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<sup>132</sup> In this research sustainability is understood as adaptation as Fowler (2000, 186) does, by means of which the continuity of activities can be guaranteed. According to Johnson and Wilson (1996, 17–18 in Johnson & Wilson 1999, 46) continuity refers to “an extended time frame; the potential for activities to be self-supporting; the development of capacities, the realisation of capacities through performance; learning as an integral part of developing capacities and assessing performance.”

<sup>133</sup> Slim 1995, 143–144.

<sup>134</sup> Carman 2007, 60; 2009, 374; Carman & Fredericks 2008, 51; 2010, 84; Feinstein & Beck 2006, 538; Taylor-Powell & Boyd 2008, 56; Thayer & Fine 2001, 103

<sup>135</sup> Conlin & Stirrat 2008; Feinstein & Beck 2006, 538; Garcia-Iriarte, Suarez-Balcazar, Taylor-Ritzler & Luna 2011, 168

<sup>136</sup> Carman 2007, 60; 2009, 374; 2010, 256; Carman & Fredericks 2008, 51; 2010, 84; King 2007, 48; Murray 2005 in Carman 2009, 375; Newcomer 2004, 209; Patton 1997, 13

<sup>137</sup> Ebrahim 2002; Fowler 1996, 59; Koch, Dreher, Nunnenkamp & Thiele 2009, 914; Mitlin, Hickey & Bebbington 2007; Sadoun 2006; Vincent 2006

connections to government. The fact is that grants and contracts given to NGOs by governments, foundations, and other funders in order to deliver public services with high-quality demands, position NGOs in de facto exchange relationships with their donors.<sup>138</sup> For this reason, some scholars have aptly claimed that NGOs should work as social movement organisations instead of helping to further consolidate broadly hegemonic ideas of political programmes or developmentalist states.<sup>139</sup> Nonetheless, only a small proportion of all development interventions have been evaluated to date, although most multi- and bilateral development agencies, unlike NGOs, already had institutionalised systems for monitoring and evaluating their activities at the turn of this millennium.<sup>140</sup> Hence, NGOs have had no other option than to create some form of self-evaluation and develop their own evaluation capacity, like using field staff to evaluate their own activities and utilising these evaluations more effectively, as illustrated in the evaluation experiment of this research report.<sup>141</sup>

Evaluation seems to be a mantra of modernity, in many cases with unclear definitions. New evaluation connotations and approaches continue to mushroom.<sup>142</sup> In this project, I distinguished evaluation from assessment, although some scholars use evaluation and assessment synonymously. Evaluation was here used to distinguish formal and systematic evaluation from the more informal type of valuation, which could be applied to almost anything. So, I linked assessment, as Kellaghan and Greaney did, to “national and international assessments of the achievements of pupils [or students<sup>143</sup>] in their education systems;”<sup>144</sup> namely, with teaching and learning, which paralleled, for instance, the expression made by Fautley and Savage.<sup>145</sup> In this research, I have used evaluation as referring to actions which were taken by following the scientific rules of the game and systematic generation of data, while assessment covered all kinds of judgement, review or criticism, valuation, and estimation.<sup>146</sup>

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<sup>138</sup> Carman 2007, 60; 2009, 374; 2010, 256; Carman & Fredericks 2008, 51; 2010, 84; Giffen 2009; King 2007, 48; Lindgren 2001, 286; Murray 2005 in Carman 2009, 375; Newcomer 2004, 209; Patton 1997, 13; Smith 2010

<sup>139</sup> Edwards & Hulme 1996, 970; Mitlin, Hickey & Bebbington 2007

<sup>140</sup> Carlsson, Eriksson-Baaz, Fallenius & Lövgren 1999, 1; Chianca 2008a, 3; Cracknell 2000, 27, 73; Patton 1997, 15; Rebien 1997, 438

<sup>141</sup> Cracknell 2000, 57, 73; Ebrahim 2003, 817

<sup>142</sup> Patton 1997, 192–194; Stufflebeam & Shinkfield 2007, 3, 8, 131

<sup>143</sup> added by the researcher

<sup>144</sup> Kellaghan & Greaney 2001, 87

<sup>145</sup> Fautley & Savage 2008

<sup>146</sup> see also Atjonen 2007, 20; Lindqvist 1999, 9

I have also utilised definitions of evaluation made by such scholars as Edelenbos and van Buuren, Patton, Torres and Preskill, and Raivola, to encompass the evaluation concept used in this research. Each of these scholars stressed the learning viewpoint in evaluation<sup>147</sup>, even if Edelenbos and van Buuren used the specific term “learning evaluation.” To the latter scholars this hybrid evaluation type was conducted during the program or policy’s execution (*ex durante*) for its continuous improvement but neither before its start (*ex ante*) nor after its termination (*ex post*). This type of evaluation borrowed elements of other evaluation types, such as a rational evaluation, a responsive evaluation, a participative evaluation, and a utilisation-oriented evaluation. In this learning evaluation, focus was not only on the program or policy’s objectives — the achievement of objectives set and determined previously — but also on their development, reinterpretation, change or even the creation of new objectives during the program through learning. In evaluation capacity development the focus of learning was on the development of evaluation capacity.<sup>148</sup>

Besides, the action learning concept originally created by Revans<sup>149</sup> was appropriate and had common features with my evaluation experiment, which stressed “learning in action.” Such similarities and simultaneous occurrences, with the concept I preferred to apply, namely “learning in evaluation,” as action and learning (in my case, evaluation and learning) were found. The “traditional,” or most commonly capitalised type of evaluation learning, based on the evaluation statements published long after the termination of the evaluation in evaluation reports, I call “learning on evaluation.” Again, the thoughts of Torres and Preskill regarding transformational learning were utilised; in this learning process, individuals and teams, as well as organisations identified, examined, and understood the information required reaching for their goals, and all gained deeper understanding of and how to develop local practices, as well as relevant skills, through on-the-job facilitation.<sup>150</sup>

The evaluation impacts targeted could be several. They can be identified, for instance, through individual changes in thinking, attitudes and behaviour among those people participating in evaluation; with learning taking place during the evaluation process, but also through these programmatic or organisational changes

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<sup>147</sup> see Patton 1996; Preskill & Torres 1999; Raivola 1995, 21; 2000, 65–67; Torres & Preskill 2001

<sup>148</sup> Edelenbos & van Buuren 2005, 591–612

<sup>149</sup> Revans 1980; 1982

<sup>150</sup> Holton & Baldwin 2003 in Preskill & Boyle 2008a, 453; Preskill 2008, 129; Preskill & Torres 1999, Torres & Preskill 2001

within the development intervention derived from this process use of evaluation.<sup>151</sup> Accordingly, this evaluation experiment was a treatment and a tool for learning to learn and facilitating communication among stakeholders, as well as learning to think in an evaluative way. So, evaluation was used as the intentional intervention to support the VET programme's outcomes as well as for strengthening its impacts and sustainability.<sup>152</sup> What is more, creation of learning infrastructures and evaluative learning culture could not be overlooked when speaking about the use of evaluation process and of its findings in the local context of development evaluation.<sup>153</sup>

Robert E. Stake understood that evaluation was not evaluation without valuing. Typically, in the objectivist evaluation the evaluator did this valuing, while in the evaluation using the subjectivist perspective the reality was an ongoing process and valuing was made in the context of understanding "subjective meaningfulness"<sup>154</sup> of the evaluation information, as Carden and Alkin put it. In my evaluation experiment, I generated evidence from the VET project together with its stakeholders. These people involved in the project and in its environment made this valuation.<sup>155</sup>

My choice of who should have carried out an evaluation principally depended on the purpose of evaluation and the stage of the VET intervention studied.<sup>156</sup> In my case, to generate stronger local evaluation use and impacts through evaluative learning the role of the locals was particularly vital. Thus, they, as internal evaluators, were used to strengthen the organisations, MHCC and FPCT, through reflection and learning, to increase understanding and improve planning that supported practitioners to take control of the VET case and grow in the evaluation process. As Wildavsky put it, at MHCC the internal evaluation was used as a key for the organisation to set its own direction, foster change, and determine if it was achieving results.<sup>157</sup>

The operational framework of this evaluation experiment was VET. This educational channel, as one of the effective tools to fight against poverty and to develop skills of the youth, has been largely undervalued through foreign aid since the 1990s. This began when the World Bank (WB) made financial and intellectual changes in its education policy by shifting its education priority from VET to general

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<sup>151</sup> see e.g., Patton 1997; 1998; 2007

<sup>152</sup> Fowler 2000, 186; Johnson and Wilson 1996, 17–18 in Johnson & Wilson 1999, 46

<sup>153</sup> Abma 2006, 193–194; Botcheva, White & Huffman 2002, 421–434

<sup>154</sup> Carden & Alkin 2012, 104

<sup>155</sup> see Patton 1981, 184; Stake 1995

<sup>156</sup> Rubin 1995, 44

<sup>157</sup> Pattyn & Brans 2013, 44; Wildavsky 1979 in Volkov 2011, 6

education (i.e., primary and higher education). Dissatisfaction with insufficient VET results, for instance in Tanzania, occasioned the WB to make a fundamental policy reform and begin declination of VET funds. This drastic cut in VET funding was also followed by other investors. At that time, the WB appealed to private VET providers to offer VET services in developing countries.<sup>158</sup> To this end, NGOs responded to the need. These thorny policy issues and their far-reaching effects are addressed more in Chapter 4.1, as are their effects relative to this research in the Tanzanian context.

Since the 1990s, VET schools have largely been established by and are still run under NGOs in developing countries. A good case in point is Tanzania, where 90% of VET trainees — 60% of this total enrollment being women — were enrolled through NGO-supported VET institutions at the beginning of the new millennium. In 2015, of all VET institutions only 22 were government-owned, while 840 were private or NGO-owned.<sup>159</sup> One of these institutions provides the physical context of this evaluation experiment, the VET centre, MHCC (Figure 4).



**Figure 4.** The buildings of the VET case researched, MHCC, in the early 1990s (Pylvänäinen 1991)

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<sup>158</sup> Bennell, Bendera, Kanyenze, Kimambo, Kiwia, Mbiriakura, Mukyanuzi, Munetsi, Muzulu, Parsalaw & Temu 1999; Hultin 1987, 1, 10; Psacharopoulos 1985 and Psacharopoulos & Loxley 1985 in Bennell & Segerstrom 1998, 271–272; WB 1991

<sup>159</sup> VETA 2015

MHCC ideally represented these existing circumstances of the VET sector within Tanzania. MHCC was administered by the Finnish faith-based organisation, Fida<sup>160</sup> (the Finnish Free Foreign Mission, now Fida International), from 1984 to 1996. As early as the 1980s, Tanzanian spokesmen of a Tanzanian nation-wide NGO, the Pentecostal Churches Association in Tanzania (now called the Free Pentecostal Church of Tanzania (FPCT)), offered the first suggestion about the establishment of this private VET institution. Later, these jointly made plans materialised with Finnish development funds between the years 1985–1996. Today, MHCC is owned by the Tanzanian NGO.

The Tanzanian VET case, with the assistance of the case study approach, used real-world insight into the Tanzanian VET sector and its cultural context. Yin emphasised and recommended when choosing the case for a case study to make the decision by valuing the uniqueness, significance and degree of interest in the case.<sup>161</sup> In terms of the VET case's abnormality and local engagement in evaluation, these features of MHCC were undeniably used as selection criteria for the case.

Too often, unfortunately, have development cooperation projects in developing countries, including Tanzania, ceased their operations soon after the termination of external funding. In this sense, MHCC represented an exceptional, unique case. It has been self-sufficient and solely financed with local Tanzanian funds since 1997. This abnormality of MHCC was illustrated by the Evaluation Report conducted in 2012 on the Youth Ministry Empowerment Programme in Tanzania. Based on this report that FPCT seemed to have understood well that outside support was only available for a limited time and that the VET institution would need to be taken over by FPCT. "The Finnish-supported Mwanza Home Craft Centre was mentioned as a good example of that — an example recognized even by the Tanzanian Government."<sup>162</sup>

Incidentally, MHCC has provided VET to about 1000 students since its inauguration 1987. This financial independence for over 20 years, which makes the institution exceptional and unique among other development interventions, and uninterrupted success of MHCC suggested that the centre with its VET might have had profound impacts on its stakeholders. The impact and experience of such private VET initiatives on local stakeholders was worth examining. Not least of all for these reasons, this evaluation experiment, which might assist in strengthening positive and

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<sup>160</sup> see Fida 2014b

<sup>161</sup> Yin 2009b, 256

<sup>162</sup> Fida 2012b, 28



minimising negative practices of the VET case was worth doing, with the help of the process use of evaluation.

## 1.4 Research framework

The content of this research report proceeds as follows. Chapter 1 introduces, in a nutshell, the major critique resulting in deficient impacts of development evaluations: neglected or sub-optimal use of evaluations, and non-use specifically at the local level. Thus, the evaluation factor with its elements becomes the primary focus of interest for this research. Additionally, the research purpose, questions, strategy, stakeholders, and context, as well as the research framework are revealed in brief.

Chapter 2 presents the research design that took place in the field. The conscious standpoint taken by the researcher and her location in evaluation research — emphasising local learning, local evaluation impacts, involvement of the locals in evaluation, and the process use of evaluation — is presented by introducing the standpoint theory. The methods used in data generation, data analysis and interpretation are clarified. The concept that the standpoint taken by the evaluation initiator and evaluator has strong impacts on the utilisation of evaluation processes and results, is compared with the overarching Western and Eurocentric positivist standpoint overvalued in current development evaluation. Then, the main context and evaluation factors affecting the incomplete evaluation use, are revealed. Their evaluation systems, evaluation purposes and methods prioritised (namely, impact evaluations), are criticised. Next, we look at the prevailing paradigm favoured in development evaluation, that is, emphasising the standpoint of the funders, including which type of knowledge is appreciated by, and seen from the perspectives of their values, as well as a review of the impact of their prioritised methods, leading to the donor hegemony.

In Chapter 3, topics such as evaluation use, process use and evaluation impacts, primarily from the viewpoints of learning in evaluation taking place at the local level of the intervention, are addressed. The coding category used in this research is established.

Chapter 4 deals with the evaluation experiment. First, its Tanzanian education context is looked at. The results of historical, political, economic, cultural and social perspectives emphasised in knowledge construction and power exertion are discussed. However, the primary focus is on changes derived from utilisation of VET at MHCC — geographically located in Tanzania — and experienced by various

stakeholders from socio-economic perspectives. Then, utilisation of evaluation and its processes as well as their impacts are put forth by using the recipients' standpoint and the locals' learning in evaluation.

In Chapter 5, the research purpose and topicality are discussed. The key research results with their theoretical and practical implications as well as interpretations are concluded. Likewise, self-evaluation on the quality of this research is presented, and ethical challenges and methodological limitations of this research are dealt with. A need for additional study is addressed. Finally, this chapter summarises the research and recommends some further steps to be taken in development evaluation to make an outstanding contribution towards more profound development evaluation impacts.

## 2 RESEARCH DESIGN

This chapter responds to the first research question. It is as follows: “How did the evaluation process proceed?” First, we go through the data generation methods used as well as the conscious standpoint, location and roles taken by the researcher. Then, the methodology of this research is handled. The qualitative content analysis is introduced as a method of data analysis and data interpretation.

I begin by explicating the logical plan, the research design. It guided me as the researcher through my entire research process. My plans were put into action, as the following paragraphs reveal, during this very long, often meandering and challenging process. It proceeded from formulation of research questions to data generation, from data analysis to interpretations and finally to reporting of research findings. Referring to research questions, I formulated them for the evaluation experiment, the VET case, considering its multiple analytical levels. I understood that “different kinds of problems require different types of data,”<sup>163</sup> as Patton has expressed. Likewise, the Tanzanian scholar Hossea M. M. Rwegoshora saw that the need for various types of data arose from the evolving research problems.<sup>164</sup>

Figure 5 below demonstrates the main features of data generation methods of the evaluation experiment. Likewise, their schedules, evaluation approaches, participants and numbers of this research, as well as their connections to the research questions, are presented. The specific data generation techniques, such as archival records, project documents; written stories and questionnaires, both structured, thematic interviews and a group interview; as well as seminars and workshops, are dealt with. They assisted in evaluation utilisation and provided hearing of various voices from various levels of the VET intervention, their meanings and constructs.<sup>165</sup> Now we shall turn to a consideration of how the data generation process of the evaluation experiment proceeded from submitting the application for the research permit up to producing the research data in the field.

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<sup>163</sup> Patton 1997, 275

<sup>164</sup> Rwegoshora 2006, 103–104

<sup>165</sup> see e.g., Flick 2006, 390; Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2006, 142

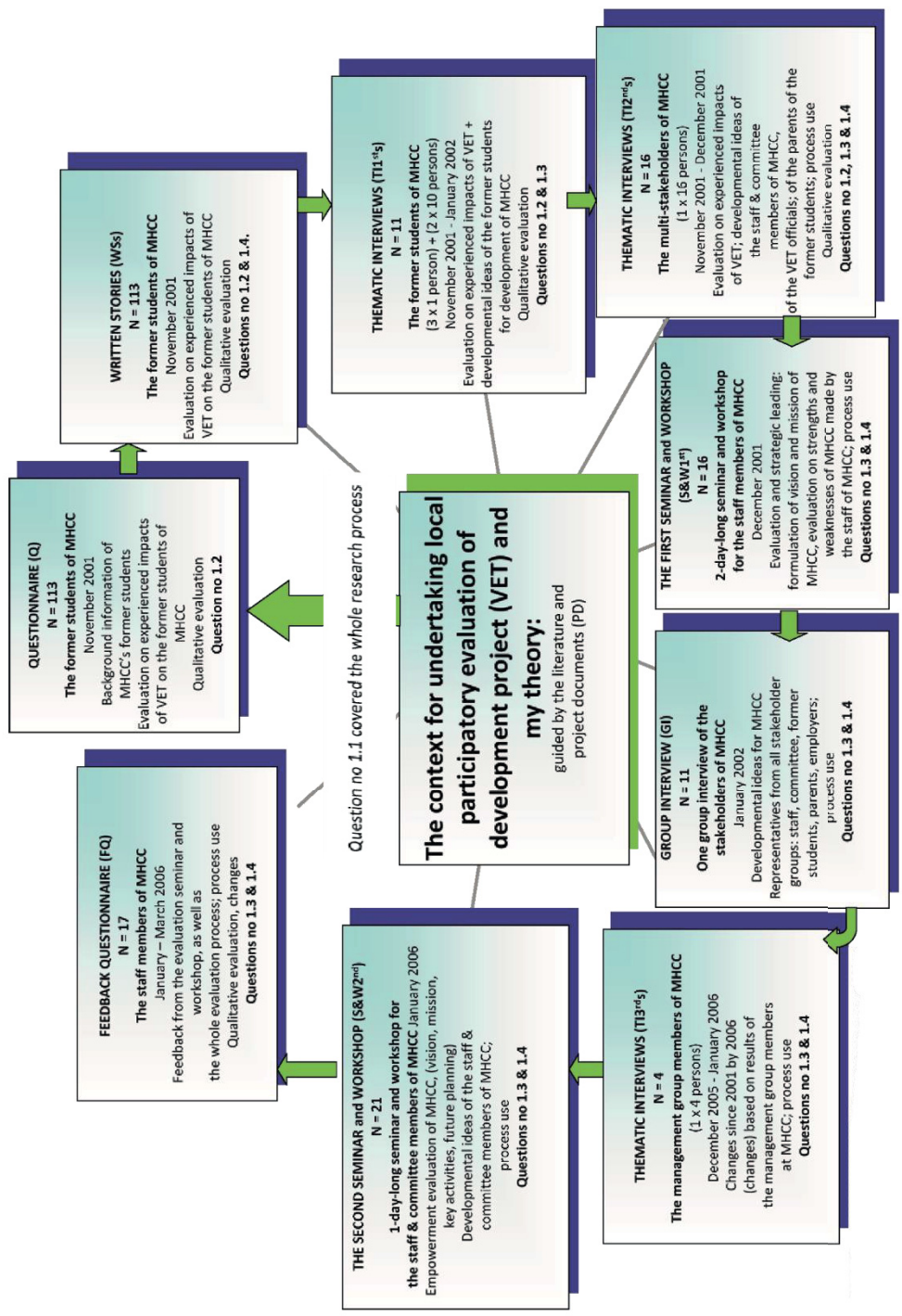
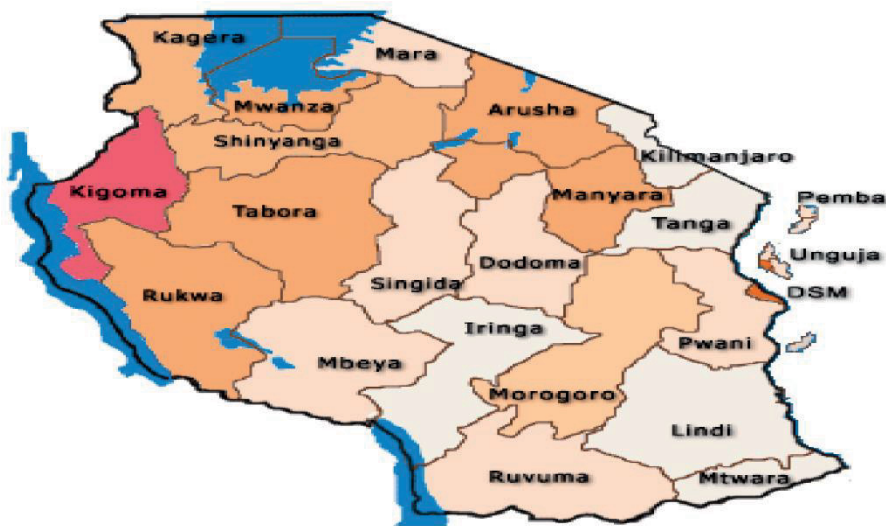


Figure 5. The data generation process of the evaluation in the VET case at MHCC

## 2.1 Data generation

The research process began officially in 2001. Then, I contacted by email the committee members of the VET centre, MHCC, inquiring about the possibility of conducting evaluation research there. Recommendations for the evaluation research had been made earlier, both in Tanzania and Finland. Arising out of this contact and my entry letter, MHCC committee granted me permission and invited me to conduct the research.<sup>166</sup> In response to their positive reply in March 2001, I applied for a research permit from the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology. Their officers approved my research plan by granting the conditional research permit in May 2001 and the final one (Appendix 2) in October 2001. It allowed me to collect data besides Mwanza from two other regions, Shinyanga and Mara.



**Figure 6.** Three data generation regions of the VET case at MHCC among other regions of the United Republic of Tanzania<sup>167</sup>

The research process consisted of two field trips. The first trip was four months long, from September 2001 until January 2002, while the second one lasted two weeks, from December 2005 to January 2006 (Figures 1, 2, 3 and 5). The research

<sup>166</sup> e.g., Marshall & Rossman 2011, 101–102

<sup>167</sup> The map of the United Republic of Tanzania (General Report 2003b).

base was MHCC, still located in the Mwanza region (Figure 6) in the Nyakato area near Mwanza, the second largest city, with half a million inhabitants.<sup>168</sup> The majority of the main stakeholder group of the evaluation experiment, the former students of MHCC, originated from and lived there also. During these trips, data was mainly generated by using the Swahili language, although the entire research process required the use of both the official languages<sup>169</sup> of Tanzania, Swahili and English, for this report was published in English.

The conscious standpoint taken by me as the researcher, as further clarified in Chapter 2.2, presumed as a self-evident fact, that various voices were made to be heard in dialogue. I valued and prioritised local knowledge, emphasised local learning from evaluation and demanded active involvement in, and utilisation of, the evaluation processes. Consequently, acceptance of competing visions and patterns, experiences as well as realities of the complex, multifaceted context was required from the researcher.<sup>170</sup> The primary data sources in which MHCC graduates revealed, reflected and evaluated influences of VET at MHCC on their lives, were background questionnaires, written stories, and thematic interviews. Besides these, some of these students participated in the group interview. Additionally, some feedback on VET impacts was provided from the wider perspective of the extended family, given by some parents. Likewise, some employers of these former students expressed their views in the thematic interviews and in the group interview as well, and shared them with some VET officials who were interviewed.<sup>171</sup> Evaluation impacts were inquired of with the assistance of seminars and workshops, a feedback questionnaire as well as a group and thematic interviews.

My various data sources and methods used in the VET case, MHCC, could be described as a crystal, a prism with a very rich and deep display of colours, as Ellingson does, instead of Denzin's oft applied traditional 3-side triangle and 4-triangulation-protocol forms.<sup>172</sup> This multifaceted approach enabled me to observe

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<sup>168</sup> Population of Mwanza 2011

<sup>169</sup> Tanzania's population consists of more than 120 ethnical groups having their own mother tongues (a language the child can speak fluently before going to school), although the country's official languages (languages of government, business and other formal purposes) are English and Swahili, while Swahili has been accepted its lingua franca, a language used for communication among all inhabitants (Miguel 2004; Van Dyken 1990, 40–41).

<sup>170</sup> Denzin & Lincoln 2013, 10; Ellingson 2009

<sup>171</sup> Denzin & Lincoln 2013, 10; Ellingson 2009

<sup>172</sup> Apart from methodological triangulation (the use of multiple methods, a methodological approach with two or more data collection strategies in the research of the same units and in addressing a research question see e.g., Denzin 1978, 301–304; see also Bloor, Frankland, Thomas & Robson 2001, 12; Cohen & Manion 1989, 269–275; Eskola & Suoranta 1999, 69–71; Laine, Bamberg & Jokinen

phenomena, impacts of VET and of evaluation, of evaluation process and its use, through multiple lenses of various levels (e.g., individual, interpersonal, collective) from various perspectives and standpoints of different multi-stakeholders living in very different environments (urban and rural) in Tanzania. Indeed, I did not aim at creating a linear-form picture of the reality; neither was my target to reveal a singular, pure, universal truth as the traditional researchers representing the positivist paradigm attempt to accomplish by means of objectivity.<sup>173</sup> Thus, several methods used promoted the value of feeding back evaluation findings to local stakeholders, which was essential to this research design, to generate evaluation impacts at the local level. Since there has been a multiplicity of data generation methods used, I shall now present a further and detailed clarification on how each method was used and data generated in the field.<sup>174</sup>

Before travelling to Tanzania, the project site, I began to go through various types of text-based project documents available on MHCC. This background data on the VET centre included project proposals (e.g., project plans); project progress reports (i.e., annual reports, quarterly reports); one project's evaluation report; and project financial records (e.g., budgets, accounting reports, audit reports). I chiefly obtained these documents from the headquarters of Fida in Helsinki, a minority of documents on MHCC and on VETA were only accessible to me once I had reached MHCC in Mwanza in October 2001. These were curriculum lists; statistics on students; announcements; correspondence (letters); articles on MHCC; minutes of meetings of the committee, of the management group, and of teachers held at MHCC; as well as formal documents on VET produced and delivered by VETA.<sup>175</sup>

### 2.1.1 The first field trip

The start of my first field period in Tanzania in 2001 was challenging. After my arrival in Dar es Salaam I was compelled to wait for my research permit for one month in the middle of September 2001. Fortunately, the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology, which was situated in Dar es Salaam, rewarded my

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2007, 24–25; Spicer 2004, 297) and data triangulation (different data sources), Denzin (1978, 295) named two other triangulation types: investigator triangulation (different evaluators, researchers) and theory triangulation (different perspectives to the same data set) (Flick 2006, 389–390; Janesick 2003, 66–67; Yin 2009a, 116).

<sup>173</sup> Denzin & Lincoln 2013, 10; Ellingson 2009

<sup>174</sup> See Flick 2006, 249–250; Yin 2009a, 105.

<sup>175</sup> see e.g., Bhatt 2004, 419; Mason 2006, 103; Simons 2009, 63

persistent efforts and 19 visits by eventually approving the research permit (Appendices 1–2). This permit took seven months, counting from the submission of the first application to the approval of the final permit. Thereafter, the Immigration Office issued me the residence permit (Appendix 3) in October 2001. At long last, I managed to travel to Mwanza with my official permits in the middle of October 2001.

I hired a local research assistant for the research process. Before my field work, I requested MHCC leaders to designate a competent and motivated person from amongst MHCC personnel for performing this evaluation experiment in cooperation with me. They recommended Mr Kacheye, the head and the teacher of the welding and fabrication department of MHCC at that time, to become my research assistant. His nomination and hiring for this duty covered both my Tanzanian field periods (Figure 7.)



**Figure 7.** The research assistant, Mr Kacheye, in the middle, with the researcher in a site visit (Pylvänäinen 2001)

The evaluation process began in Mwanza in October 2001. Soon after my arrival at MHCC, Mr Kacheye and I introduced the purpose and elements of the evaluation experiment to the entire MHCC staff. In this way, we aimed to give a general overview on the whole, forthcoming evaluation process, and encouraged them to take part in evaluation from its initial stages. Then, a pool of possible evaluatees, who could evaluate VET impacts, needed to be defined. Consequently, in October–November 2001, I began to study an enrolment register of former students at



MHCC, where my office was located. We, the leaders of MHCC and my research assistant and I, tried to acquire a pool for the evaluation experiment amongst those who had studied at MHCC between the years 1987–2000. This time span covered the period of the first intake of MHCC in 1987 up to the intake of the year 1999. After this student register reading and searching phase, the final written list included 281 former students, both those who had graduated from MHCC and those who had dropped out; but excluding those from evening courses.

After listing and sorting out the possible respondents, I approached the pool of 281 former students with a letter (Appendix 4). It included a task to write a story (see Appendices 4a and 4b) about experienced changes contributed by utilisation of VET at MHCC, in addition to a background questionnaire (see Appendix 5). By the deadline of November 16<sup>th</sup>, 2001, 72 letters were returned; though late submissions were accepted until the first interviews of former students began. Several excuses for these further letter delays were made. One of the most common problems was related to the delivery of the letters in some places, which took place mostly by post. In addition, some letters were delivered hand to hand.

The unstable political situation after the terrorist attacks in the United States of America in September 2001 might have been reflected in the number of returned letters. In any case, during the very same week, when I sent the letters to the former students of MHCC, the Tanzanian Postal Authority warned people of anthrax threats to the postal system. So, the fear of terrorism also fell on my letters, as the following reply of a former student of MHCC revealed.

I don't want to be sent me any letter by post, because now there is a danger of anthrax ... And if you will send by post, please write your name and address on the back of the envelope.<sup>176</sup>

Indeed, that person demanded that my future communications be conducted by email rather than by a postal letter, or to make my identification clearly recognisable on the envelope.

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<sup>176</sup> WS56, M

**Table 1.** MHCC story writers, their department and sex

Written stories (WS) of former students of MHCC			
Sex			
Department at MHCC	Female (f)	Male (f)	TOTAL (f)
Cooking*	2	0	2
Tailoring	35	2	37
Carpentry and joinery	0	35	35
Welding and fabrication	2	39	41
<b>TOTAL f (%)</b>	<b>39 (33.9%)</b>	<b>76 (66.1%)</b>	<b>115 (100.00%)</b>

\*The cooking department was started in 1987 and closed in 1988, and thus, these students were excluded from TII1<sup>st</sup>s.

The total number of returned letters reached 118, whereupon three letters were eliminated for the following reasons. The first letter returned included the very sad news about the death of one former female student, which had occurred in June 2001. Automatically, her letter was discarded. Two other letters were rejected, the first, due to having the wrong address and the wrong person behind the right name who had never studied at MHCC, and the second, owing to the letter’s double posting. Due to an error on my behalf, this former student received two letters to two different addresses and filled forms in twice. Hence, I read both stories and counted these stories as one case. Thus, the number of accepted questionnaires and written stories decreased from 118 to 115. This represented a response rate of 42.75%. Of these final respondents 33.9% were female writers, as shown in Table 1 above. Next, the definition of the term, evaluation of lived experience, will be briefly dealt with.

Lived experience can consist of two aspects: the lived experience and practice, emphasising respect for the social world and participants’ and stakeholders’ ways of experiencing or judging the program and their ways of investing actions with meanings. This lived experience, the essence of which is shared with others who have also had that experience, can be captured through various techniques. These techniques could include observation taking place in a natural context, studying artifacts, interviews that yield transcripts, or field notes on which an authentic reconstruction could be made.<sup>177</sup>

Typically, the focus of inquiry studying individual lived experiences is on individuals in the qualitative genre and its overall strategies. Then, their experiences are captured by using strategies in which people reveal deep meanings of their experiences in their own words. The case study as a research strategy can be used

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<sup>177</sup> Alvesson & Sköldbërg 2000 in Schwandt & Burgon 2006, 112; Marshall & Rossman 2011, 19–20

when the focus of the inquiry shifts in qualitative research from individuals to society and culture in a group, an organisation, or a program.<sup>178</sup> Considering evaluation, there is a great difference between concepts of quality as experienced and quality as measured. In the quality of experience approach the quality refers to “experience near understanding” including both the subjective and intersubjective meanings that the evaluand attaches to the situations, personal encounters and places as well as their sensitivities. In this case, quality is multifaceted, contested, and never fully represented, and can be explained from personal experience through narratives, constructed from the actions and language of the evaluand by her or himself with, and exemplified by, case study-based evaluations, as done at MHCC.<sup>179</sup> Next, we turn to a consideration of why this biographical method, one of the life history methods with lived experiences (to me, written stories), with the background questionnaire in evaluation, was used.

First, the biographical method eased my immersion as a researcher back into the Tanzanian culture, life-style, and the Swahili language, after being away from Tanzania for three years. Furthermore, reading of these questionnaires and written stories gave me not only an up-to-date but also wider profile, and detailed information on the main target group of my research, the former students of MHCC, their extended families and their settings. Later on, these written stories helped me in setting the participant selection criteria for thematic interviews, and eventually, to select students for those interviews.<sup>180</sup>

On the other hand, this biographical, always interventionist method, as Labov and Waletzky explained,<sup>181</sup> sought to give attention to those who might otherwise be prevented from telling their story or who were denied a voice to speak. One of reasons for my decision to employ this data generation method was the cultural context of my case. First, in Tanzanian society, power distances are large, and power can exist asymmetrically in development practices. Second, this biographical (autobiographies) method, as Labov and Waletzky described, was naturally reflective and evaluative. The former function was composed of the description of past events in their temporal order, while the latter, evaluative function, consisted of referring these events to the present, by making clear what they meant to the participants when the narrative occurred (see footnote 181). This biographical method, above all, enabled former MHCC students to evaluate a given issue while writing something

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<sup>178</sup> Marshall & Rossman 2011, 92–93

<sup>179</sup> Elliot 2009, 407–408; Stake & Schwandt 2006, 404–418

<sup>180</sup> see Denzin 1978, 303–304; Fontana & Frey 1994, 366; Spicer 2004, 302

<sup>181</sup> Labov & Waletzky 1967 in Kohli 1981, 67; see also Vilko 1997, 93–94

about it. In this connection, I reiterated that stakeholders themselves were setting criteria when evaluating VET and changes contributed by it. This took place when the writers formulated statements using a “the scale of values” regarding changes they experienced due to utilisation of VET at MHCC. Again, the former students wrote their stories about how VET contributed to their personal lives.

In the second phase, my local research assistant and I selected participants in thematic interviews. First, the number of possible candidates who had returned their writings by the end of November 2001, reached 107. Second, my research permit allowed me to do my research only in three geographic regions, Mwanza, Shinyanga and Mara (i.e., the Lake Zone of VETA, as seen earlier in Figure 6). As a result, 99 former MHCC students were identified as fulfilling these two criteria. Two former students of the cookery department were also excluded, as the cookery department had not operated since its termination in the year 1988, and we wished to provide input on departments in operation. All in all, the final number of thematic interviewees fell to 97 former students.

I used purposive sampling, also called judgmental sampling, when selecting 11 interviewees from 97 of the former students for thematic interviews. This sampling was non-probability sampling and contrasted with random sampling, in which every unit has an equal probability of being selected for the sample.<sup>182</sup> Patton made the following seven suggestions regarding when to employ purposive sampling in evaluation research. The first reason is to integrate purposively extreme or deviant cases; second, to select typical cases (typical for the average or most cases); third, to integrate only few cases with maximal variation; fourth, purposive sampling can be used for selecting cases with the greatest intensity (e.g., features, processes, experiences etc.); fifth, for choosing critical cases; sixth, for presenting sensitive (e.g., politically) cases; and finally, purposive sampling could be used as a criterion of convenience by seeking cases that are the easiest to be reached under the existing circumstances.<sup>183</sup>

My selection criteria for the purposive sampling was intended to find a large variation among the cases of the former students, but also to select cases which were typical for the average, or most of the cases, to deepen my knowledge about evaluation questions.<sup>184</sup> Again, the sample size and sampling units were to be relevant by having a significant relation to the research topic and being easily available to the

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<sup>182</sup> see Rwegoshora 2006, 120; Tonkiss 2004, 199

<sup>183</sup> see Flick 2006, 130; Patton 2002

<sup>184</sup> see e.g., Miles & Huberman 1994, 28 in Marshall & Rossman 2011, 111

researcher.<sup>185</sup> Regarding these aspects, I invited the interviewees by considering a great deal of variation among the responses on the grounds of their department, gender, place of residence, current employment situation (i.e., in training, unemployed, employed, self-employed), year of enrolment, ethnicity (i.e., tribes), religion, social status, and age group.

Three main channels were used in the recruitment of thematic interviewees. They were personal contacts, letters (Appendix 7) or the telephone. To this end, I visited five homes and four workplaces of former MHCC students within the radius of 280 kilometres during my research period. Interestingly, many more former students would have been willing to come to be interviewed than was possible to accommodate, and indeed, many came to ask me personally if they could participate in the interviews. I had to remind them, as I had done in my letter, that unfortunately only a few could be involved in the interviews and those that were selected based on special criteria set by the researcher.

After recruitment, we made 23 individual thematic interviews for the former students. My research assistant joined in all of them with me. They took place during November and December 2001 and January 2002, and were behind the schedule established in my letter, November 16<sup>th</sup>. This delay was partly caused by the primary work responsibilities of my research assistant as the head teacher and his important role in organising the graduation of the 11<sup>th</sup> course of MHCC. Simultaneously, interviews conducted by the researcher for MHCC staff members in one week, just before their Christmas holidays, also caused delays in our schedule.

The interviews of MHCC students took place in various locations in Tanzania. Six of the interviewees preferred the VET centre MHCC, as the venue. There, I and my research assistant had an opportunity to be assembled with the interviewees in two rooms of the main office building. Though this was usually a fairly quiet facility, naturally not all interruptions could be prohibited. The researcher remunerated these interviewees' travel expenses based on local public transport fares.

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<sup>185</sup> see Rwegoshora 2006, 120; Tonkiss 2004, 199



**Figure 8.** A school construction, the workplace of one MHCC carpentry and joinery graduate interviewed (Pylvänäinen 2001)

The rest of the students chose to be interviewed in their workplaces or in such spaces as in guest houses, church buildings or their offices. Through this selection of space offered, it was possible for these interviewees to talk freely without any disturbance, as Byrne recommended, knowing that the setting in which the interviews are conducted might make a difference.<sup>186</sup> For instance, when carrying out the interviews in former students' workplaces (Figures 8 and 9), we were given a very warm welcome in every case. In addition, I highly appreciated the positive attitudes of the former students' managers towards the research by letting these interviews to be conducted in their office rooms during their working hours. Besides, the directors of these organisations or companies were used to introducing themselves and their activities, production and environment at the beginning or end of our visits. Reciprocally, all the leaders were very interested in hearing more about the research under which these interviews were conducted.

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<sup>186</sup> Byrne 2004, 189



**Figure 9.** A shipbuilding company, the workplace of one MHCC metalwork and fabrication graduate interviewed (Pylvänäinen 2002)

The first of 11 interviewees had three thematic interviews, while the other ten graduates were interviewed only twice — for approximately two hours' duration. The reason for the difference in these interviews was caused by the researcher. First, after the first thematic interview I was more familiar with interviewing itself, the local language and the ways of speaking. Second, in the first interview, only Swahili was used, while in the following interviews, English was spoken also. Then, the research assistant, Mr Kacheye, translated my English questions into Swahili, except for one person, who wanted to be interviewed in English, which saved time.

Each thematic interview required considerable groundwork. I prepared myself in advance for all interviews by reading through the written story of the interviewee in question. Between each interview I also listened to audiotapes of the session and made notes about them to gain deeper understanding of the issues. Normally, I interviewed MHCC graduates during two successive days. In one exception both thematic interviews were carried out in a single day, at the request of the student due to his transport situation.

Each thematic interview followed a clear structure. It began with an introduction. Then, a description of general principles of our discussion, and then information about the use of a tape-recorder and expectations of confidentiality. It was emphasised that all research data will be published anonymously with no names in the report. In addition, the estimated length and numbers of conversations were

described. Further, the participants were encouraged to ask any questions without hesitation or to leave a question posed unanswered if desired.

During the thematic interviews multiple issues based on each graduate's written story were discussed. These participants spoke about their lives and studies before MHCC, and about their extended family and reasons of why they decided to apply for MHCC. They also described studying and living in MHCC by evaluating it. They also evaluated MHCC's teaching, equipment, its whole system and mode by comparing MHCC with other VET centres. Moreover, these interviewees explained their private, present life situation, as well as the previous and current situations of their extended families. Furthermore, they explained the personal, interpersonal and collective socio-economic impacts of VET studies at MHCC and described their workplaces and jobs, as well as their situation in the Tanzanian labour market. In addition, cultural issues were touched upon. Some participants also spoke about their hobbies and hopes for the future.

All told, the thematic interviews went quite smoothly. Most of the interviewees were very talkative. Only one of the participants was suspicious of the use of the tape recorder, but none refused to cooperate with it. I waited for some participants for a few hours. One problematic situation arose when I had an allergic reaction which interrupted an interview suddenly. This demanded we take a 10-minute-long break and change the location of our interview. Some of my notes are included below, translated verbatim from Finnish, for the reader to better understand the data generation process that took place in Tanzania.

My first interview conducted here went well. I had written thematic questions on paper in advance, which I then posed. I needed more information to provide an overall picture about MHCC. This interview session was ok, and an interviewee told openly even about the institution's challenges. I "stuttered" a little bit with the questions and realised that a tape-recorder during the first minutes might make both of us feel nervous, but then we forgot it. All in all, the situation made me feel good, and the session went smoothly. The interviewee [a status of the person] sat behind his table and I behind my separate table. I wore a long, sleeveless dress and covered my shoulders with a long scarf. I have known the person for years which made the interview easier. Our relationship of trust was built during those years when we did work together for this same institution. Two days before we agreed together that this interview will be conducted to be done. So, yesterday I confirmed and checked the matter again. The workers of the institution, really, they have very busy schedules, for a national Trade Test week begins and a lot of material needs to be purchased for it beforehand, for the test has two parts, practice plus theory. (9.11.2001)

We came to the centre [a name of a place] with [names of persons] and now let's get started. More than 280 kilometres behind. We arrived about at 2 pm. Service provided to us was great. Our place of accommodation, a guest house which was booked, was



very good. A message sent about our arrival reached one of our interviewees, but not the other. We had our lunch first, and thereafter we started our first interview. The interviewee [a name] was very frank and talkative. About at 7 pm we finished it [the interview]. Thereafter, we had a dinner: rice and chicken. The service was excellent, the water for washing was heated. New arrangements for the next day were made... The place of the interview was very noisy because children came from a village to look at us through open windows covered only with wire nets. At 7.15 pm the electricity was back and at 10 pm it was cut off again. Then, a generator provided us “mwanga<sup>187</sup>” [light]. (17.12.2001)

Today is December 24th, Christmas Eve. Nobody can believe it. It is raining. It is 2.35 pm. The former interview ought to have been started at 1.30 pm, but an interviewee seems to have faced some challenges in his work, thus I am waiting for the next person by killing my Christmas time. Christmas carols are missing, but it is raining cats and dogs, that is great enough for background music. So quite soon we will go on and work hard. May Christmas “gnomes” see this! (24.12.2001)

We arrived at the centre at 9 am to wait for [a name of an interviewee]. She didn't come. I sat with my research assistant in his house and waited. One other person [a name of a former student] brought his written story and questionnaire. We had a discussion of his life and his carpentry department. We had our morning tea with Yohanna, when Arto [the researcher's husband] also came. And finally, after 11 am [the name of the interviewee] came. The interview went smoothly and well, although I had some difficulties to understand the person's very quick talking style. When returning to the town we gave the interviewee a ride. His “nauli” [transportation fare to MHCC] I had paid earlier. (22.1.2002)

The quotations above, from my research diary written in Tanzania, revealed a series of actions taken during the data generation. They were complex and time-consuming, but interesting as the passages from my journal demonstrated. The challenges and surprises faced during this data generation process illustrated how much flexibility was required from the researcher, along with a positive attitude and tolerance for sudden, unexpected changes.

Apart from 11 graduates, 16 other persons were individually interviewed once. These interviewees represented both MHCC internals and externals. This internals group consisted of three MHCC teachers, one from each department; one representative of another staff member group; as well as three members representing the MHCC management group and two from the committee. Of these seven external interviewees, four were current or former VET authorities. Two of these four worked as the principals of private-owned VET centres and two as employers of the government-owned VETA, one of them being the principal as well. Of these three

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<sup>187</sup> The Swahili term “Mwanga” means light (Abdulla, Halme, Harjula & Pesari-Pajunen 2002, 175).

other external interviewees, two represented parents, while one was the employer of MHCC graduates.

The locations and durations of these 16 interviews varied. Nine of them were conducted at MHCC for which the interviewees' travel expenses were remunerated. Seven persons were interviewed outside of MHCC. Of them, three took place in other VET centres, three in the interviewees' workplaces and one at the participant's home. The length of the thematic interviews varied from 25 minutes to four hours. All the staff and committee members of MHCC as well as of VETA representatives were interviewed by the researcher alone. The research assistant, Mr Kacheye, was present during the employers' and the parents' interviews.

During my first field trip, MHCC staff members asked me to do them a favour by organising a seminar on evaluation as well as on strategic leadership and management together with my husband, Mr Arto Pylvänäinen, who had been the Principal of MHCC from 1991–1996. Their request was fulfilled by organising a 2-day training seminar for the whole MHCC staff and some of its committee members. This first evaluation seminar and workshop with the theme of “Strategic Leading and Management and Evaluation” was held in the classroom of MHCC from December 6<sup>th</sup> — 7<sup>th</sup>, 2001, as the programme in Appendix 6 reveals. The seminar was used as a platform for evaluation capacity development of the locals by familiarising MHCC staff with such concepts as strategic leadership, management and evaluation. This capacity development aimed at supporting evaluation utilisation and local learning in evaluation as well as further development of the VET centre at MHCC, as Huffman, Thomas and Lawrenz stated (see footnote 188). In fact, these scholars emphasised that evaluation capacity could be developed with the assistance of workshops offered by evaluation experts and training institutes. I followed these scholars' statement at MHCC, as quoted below, that it was vital that evaluation experience take place in a social context through real experience within the organisation whose evaluation capacity was being developed.

... tools of evaluation are necessary but not sufficient to develop ECB [evaluation capacity development]. Individuals need to expand their understanding of evaluation ... to develop more sophisticated techniques of evaluation planning and development, and they need real-world experience in evaluation. Furthermore, this expansion of understanding needs to occur in a social context within the organization for the organization to develop.<sup>188</sup>

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<sup>188</sup> Huffman, Thomas & Lawrenz 2008, 361

The training was organised in cooperation with MHCC leadership. It was coached by the researcher and Mr Pylvänäinen and was assisted by the Principal of MHCC, Mr Christopher Mayunga and the Vice Principal of that time, Mr Reuben Jinega. He also interpreted the speaking from English into Swahili. The training proceeded by posing the following questions. A. Why do we (MHCC) exist? B. What is the business idea for MHCC? And C. What are the strengths and weaknesses of MHCC? In this way, plans and activities for MHCC's future could be revised by utilising and learning about the process and results of evaluation.<sup>189</sup> Questions A and B were answered in a whole group discussion coached by Mr Pylvänäinen. For answering question C, four groups were formulated based on such fields as tailoring, metalwork and fabrication, carpentry and joinery, as well as motor vehicles. After one hour's group work session all four groups gathered together back to the main classroom and wrote their answers on the blackboard. Thereafter, the researcher trained the participants about basic principles of evaluation and familiarised them with key evaluation vocabulary and concepts. At the end of the seminar, all 16 seminar participants, were rewarded with certificates, as Figure 10 illustrates.



**Figure 10.** The participants of the first evaluation seminar and workshop held at MHCC with their certificates (Pylvänäinen 2001)

The data generation at the end of the first field trip ended with one group interview held at MHCC in 2002. Instead of a focus group discussion or (small) group

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<sup>189</sup> see Fetterman 2001

discussion, I preferred to call it the group interview when people at MHCC were brought together with the intention of discussing a certain topic with the researcher's facilitation. This group was not only used as a means of feeding early results back to research participants, but also of assisting development of future activities at MHCC as well as utilisation and the process use of evaluation. The perceptions and ideas of the group, could be used as the starting point and act as a catalyst for transformative action and a forum for change at MHCC, since after the group has found its voice this experience may develop an awareness and willingness to act collectively.<sup>190</sup> In addition, interaction between participants could enable them to re-evaluate and reconsider their own understanding of their experiences about VET at MHCC and "to assess its [programme's] impacts ..."<sup>191</sup> as, for instance, Rwegoshora highlights when utilising focus groups after a particular programme. These shared experiences could have contributed to gaining similar perspectives and vision, group knowledge and understanding of standpoints as well changes in thinking. Further along, they can contribute to concrete actions, as well as changes in consciousness.<sup>192</sup> Krueger and Casey's group characteristics were found in the VET case at MHCC as well, "People who possess certain characteristics and provide qualitative data in a focussed discussion to help understand the topic of interest."<sup>193</sup> At MHCC this group interview, whose characteristics are revealed in the next paragraphs, was focussed on impacts of VET, but primarily on evaluation impacts.<sup>194</sup>

At MHCC only one group interview was organised. Compared with other authors' viewpoints about the suitable number of focus groups, based on Morgan's views, I believed that the group participants should have homogeneity in their background but heterogeneity in their attitudes.<sup>195</sup> Due to the small numbers in many homogenous groups at MHCC, one group was formulated by setting the following criteria for this homogenisation. All the participants had to have their own lived experience, either parental, educational, managerial or labour related, regarding MHCC and its VET,<sup>196</sup> and an equal starting point: being somehow "empowered" through earlier reflection and engagement in previous interviewing. With this

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<sup>190</sup> See e.g., Bloor, Frankland, Thomas & Robson 2001, 90, 93–95; Fetterman 2001, 125; Flick 2006, 199–200; Laws, Harper & Marcus 2003, 299; Rwegoshora 2006, 179; Tonkiss 2004, 195

<sup>191</sup> Rwegoshora 2006, 180–181

<sup>192</sup> Collins 2000, 30

<sup>193</sup> Krueger & Casey 2009, 6

<sup>194</sup> Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2001, 62; Krueger & Casey 2009, 9; Tonkiss 2004, 194

<sup>195</sup> Morgan 1988, 46

<sup>196</sup> See e.g., Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2001, 47.

experience the persons involved in the group could have become more powerful as well as made bolder to express and share their ideas. Bearing this in mind, there were only 27 persons who met that criteria and thus could have taken part to this group interview.

Heterogeneity could have challenged the discussion of the MHCC group. For instance, large power asymmetries of the group could have prohibited achieving the desired depth of discussion and might have influenced the generation of data, due to the range of views, meanings, and experiences. Based on my guiding principle, which was supported by Ibáñez as well, through the group participants' recruitment I consciously brought to the session such personal and professional variables as sex, age, profession, and professional experience, which could have motivated different ways of arguing. Ibáñez argued that a strictly homogenous group would not have produced a fruitful discussion or would have produced a completely meaningless discussion, so heterogeneity in the group was also needed.<sup>197</sup>

When deciding the group size, the number of communication channels in a group were considered. Krueger and Casey pointed out that the optimal size of focus groups should be between four and 12 members, while other scholars supported eight to 12 individuals under the direction of the facilitator. In our 11-member-group the number of communication channels were 55, based on the formula  $n*(n-1)/2$ , where  $n$  was the number of people. Hence, the larger group could have prohibited the members' participation in the discussion and made it difficult for the facilitator to control the group, while if the number of group members had been too small (for example, smaller than six), the interaction could have failed.<sup>198</sup>

The group was composed on the grounds of the previous instructions. Representatives of former students, leaders, teachers from each department, employers, committee members, and parents were recruited to join in this cooperation. Some of them were female, some male, some living in rural areas, some in urban areas, some having permanent jobs, some being unemployed, some being Christians while some were Muslims. Finally, the group of 13 persons was called for the interview: four graduates, three MHCC leaders, three teachers from each department of MHCC, two MHCC committee members, and one parent. One of the former students also represented their employer. Due to two staff members

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<sup>197</sup> Bloor, Frankland, Thomas & Robson 2001, 20; Gilfiores & Alonso 1995, 90–91; Ibáñez 1986 in Gilfiores & Alonso 1995, 89

<sup>198</sup> Dreachslin 1999, 227; Gilfiores & Alonso 1995, 90, 92; Krueger & Casey 2009, 2, 6; Morgan 1988; Stewart & Shamdasani 1990 in Race, Hotch & Packer 1994, 731

being on vacation, the final number of group interviewees was 11, with three women and eight men.

All group participants were recruited via an invitation letter (Appendix 8). It included detailed knowledge about the group interview held at MHCC: its time, location, participants, and estimated duration. This letter was handed over by the researcher or the research assistant. The venue of the group interview itself might have had impact on the data collected,<sup>199</sup> therefore, I tried to find a venue where all participants could feel free and at-ease, understanding that there could be no truly neutral place. Bloor, Frankland, Thomas, and Robson recommended that size and noise level of the room, likelihood of interruption, and the accessibility of the venue to participants, were all considered when choosing the venue.<sup>200</sup> The largest classroom at MHCC was utilised, as it was well-prepared and organised for this group gathering. The participants were placed at the roundtable before the interview began.

The group interview at MHCC followed certain steps. These were recommended by scholars such as Gilfiores and Alonso.<sup>201</sup> The session was opened by the researcher thanking all participants for their attendance and briefly talking about the research. Then, the objective of the group interview was explained together with the theme being dealt with, the method of selecting participants, and the need to use a tape recorder. The group session continued by stating the “rules,” or “code of conduct” of the group interview, which had been written on the classroom’s blackboard before the participants arrived.<sup>202</sup> Every participant was invited to speak in turn to offer a first impression about the topic, and to make their comments one by one because of the interview’s recording. Further, all participants could raise their hands to comment or add more, after anyone had finished their 2-minute time allotment.<sup>203</sup>

The group interview was conducted on certain principles, which were explained to the participants, including the principle that all views were welcomed and valuable. It followed then, that no right or wrong answers existed for the evaluation itself or for the research on evaluation. Also, the respondents’ confidentiality and anonymity were addressed, explaining that no names would be revealed in the research report.<sup>204</sup> After that, the length of discussion was restated. All interviewees were also reminded

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<sup>199</sup> Bloor, Frankland, Thomas & Robson 2001, 39; Krueger & Casey 2009, 6

<sup>200</sup> Bloor, Frankland, Thomas & Robson 2001, 33

<sup>201</sup> Gilfiores & Alonso 1995, 94

<sup>202</sup> see Dreachslin 1999, 227

<sup>203</sup> see Gilfiores & Alonso 1995, 94

<sup>204</sup> Laws, Harper & Marcus 2003, 241–242

that the session would be closed in time for travel to the city centre, where the buffet lunch was due to be served.

The group members and facilitators introduced themselves by explaining their former and current relationships with MHCC. Thereafter, the participants were asked to clarify impacts of this MHCC evaluation process on their lives. The group session continued by focussing more deeply on the evaluation of MHCC and its VET. Participants were asked to comment on MHCC's core objective, which was written on big posters hanging on the wall and the blackboard: "In which way has MHCC reached its objective to provide VET via 2-year-long courses to 16–25-year-old Tanzanian youngsters so that they could be employed or could employ themselves?"

The next topic covered the relevance of existing departments at MHCC, and their capability to meet the labour market needs. The following questions were posed: Could present departments (metalwork and fabrication; carpentry and joinery; as well as tailoring) fulfil the needs of the labour market in the Mwanza area? Which department(s) other than previously mentioned ones in MHCC could employ students permanently? In which way could teaching at MHCC help students to be employed or to get self-employment? (For example, in other VET centres in Mwanza, they do Trade Tests after 1 year of studies, but at MHCC they test after studying for two years.) What is your opinion in relation to the age of students, whether it is still a relevant issue to be dealt with? In what ways could MHCC make it possible for those living far away from Mwanza to join in the studies? In what ways could MHCC consider development ideas expressed by different groups concerning MHCC, especially by gender groups, graduates, parents, employers, workers and so forth? Which other issues do you have in your mind to develop and improve VET at MHCC?

The discussion within the group was lively. Its atmosphere was relaxed. The rules set for the group interview were followed quite well. The discussion was well focussed on the given task and group members defended their opinions clearly and effectively. The participants contributed equally, except for one person, who tried to interrupt some others. For this reason, I managed the turns of speaking after the first round. I followed some techniques, mentioned by Tonkiss, to assist the group to stay focussed. These means were a fixed schedule of questions, a topic guide of themes for discussion and a use of various visual clues.<sup>205</sup> I repeated the questions from time to time to ensure that people were focussing on the given topics. Then, after each round I summarised the spoken results from those key notes which I had

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<sup>205</sup> Tonkiss 2004, 194

written down during the round. I also fed back to the interviewees the key results and feedback received from the thematic interviews of MHCC graduates who were not involved in the group interview. In the group session both English and Swahili were used. I used English, which was translated into Swahili by the research assistant, while all group members used Swahili. With Swahili language skills, I needed no translation into English.

The group interview at MHCC lasted three and a half hours, from 9.30 am to 1.00 pm, although it was planned to last from two to three hours. In fact, the session started half an hour late, partly due to terrible heavy rain, and partly due to bad road conditions, which both hampered transportations. Western scholars like Gilflores and Alonso, when referring to the duration for the group interview, recommended that it should last from one and a half hours to two hours maximum.<sup>206</sup> To me, their view clearly referred to a Western life-style and time conception, for during our session no tiredness among the participants was noticed and all the participants, except one, sat in their places the whole session. No disturbances were made during the gathering, even though MHCC leaders, who were typically very busy, were present as well. Presumably, this was due to the very rainy weather and the Christmas holiday of MHCC.

Some incentives were given to the group interviewees. These are commonly used as motivations in market research utilising focus groups.<sup>207</sup> These incentives were provided, as promised in the invitation letter, to avoid absences and delays of the participants. Incentives included the researcher's husband traveling by car to pick up those living along bad roads to ensure their timely arrival. Likewise, travel expenses to the meeting place were covered. Also, refreshments were served during the group session and after the interview the whole group was taken out for a meal at a local restaurant in Mwanza city. Unfortunately, despite these efforts to incentivise commitment, one of the group participants was late two hours without giving any reason for this.

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<sup>206</sup> Gilflores & Alonso 1995

<sup>207</sup> see Tonkiss 2004, 204



### 2.1.2 The second field trip

The primary purpose for my second trip was guided by MHCC staff. They had given me some useful ideas during my first research journey, and also requested I help them understand further possibilities for development of VET services at MHCC via evaluation. Consequently, the process use of evaluation and evaluation utilisation emerged as a leading idea behind this 2-week-long trip. The trip lasted from December 27<sup>th</sup>, 2005, to January 10<sup>th</sup>, 2006. The research process was assisted again by Mr Kacheye, who had been promoted to the position Vice Principal at MHCC. I was accommodated in MHCC's guest house in Nyakato during my visit.

Thematic interviews with four MHCC management group members were carried out, as well as one evaluation seminar and workshop for MHCC staff and committee members. In addition, a feedback questionnaire was delivered to 17 staff members of MHCC at the end of the second field journey. A third thematic interview was conducted with four interviewees at MHCC. These interviews, except for one person's (who wanted to reply in writing and who submitted this to the researcher in January 1st, 2006), were held in the interviewees' offices at MHCC, from December 29<sup>th</sup>–30<sup>th</sup>, 2005. The length of these interviews varied from 90 to 110 minutes. All four interviewees, the members of MHCC staff and its management group, had already been interviewed once during my first research trip in 2001–2002. Before all these third thematic interviews I met each interviewee at least once in private. We discussed generally about their work and MHCC and we set the timetable for these interviews. Then, I delivered each interviewee the transcription of her or his previous thematic interview from 2001 or 2002. By means of reading the former interview, the interviewee was reminded of the earlier situation at MHCC and able to provide a comparison against the present.

The third thematic interview concentrated on the evaluation of development that had taken place between 2001 and 2006 at MHCC. The persons engaged were asked to focus on a new set of questions, while reading through their earlier interview forms from the years 2001 and 2002. First, they were asked to describe the positive and negative changes at MHCC since the researcher's last interview to date. Second, they were encouraged to express the current strengths and weaknesses of MHCC. And finally, they were advised to describe the worth of the evaluation experiment for their work and MHCC as well.

The second evaluation seminar and workshop held at MHCC in 2006 focussed on empowerment evaluation (Figure 11). It was used for building capacity to amend and update the vision as well as the mission of MHCC and carry out evaluative

activities. The seminar participants were trained and facilitated to be familiar with empowerment evaluation and its three typical steps.<sup>208</sup>



**Figure 11.** The participants of the second evaluation seminar and workshop held at MHCC in 2006 (Pylvänäinen 2006)

The 10-hour-long empowerment evaluation seminar and workshop was held in the biggest classroom of MHCC on Monday January 2, 2006. This session was organised for MHCC staff and committee members in cooperation with the leadership of MHCC.<sup>209</sup> The Principal of MHCC delivered invitations for the workshop orally or via SMS to 23 persons, including three committee members, four management group members, five teachers, six craft persons, four guards, and one cook. Of these 23 people, 21 engaged in the activity (Figure 11). Apart from the researcher, the seminar was facilitated by the previous Principal of MHCC and the current Principal of Mänttä Regional VET Centre, Mr Pylvänäinen; the current Principal of MHCC, my research assistant, Mr Kacheye as well as by the English teacher of MHCC, who coded the replies in English (Figure 12), while the research assistant translated the facilitators' introductions from English into Swahili.

The seminar started with Mr Pylvänäinen. The workshop participants were reminded about the first evaluation seminar and workshop held in 2001 and about the vision and the mission set at that time for MHCC. Then, the purpose and the

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<sup>208</sup> see Fetterman 1996, 18–24; 1997, 383–384; 1999, 16–19; 2001, 5–6, 23–27, 29–33

<sup>209</sup> See Fetterman 1994b; 1999; 2001.

means of empowerment evaluation were introduced by the researcher and her assistant. Thereafter, the first empowerment evaluation step, as Fetterman illustrated, was taken by stating and defining the programme's mission and vision. The second step involved determining where the programme stood by evaluating its most important activities. These efforts (readable in Chapter 4.4.1), which had an essential role in the functioning of the programme or the project, were identified and rated to figure out the VET programme's strengths and weaknesses. After passing these phases, the prioritised list of activities meriting evaluation was formed and rated.<sup>210</sup> Finally, in the third step, MHCC's future was concentrated on by setting goals, choosing strategies to achieve these targets, and deciding ways to monitor the desired progress. Special thanks were addressed to MHCC committee members in the closing phase of the process, owing to their voluntary participation and their clear commitment made to advance MHCC, the institution and its VET services. All participants were also encouraged to continue the further development of other activities of MHCC which were left out of the demonstration of an empowerment evaluation experiment, in the future.



**Figure 12.** The empowerment evaluation seminar held at MHCC in 2006 (Pylvänäinen 2006)

The last data generation method used during this trip was a feedback questionnaire. In this questionnaire two open-ended questions were posed to estimate the worth of evaluation from different perspectives. They were: 1. What was the meaning of

<sup>210</sup> see Fetterman 1996, 18–24; 1997, 383–384; 1999, 16–19; 2001, 5–6, 23–27, 29–33

the evaluation seminar (i.e., January 2, 2006) for you, your work, and the centre? 2. Please also explain if there was no meaning. These forms were delivered to all seminar participants, viz. to MHCC personnel and its committee members, either by the researcher or the research assistant, with instructions to be given back by January 16, 2006. 17 answers were received: 14 were returned to the researcher in Tanzania and three were mailed to Finland in March 2006.

## 2.2 A standpoint taken on knowledge construction and its validation linked to evaluation use and its impacts

In this section, the standpoint and roles of the researcher, taken consciously, are addressed and revealed. In addition, the evaluation factor is taken into closer consideration. I report how the standpoint taken by the evaluator (reflected in power exertion, knowledge construction of the evaluation and in the researcher's roles), can have influence on evaluation use and evaluation impacts. The standpoint and the evaluation paradigm chosen will be reflected strongly not only in why, how, when, by whom and to whom evaluation is carried out in the field, but even more so, in which ways evaluation activities are developed and utilised by its stakeholders in an organisation.

The four dominant issues said to have impact on an evaluator's role (also called an identity<sup>211</sup>), as reported based on the findings of current evaluation literature include: the evaluation methods and methodologies chosen;<sup>212</sup> the evaluation models chosen;<sup>213</sup> the evaluator's relationship with stakeholders;<sup>214</sup> and situational questions.<sup>215</sup><sup>216</sup> In fact, several researchers have studied the role of the evaluator, to which we turn now.

Stern stressed that the evaluation paradigm has an impact on the role of evaluator.<sup>217</sup> On closer examination "A paradigm is equivalent to the 'intellectual

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<sup>211</sup> Ryan-Schwandt 2002 in Abma 2006, 187

<sup>212</sup> Mark 2002; Noblitt & Eaker 1987; Weiss 1998

<sup>213</sup> Fetterman, Kaftarian & Wandersman 1996; House 1993; Mark, Henry & Julnes 2000; Mertens 2002; Segerholm 2002; Torres & Preskill 1997

<sup>214</sup> Cartland, Ruch-Ross, Mason & Donohue 2008; Fetterman, Kaftarian & Wandersman 1996; Mark 2002; Mertens 2002; Patton 1997, 103; 2007

<sup>215</sup> Morabito 2002; Patton 2002

<sup>216</sup> Skolits, Morrow & Burr 2009, 277

<sup>217</sup> Stern 2004, 19

ideology' of an evaluator,"<sup>218</sup> as Bhola stated. Creative ideologies or belief systems that determine the thinking and methodological behaviours of evaluators, such as the nature of reality, are called paradigms of evaluation, by scholars such as Patton, Bhola, Guba and Lincoln.<sup>219</sup> To other researchers these are known as evaluation traditions.<sup>220</sup> In brief, the paradigm responds to three basic questions, which are ontological, epistemological and methodological in nature. Remarkably, these are the same issues which have impact on the key question posed in this research — the reality of how evaluations are used. Simply put, the ontological questions ask: "What is the form and nature of reality?" and "What kind of being is the human being?" while the epistemological question deals with "What is the nature of the relationship between the knower (inquirer, observer) to the known (or knowable, observed)?" The methodological question asks: "How should the inquirer go about acquiring knowledge?" as Guba and Lincoln put it.<sup>221</sup>

Regarding evaluation, two very different and at some point, conflicting, paradigms have penetrated it. Guba and Lincoln contrasted these basic belief systems of the conventional (also called the positivist, logical-positivist or scientific paradigm), with the constructivist paradigm (often called naturalistic, hermeneutical, phenomenological, authentic, or interpretive paradigm). However, later they added the post positivist and critical theory paradigms.<sup>222</sup> For example, in Alkin's evaluation tree model, evaluation paradigms such as the post positivist, pragmatic, constructivist, and transformative ones were categorised.<sup>223</sup> Patton identified two paradigm groups instead: "the quantitative/experimental paradigm" and "the qualitative/naturalistic paradigm", while to Bhola, those basic evaluation paradigms are "the rationalistic evaluation paradigm", used as a substitute for logical positivist approaches to evaluation, and its contrary, "the naturalistic evaluation paradigm." To Edelenbos and van Buuren these paradigms are "the mono-centric approach," referring to positivism, and "the pluricentric evaluation approach", meaning constructivism, while Schwandt calls them "technocratic" and "human-centred knowledge systems" respectively. For Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein and Cousins, this

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<sup>218</sup> Bhola 1990, 303

<sup>219</sup> Bhola 1990, 18, 27–29; Guba 1990, 18; Guba & Lincoln 1989, 80, 83–84; 1994, 112; Patton 1997, 267, 269–273

<sup>220</sup> Carden 2000, 175; Edelenbos & van Buuren 2005, 593; Leeuw & Furubo 2008, 160; Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein & Cousins 2009, 193–194, 202–203; Schwandt 1994, 128; 2009, 28–29

<sup>221</sup> Christie & Fleischer 2010, 327; Denzin & Lincoln 2013, 11, 27; Guba 1990, 18; Guba & Lincoln 1989, 83–90; 1994, 108; Lincoln & Guba 1985, 28; Shaw 1999, 38, 44

<sup>222</sup> Guba 1990, 18; Guba & Lincoln 1989, 80, 83–84; 1994, 112

<sup>223</sup> Christie & Alkin 2013; Mertens & Wilson 2012, 160

contradicting dichotomy of evaluation approaches, made in the same order as above, included such approaches as “structural” and “human agency.”<sup>224</sup>

Stern’s argument was substantiated by Noblit and Eaker, who saw that an evaluator’s role in the objectivist approach of positivism was to pursue the existence of an underlying reality that leads an evaluator to take a credible expert role; whereas the tasks of an evaluator applying the constructivist approach included collection and reporting of different, even contradictory, constructions of what is revealed.<sup>225</sup> Patton found that the evaluator’s role is dependent on an evaluation purpose, conditions of the evaluation, as well as the evaluator’s personal skills, knowledge, style, values, and ethics.<sup>226</sup> To Skolits, Morrow, and Burr the evaluator role is based on evaluation activity that sets demands for the role taken by the evaluator.<sup>227</sup> Likewise, the results of Fleischer and Christie’s study among 1047 evaluators of the American Evaluation Association in 2006 confirmed that the evaluation approach used had impact on the roles of the evaluator.<sup>228</sup> I would say the opposite is also true, that the standpoint, paradigm or role taken by an evaluator affects the choice of evaluation approach adopted.

Most importantly from this research on viewpoints, the evaluator’s standpoint and paradigm used have an immense influence on evaluation use. This was illustrated, for instance, by Shulha and Cousins’s review and synthesis of literature published between the years 1986 and 1996 on evaluation use.<sup>229</sup> These scholars found that this use was highly dependent on the evaluator’s role.<sup>230</sup> Hence, I allude to Alkin and Taut,<sup>231</sup> by combining the vital role of the evaluator with their findings about such human, context and evaluation factors, which have influence on evaluation use and which to me can be seen in evaluation impacts as well.

*Evaluation, power and politics are intertwined in evaluation and its use.* Evaluation generally has a policy function and serves the needs of quality assurance and

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<sup>224</sup> Bholá 1990, 18, 27–29; Carden 2000, 175; Edelenbos & van Buuren 2005, 593; Leeuw & Furubo 2008, 160; Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein & Cousins 2009, 193–194, 202–203; Patton 1997, 267, 269–273; Schwandt 1994, 128; 2009, 28–29

<sup>225</sup> Hopson 2002; Noblit & Eaker 1987; Skolits, Morrow & Burr 2009, 277; Stern 2004, 19; Stufflebeam & Shinkfield 2007, 70

<sup>226</sup> Patton 2007

<sup>227</sup> Skolits, Morrow & Burr 2009, 280–281

<sup>228</sup> Fleischer & Christie 2009, 172

<sup>229</sup> Cousins & Leithwood 1986 in Shulha & Cousins 1997

<sup>230</sup> Johnson, Greenseid, Toal, King, Lawrenz & Volkov 2009, 381–382

<sup>231</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003, 4

improvement.<sup>232</sup> It is an essential part of policy.<sup>233</sup> Its political nature is manifested in various ways, as follows. First, programmes and policies (typical targets of evaluation), are creatures of political decisions. Second, evaluation results and reports enter the political arena, and thus, require political attention. There are several options for how evaluation findings could be utilised. Weiss initially identified four ways: instrumental, conceptual, persuasive (or a legitimised), and symbolic.<sup>234</sup> To the categorisation of Preskill — instrumental, conceptual-enlightenment-knowledge, and political-symbolic-persuasive — Carlsson added on the two more possibilities: the first is a ritual use of evaluation and the second one is evaluation non-use.<sup>235</sup> Third, politics is understood without being stated directly in evaluation.<sup>236</sup> Again, a need for changes and targets for action derived from people's needs become the focus for evaluation.<sup>237</sup>

Development evaluation is always a political action. This is reflected both in development aid and its evaluation. In this process power is intertwined and exercised by someone depending on a prioritised standpoint. All things considered, evaluation is still predicted to become more politically sophisticated and important to quality improvement.<sup>238</sup>

We have heard slogans such as “Knowledge is power,” many times. In evaluation generally, as in its utilisation, similarly the question is about power. This appears to hold true in development evaluation, in which such issues as knowledge, knowing and location of power are naturally intertwined, for evaluation findings as well as evaluation processes can influence people's lives, livelihoods and positions. To Aragón and Glenzer, power “flows through language, symbolism, economic policies and statutes, educational institutions, and social networks,”<sup>239</sup> while Patricia Hill Collins, one of the representatives of the standpoint theory, said “Power routinely claims that it has a monopoly on the truth.”<sup>240</sup> Evaluation serves as an important and very powerful instrument to generate empirical knowledge for verifying this “truth,”

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<sup>232</sup> Descy & Tessaring 2005; Laukkanen 1998, 40; Silvennoinen 2008, 3

<sup>233</sup> Laukkanen 1998, 40

<sup>234</sup> Weiss 1998, 23–24

<sup>235</sup> Carlsson 2000, 121; Preskill 2004, 345

<sup>236</sup> Shaw 1999, 28

<sup>237</sup> Raudasoja 2005, 58; Worthen 2001, 410–411

<sup>238</sup> Conlin & Stirrat 2008, 201; Descy & Tessaring 2005; Guba & Lincoln 1989, 253–255; Laukkanen 1998, 40; Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein & Cousins 2009, 192–193; Raivola 2000, 101; Raudasoja 2005, 58; Shaw 1999, 28; Silvennoinen 2008, 3; Weiss 1993, 94; Worthen 2001, 410–411

<sup>239</sup> Aragón & Glenzer 2017, 4

<sup>240</sup> Collins 2013, 37; see e.g., Guijt & Roche 2014, 49

to achieve guidance and compliance, as well as to transfer “this truth” into policies as well as practices.<sup>241</sup> Next, a standpoint theory itself is briefly introduced, mainly by giving space for the ideas of one of its theorists, the sociologist Patricia Hill Collins, who has also studied the overall organisation of power as well as the intellectual activism in society.<sup>242</sup> Then, views of the Norwegian scholar Steinar Kvale, on how evaluation is knowledge construction, are utilised.

The standpoint theory focuses on a quality as well as probability of knowledge and knowing, understanding that all research is standpoint-bound. This conscious standpoint taken is not tied up with objectivity but is an attempt to address asymmetrical power by specifying a relation to power from the standpoint of the less powerful. This social theory understands that group location in hierarchical power relations challenges individuals in those groups.<sup>243</sup>

Collins illustrated how power is organised in the society with a matrix of four domains. To her, structural, disciplinary, hegemonic, and interpersonal domains construct a power system through which the system of oppression works. The structural domain of power includes such social structures as laws, polity, religion, media, labor markets, and the economy, which organises the power relations, while the disciplinary domain refers to bureaucratic and hierarchical organisations and techniques that are for controlling and organising human power by means of rules, positions of authorities, protocols, rationalisation and routinisation. To Collins, hegemonic power includes a cultural sphere with its ideologies and consciousness; it is “a form or mode of social organization that uses ideas and ideology to absorb and thereby depoliticize oppressed groups’ dissent. Alternatively, the diffusion of power throughout the social system where multiple groups police one another and suppress one another’s dissent.”<sup>244</sup> The fourth power domain is the interpersonal domain, which touches on our everyday relationships and social interactions. For example, to Collins, it is just a hegemonic domain which legitimates oppression. This appears through language we use or values we hold.<sup>245</sup>

Turning to Kvale, he proved in educational evaluation that the common and valid knowledge in a discipline and in a culture reflects on evaluation, and vice versa. When deliberating on the topic of power of knowledge, indeed, we must admit frankly that we are living in an era where that knowledge is, as Kvale put, something which is

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<sup>241</sup> Berlage & Stokke 1992, 2; Descy & Tessaring 2005, 21; House 1993, 1

<sup>242</sup> Collins 2000; 2013; Kvale 1995

<sup>243</sup> Collins 2000, 299

<sup>244</sup> Collins 2000, 299

<sup>245</sup> Collins 2000, 270–286



quantifiable, measurable, comparable, and commensurable. Kvale used the term “a new Western intellectual and economical neocolonisation”<sup>246</sup> to refer to cross-cultural evaluations supported by bankers (e.g., the World Bank) or other Western funding agencies in the educational sector. To him there were contrasting discourses for how to legitimate knowledge: either based on universalisation of knowledge with economical performativity and performance-efficiency or with the local, communicational interaction, linguistic practices, and narratives, as seen later in the Tanzanian education case in Chapter 4.1. Then, to Kvale, universal commensurability measured by standardised and technological evaluation systems as well as cross-national comparative procedures with a technological simplification of knowledge to facts and rules, are used as foundations of valid knowledge, but local narratives and discourses with national differences of cultural interpretations and controversial values as sources for legitimization of knowledge are forgotten.<sup>247</sup>

### 2.2.1 Criticism: The donor hegemony leads to evaluation non-use locally by invalidating the locals’ knowledge and their learning

Evaluation use and impacts, knowledge construction and evaluative learning are intersected and intertwined in the standpoint taken. It follows that due to the evaluation paradigm favoured by the donors, and despite the rhetoric dealing with evaluation utility and learning, the use of social forums, interaction, communication and contacts with local stakeholders has often remained ignored or forgotten. Furthermore, this reality coloured strongly with the use of external evaluators prevents local stakeholders from participating in and learning about evaluation.<sup>248</sup>

Borrowing ideas from Alkin and Taut, as well as Collins, we turn now to look more closely at the context and evaluation factors, that is, the historical, disciplinary, structural, and methodological perspectives that have contributed towards insufficient evaluation use in the development field. In the reminder of this discussion about evaluation use, the context factor can be understood as referring to the context of an evaluation and its surroundings, which currently dominates the discourse regarding development evaluations (i.e., political and organisational background, program-specific features and administrative factors influencing in). Conversely, the evaluation factor puts emphasis on elements such as how evaluation

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<sup>246</sup> Kvale 1995, 13–14, 18

<sup>247</sup> Kvale 1995, 13–14, 17–18

<sup>248</sup> Kuusela & Ylönen 2013, 149–150

is carried out, evaluation ethics, design and data collection methods, as well as the quality of outcome information provided by the evaluation.<sup>249</sup> Also, the disciplinary and hegemonic domains of development evaluations, based on Collins's power domains, are criticised. The disciplinary domain of power refers to institutionalised evaluation systems of development evaluation, while the hegemonic domain can be observed in the specialised vocabulary of development evaluation jargon present in manuals and instructions, and with evaluation systems that over-emphasise economic values, control as evaluation purpose, summative, hard and quantifiable methods, historical time-frame, external agents, and utilisation of evaluation findings.<sup>250</sup>

*The short history of development evaluation indicates that its theoretical models and the methodological solutions used need to be refreshed if local evaluation impacts are desired.* Evaluation is not a monoculture, rather evaluation knowledge is divided into narrow segments inside specific expertises or scientific fields.<sup>251</sup> Evaluation diversity is supported by Temmes, to whom "all important sectors like education, foreign aid, health sector, and so forth, have their own evaluation practices."<sup>252</sup> We cannot speak about one history of evaluation, but rather about multiple histories depending upon the discipline and domain of evaluation work, as scholars such as Mark, Greene and Shaw explained. The multiplicity of evaluation histories is coloured with geographical factors, different governments, and social and economic aspirations, contested political ideologies as well as plural social and cultural forces which all influence evaluation.<sup>253</sup>

In Table 2, created by the researcher, short histories of various evaluation domains are outlined. The summing-up was based on findings made by development scholars such as Conlin and Stirrat; Cracknell; Picciotto; Rebien; education scholars Guba and Lincoln; Mark *et al.* as well as Vedung.<sup>254</sup> This was created despite Sasaki's statement regarding the lack of a comprehensive, global history of development evaluation, and leveraged some aid agencies' recorded histories.<sup>255</sup> This

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<sup>249</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003, 4; Taut & Alkin 2003, 263

<sup>250</sup> Collins 2000, 270–286, 299

<sup>251</sup> Temmes 2004, 87

<sup>252</sup> Temmes 2004, 87

<sup>253</sup> Mark, Greene & Shaw 2006, 9

<sup>254</sup> Conlin & Stirrat 2008; Cracknell 2000; Guba & Lincoln 1989; Mark, Greene & Shaw 2006, 9; Picciotto 2003; 2007; Rebien 1997, 445–447; Vedung 2010, 268–276

<sup>255</sup> Cases in point are the following authors: Cracknell (2000) with evaluation on aid evaluation of the United Kingdom and the World Bank (2003); Clapp-Wincek and Blue (2001) on the United States Agency for International Development; Beurden and Gewald (2004) on the Dutch Aid, as well as

transdisciplinary summary reveals first, that education is assumed to have the longest and the most advanced development in its evaluation, thus, it could be used as an obvious example for learning due to its more meritoriously developed and persistent history (compared to development evaluation). Second, it encourages the development field to utilise more multidisciplinary approaches, to develop its evaluation theories, methodologies and methods as done in educational evaluation. Third, it shows the stagnation of development evaluation, a view that aligns with suggestions made, by the Danish evaluator and scholar on development evaluation Claus C. Rebien, and the former head of the evaluation unit of the British Overseas Development Administration,<sup>256</sup> as well as with the former chairman of the Expert Group on Aid Evaluation<sup>257</sup> Basil E. Cracknell. Cracknell argued that the aid community has adopted an experience from evaluation theory and practice from the general evaluation discipline only to a limited degree. In Cracknell's view, aid agencies still have insufficient capacities to be used for theory, methods, or methodologies development, even if there is growing academic interest being shown toward the evaluation field at a theoretical level. Likewise, Rebien had already noticed in the late 1990s that aid evaluation had remained methodologically and theoretically in a static position, "left in vacuum," over the past 20 to 25 years with little interest shown in its theoretical or methodological questions.<sup>258</sup> Rebien underlined this developmental delay in the following way:

Aid evaluation can, therefore, benefit considerably from an intensifying exchange of experience and knowledge with the evaluation discipline in general ... who are involved with aid evaluations – either commissioning them, undertaking them, or using them – need to have a thorough grounding in the general evaluation literature.<sup>259</sup>

In Table 2, we look in detail at the systems of how development evaluation knowledge is validated and for what purposes it is used. There are specific factors which have a decisive influence on deficient evaluation impacts. Kvale, whose comments originally applied to educational evaluation, emphasised that a loss of

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Führer (1996) with the general history of aid activities of the DAC, as well as Sasaki (2006) on the Japanese aid (in Sasaki 2006, 61–62, 87; 2008, 10, 124–125).

<sup>256</sup> Since 1997 called the Department for International Development (DFID) (Dabelstein 2003, 369; Rebien 1997, 446).

<sup>257</sup> Earlier called the Working Group, now known as the Network on Development Evaluation (Dabelstein 2003, 369; Rebien 1997, 446).

<sup>258</sup> Cracknell 1988 in Rebien 1997, 438–439, 446; Rebien 1997, 438–439

<sup>259</sup> Rebien 1997, 456–457

authoritative values and of valid knowledge have shifted focus from discussions of the truth and the value of the knowledge taught, to concepts, methods and techniques of evaluating the knowledge in development evaluation as well. This attempt was targeted at gaining a compensatory legitimation for the crumbling knowledge content resulting from objective measurements used in evaluation. For this purpose, our focus has shifted to evaluation techniques used to uphold a belief in the objectivity of the knowledge measured.<sup>260</sup> Hence, more international comparisons of outcomes are required to gain scientific rationality and respectability. “The language game of performativity reigns,”<sup>261</sup> as Kvale has said. He continued that “The economic discourse of performativity and accountability replaces in education the cultural discourse of knowledge and truth.”<sup>262</sup> To me, this tendency is reflected in local development evaluation impacts and evaluation use very negatively, as revealed in the next section.

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<sup>260</sup> Kvale 1995, 14

<sup>261</sup> Kvale 1995, 15

<sup>262</sup> Kvale 1995, 15

Table 2. Various histories of some evaluation domains summarised by the researcher

EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION				EVALUATION		DEVELOPMENT EVALUATION		
Decade / period	Evaluation generations/ periods	Role of evaluator or technician	Purpose of evaluation	Evaluation waves	Characteristics of waves	Evaluation phases	Key features of evaluation and development aid	Main methods
before 1930s	1st evaluation generation: measurement generation Pre-Tylerian	Technician	Testing (e.g., tests of students' achievements or admission, school rankings)					
1940-1945	2nd evaluation generation: description generation Tylerian Age of Innocence	Descriptor	Description (describe patterns of strengths and weaknesses) to stated objectives					
1946-1957	3rd evaluation generation: judgement generation	Judge	Judgement and worth (performance measurement, standard-based evaluations)	1st wave: science-driven wave	Experimental evaluations (two-group experiments) conducted by academic evaluators; means-ends rationality	Phase One: early development	Last, "wrap-up" phase of the project cycle More interest in economic project appraisals than evaluation	Use of LFA launched Economic appraisals Experimental and quasi-experimental designs
1970-1979	4th evaluation generation: negotiation generation	Negotiator	Negotiation (claims, concerns, issues)	2nd wave: dialogue-oriented wave	Stakeholder-oriented: emphasis on participatory and non-experimental evaluation: activating all stakeholders of an intervention in evaluation dialogues and discussions			
1980-1984	Age of Realism	Evaluation industry	Evaluation industry	3rd wave: neo-liberal wave	Customer-oriented evaluation: based on New Public Management; results-based accountability and value for money	Phase Two: explosion of interest	Institutionalisation of evaluation Establishment of DAC's Expert Group on Aid Evaluation WB's leading role Multi-donor cooperation began	Interest in accountability, experimental designs
1985-1988	Age of Professionalism	Distinct profession	Distinct profession			Phase Three: coming of age	Increasing professionalism Project Cycle Management system emphasised	Evaluation of long-term impacts and effectiveness of aid, experiments designs Achievements of objectives measured by mandatory system, LFA
1989-1996	Age of Global and Multi-disciplinary Expansion	Evaluation societies, programmes (e.g., PhD)	Evaluation societies, programmes (e.g., PhD)			Phase Four: evaluation at the crossroads	Aid agencies' acknowledged evaluation needs and objectives, evaluation criteria set by DAC (i.e., relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, impact, and sustainability), the use of Project Cycle Management (European Union & Japan) Insufficient resources allocation to evaluation units, insufficient capacity to develop its theory, methodologies and methods, despite interest in academia Shift from projects to sectors and programmes (Moved back to role of state) Shift from donor-dominated aid to partnership relationships, to new themes (e.g., poverty-reduction, human rights, good governance, community empowerment) and new aid modalities (SWAFs, budget support) Need to strengthen evaluation capacities of partners in developing countries	Shift from project management and LFA to stakeholder analyses and participatory approaches Interest in learning Challenges for evaluation methods, results-based ones, sector programme evaluation, evidence-based evaluation

*Validation of evaluation knowledge through the disciplinary domain of power in development evaluation systems.* When looking at phases in institutionalisation of development evaluation in Table 2, we should simultaneously deal with domains of power, identified by Collins. The disciplinary domain of power, which refers to bureaucratic and hierarchical organisations established and techniques employed for controlling and organising human power by means of rules, positions of authorities, protocols, rationalisation and routinisation,<sup>263</sup> took place during the second phase (1979–1984) of Cracknell’s three developmental phases in the history of development evaluation. During this time, aid evaluation became popular and was institutionalised.<sup>264</sup>

Consistent with Cracknell, Segone found three stages in the evolution of development evaluation, and similarly, he highlights that the second generation (the 1980s) emphasised results during which time evaluation was used for transparency and accountability purposes in institutionalised evaluation units.<sup>265</sup> Rebien later added a fourth phase called “aid-evaluation at the crossroads,”<sup>266</sup> which Cracknell later approved of as well.<sup>267</sup> Likewise, Sasaki discovered that in the late 1970s a few donors began to establish their own evaluation units and departments, even when development activities had already started in the 1940s.<sup>268</sup> Segone’s findings were congruent with the results of Sasaki, who studied more than 50 aid agencies and their aid evaluation histories in 2006.<sup>269</sup>

In the 1980s there was the neo-liberal wave, as findings by the Swedish evaluation scholar Evert Vedung, have confirmed. Vedung identified a 4-wave-shaped development in Swedish evaluation thinking and practices (Table 2).<sup>270</sup> His views were supported strongly by scholars such as Cracknell, Rebien, Sasaki, and Segone as well.<sup>271</sup> This New Public Management (NPM) movement brought evaluative actions into sharp focus and paved the way for the use and implementation of evaluations and assessments by management in various organisations.<sup>272</sup> This wave,

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<sup>263</sup> Collins 2000, 270–286

<sup>264</sup> Berlage & Stokke 1992, 2; Cracknell 2000, 40; Rebien 1997, 446

<sup>265</sup> Cracknell 2000, 40; Segone 2006, 9

<sup>266</sup> Cracknell 2000, 39–49; Rebien 1997, 446

<sup>267</sup> Cracknell 2000, 40

<sup>268</sup> Berlage & Stokke 1992, 2; Degnbol-Martinussen & Engberg-Pedersen 2003, 217; Hjertholm & White 2000, 81; Jahoda & Barnitz 1995 in Rebien 1997; Rebien 1997, 438; Sasaki 2006, 56, 61–62; 2008, 11–12

<sup>269</sup> Sasaki 2006, 56, 61–62; 2008, 11–12; Segone 2006, 9

<sup>270</sup> Vedung 2010

<sup>271</sup> Cracknell 2000; Rebien 1997; Sasaki 2006; 2008; Segone 2006; Vedung 2010

<sup>272</sup> Hansson 2006, 161

apart from an enormous growth in the number of evaluations, was also linked to increasing managerialism, deregulation, decentralisation, growing numbers of public–private partnerships, considerable interest in marketisation, an increasing tendency towards privatisation, the trend towards competitive tendering, and general changes in new forms of regulation.<sup>273</sup> Along with this movement concepts such as “value for money,” performance measurement, results-based management, accountability, effectiveness and efficiency have all gained in popularity. At that time, attention was paid to on internal control based on auditing systems; reducing the use of public resources and the control of public sector; as well as on restricting the size of government and public administration.<sup>274</sup>

In those days (during the third wave) the oil price shock caused drastic cuts in aid funds and pushed donors to find alternative means to optimise the use of restricted funds through evaluation.<sup>275</sup> As a result, the public and government became more interested in acquiring knowledge on the accountability of aid funds, and for this purpose aid agencies began to set up separate monitoring and evaluation units.<sup>276</sup> Above all, increasing demands for quality, competence, results, impacts, openness, transparency, and accountability of, as well as rapid changes and diversification of development services created by public funds, explained the need for a more sustained and coordinated approach to evaluation, even systems of evaluation, in addition to evaluations carried out at international, national, regional, and local levels.<sup>277</sup> By the end of this period, evaluations of development aid had expanded so intensively that all larger bi-and multilateral aid agencies had their own evaluation units with a policy, strategy, procedures, and evaluation programmes.<sup>278</sup> Today they are called “systems of evaluations.”<sup>279</sup> However, only a few of the larger NGOs have institutionalised these systems for their evaluation practices.<sup>280</sup>

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<sup>273</sup> Mark 2009, 63; Ryan & Feller 2009, 173

<sup>274</sup> Abma & Noordegraaf 2003, 285; Dahler-Larsen 2006, 147; Forss, Kruse, Taut & Tenden 2006, 128; Hansson 2006, 161; Leeuw & Furubo 2008, 162; Sasaki 2006, 67; 2008, 15; Temmes 2004, 86–87

<sup>275</sup> Cracknell 2000, 44

<sup>276</sup> Rebien 1997, 446. For instance, the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland established its separate monitoring and evaluation unit in 1993 (Koponen & Mattila-Wiro 1996, 6), called the Evaluation of Development Co-operation (EVA-11) (OECD-DAC 2009, 60–61).

<sup>277</sup> See. e.g., Descy & Tessaring 2005; Laukkanen 1998, 44–45; New Directions in Educational Evaluation 2005, 3; Stern 2004.

<sup>278</sup> Forss, Cracknell & Samset 1994, 577; Rebien 1997, 438; Schaumburg-Müller 2005, 207

<sup>279</sup> Leeuw & Furubo 2008, 159–160

<sup>280</sup> Ahonen 2015, 319; Armytage 2011

Evaluation institutionalisation in the development realm was demonstrated by the introduction of some very significant operators, to me, “knowledge holders and owners” or in Collins’s words “[through] the disciplinary domain of power.”<sup>281</sup> For example, the DAC Expert Group<sup>282</sup> on Aid Evaluation was introduced in 1982.<sup>283</sup> Multi-donor cooperation soon began in the development field. Since then aid activities undertaken by OECD countries have included evaluation as an integral part of most aid agencies’ operational practices and the DAC has guided the evaluation work of these agencies with several manuals and joint guidelines for evaluation carried out in DAC countries.<sup>284</sup> During this phase, the World Bank took the leading role in trying to develop evaluation work in developing countries, while development banks were developing their own evaluation systems.<sup>285</sup>

In the development field, evaluation knowledge has been taken control of by a virtual monopoly consisting of the funding agencies and the national agencies administering the programmes being evaluated, whether by international or national evaluation consultants or researchers. Osvaldo Feinstein and Tony Beck termed their multiplicity “development evaluation architecture.”<sup>286</sup> Typical actors supporting development evaluators include the DAC Network on Development Evaluation; the United Nations Evaluation Group; the World Bank’s own Evaluation Cooperation Group, and the International NGO Training and Research Centre. In addition, the American Evaluation Association<sup>287</sup> and the International Development Evaluation Association have played important roles in the process of formalisation and professionalisation of development evaluation.<sup>288</sup>

The institutionalised evaluation systems (e.g., of the EU, the OECD, UNESCO, and the WB) of these organisations, which they use themselves in evaluation of their own activities, have their own distinct epistemological perspective when performing evaluations (i.e., cultural and cognitive perspectives as well as focus on a certain type

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<sup>281</sup> Collins 2000, 270–286, 299

<sup>282</sup> Earlier called a Working Group, now known as Network on Development Evaluation (Dabelstein 2003, 369; Rebien 1997, 446).

<sup>283</sup> Nagao 2006, 28. Cf. Rebien (1997, 446) who viewed that the Expert Group on Aid Evaluation was established in 1983.

<sup>284</sup> Armytage 2011, 263; Berlage & Stokke 1992, 5; Cracknell 2000, 45, 294. Cf. Rebien 1997, 446. Degnbold-Martinussen & Engberg-Pedersen 2003, 218; Schaumburg-Müller 2005, 207

<sup>285</sup> Cracknell 2000, 44–46

<sup>286</sup> Armytage 2011, 263–264; Clements 2008, 52; Feinstein & Beck 2006, 543, 555; Picciotto 2003, 228; Preskill 2008, 128

<sup>287</sup> The American Evaluation Association 2015

<sup>288</sup> Armytage 2011, 263–264; Clements 2008, 52; Feinstein & Beck 2006, 543, 555; Picciotto 2003, 228; Preskill 2008, 128



of knowledge), as Leeuw and Furubo have mentioned.<sup>289</sup> This knowledge type strongly affects the use of evaluation by playing a significant role in evaluation use and adversely affects evaluation impacts. Today, the contribution of the OECD-DAC and other organisations with their international evaluation systems and structures have had an impact on the assumptions of universal applicability of Western ideas of knowledge and evaluation. Gaventa observed that the knowledge affecting the local stakeholders' lives seem to be "in the hands of a 'monopoly' of expert knowledge producers, who exercise power over others through their expertise."<sup>290</sup> It could be said, as Collins has, that the elite control what things are accepted as truth in any society.<sup>291</sup>

*Validation of evaluation knowledge through the hegemonic domain of power in development evaluation systems.* The hegemonic domain of power, as Collins pointed out, is visible and identifiable due to the language used and the values held. If we return to one of today's key determinants and players in development evaluation, the OECD-DAC, it can be seen strongly guiding its countries evaluation practices through standardised evaluation procedures. The word-for-word form of its current official definition of development evaluation, shared below, clearly illustrates the values they are promulgating:

An evaluation is an assessment, as systematic and objective as possible, of an on-going or completed project, programme or policy, its design, implementation and results. The aim is to determine the relevance and fulfilment of objectives, developmental efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability. An evaluation should provide information that is credible and useful, enabling the incorporation of lessons learned into the decision-making process of both recipients and donors.<sup>292</sup>

This definition is used in donors' manuals and instructions and includes specialised vocabulary which displays the values they hold to be most important. Their political and economic power allows them to prioritise certain evaluation goals, methods, time-frames, agents, and utilisation frameworks.<sup>293</sup> Results-based management, as well as the project cycle management system, has accelerated the use of five evaluation criteria, also known as key evaluation components — relevance, impact, effectiveness, efficiency, and sustainability — set by the OECD-DAC for development interventions. Since then, the evaluation departments of aid agencies

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<sup>289</sup> Leeuw & Furubo 2008, 159–160; Liverani & Lundgren 2007

<sup>290</sup> Gaventa & Cornwall 2001, 73; 2006, 123

<sup>291</sup> Collins 2013, 37

<sup>292</sup> MFA 1998, 59; OECD-DAC 1991, 5; 1992, 132; 2010, 4, 6

<sup>293</sup> Collins 2000, 270–286

have mostly been interested in investigating impacts and effectiveness of their activities by using experimental designs in evaluations<sup>294</sup> as well as in using external evaluators,<sup>295</sup> which are elements of the evaluation factor linked to sub-optimal evaluation impacts.

There is an ongoing tendency towards using these five evaluation components, also known as evaluation criteria or standards, as confirmed by Chianca in his doctoral dissertation from 2008. Similarly, Sasaki's research findings among 15 multinational and bilateral donor agencies in 2012 lent support to Chianca's arguments about evaluation components prioritised in development evaluation.<sup>296</sup> Unsurprisingly, these criteria have provided a much-used framework in development evaluation since 1991 among bi- and multilateral donors as well as international NGOs, even though the quality of development evaluations seemed to have been regarded as unsatisfactory.<sup>297</sup> Recently, new evaluation criteria such as "strategic relevance" and "coherence/complementarity" are emerging.<sup>298</sup> This is illustrated by the Finnish development evaluations, to which we shall now turn.

These aforementioned evaluation components — efficiency, effectiveness, impact, relevance, and sustainability set by the OECD-DAC — are still in good use and have been the most prioritised issues, for instance, in Finnish development evaluation. Evaluation guidelines and manuals commissioned by the Finnish MFA state that "The OECD/DAC norms and standards, also used by the EU, remain the foundation of Finland's development evaluation." (see Evaluation Manual 2013, which is still current as of today.)<sup>299</sup> This means that since the 1990s, these criteria have been used as evaluation criteria most of the time (as confirmed in most of the cases in the meta-evaluation made by Koponen and Mattila-Viro on 60 Finnish evaluation reports).<sup>300</sup>

Likewise, results of three case study evaluations conducted on inclusive education in Finland's development cooperation in 2004–2013 demonstrated that these five aforementioned evaluation criteria were used as their measurements in 2015.<sup>301</sup> The

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<sup>294</sup> Sasaki 2006, 67; 2008, 13

<sup>295</sup> Morra Imas & Rist 2009, 108, 517, 519

<sup>296</sup> Armytage 2011, 262–263; Chianca 2008a; 2008b; Clements, Chianca & Sasaki 2008, 209–210; Nagao 2006, 28; OECD-DAC 1991, 5–6; 1992, 132; Sasaki 2006, 71; 2008, 13; 2012, 29, 45; Stern 2004, 19

<sup>297</sup> Chianca 2008a; 2008b; Savedoff, Levine & Birdsall 2006

<sup>298</sup> Sasaki 2012, 29, 33–34, 45

<sup>299</sup> MFA 2013, 4

<sup>300</sup> Koponen & Mattila-Wiro 1996. See Ahonen 2015 and Collins 2000, 284.

<sup>301</sup> MFA 2015/5, 67–68

evaluation on the Finnish aid for trade 2012–2015 confirmed these same components continued to play key roles in the framework of the Finnish development evaluation in 2016.<sup>302</sup> Similarly, many NGOs, funded by bilateral and multilateral donors, have adopted evaluation components of the OECD-DAC for their evaluations. NGO evaluations have been requested to be harmonised with these criteria.<sup>303</sup> Typical of this were six evaluations, conducted in three rounds between 2016 and mid–2017, on the programmes of Finnish NGOs, including Fida. These programmes were funded by the Finnish MFA through programme-based support in development cooperation and humanitarian assistance during 2010–2016.<sup>304</sup>

## 2.2.2 The use of the evaluation factor with its elements could contribute to local evaluation impacts

Because evaluation use seldom, if ever, takes place automatically, it can be strongly influenced. This could take place, for instance, by gaining knowledge of an evaluation, through involvement and appropriate methods used, by getting experience and skills, or by being taught. Put briefly, various evaluation elements can be used for impacts. To Alkin and Taut, they are the appropriate human, evaluation and contextual measures in evaluation; for Saunders, the usability factors of evaluation; and for Pickford and Brown, the evaluation elements to be used, onto which we shall now move.<sup>305</sup>

We shall focus predominantly on this factor, the evaluation design and methodology used, as it likely that non-use is due more to human and context factors than evaluation factors. Fleischer and Christie, for instance, found in their study that evaluators' practices mirrored their endorsement of the evaluation factor as influential in increasing use.<sup>306</sup> Thus, we turn now to a consideration of how evaluation factor elements could contribute to stronger evaluation use and impacts and focus on Saunders's as well as Pickford and Brown's determinants of evaluation impacts.<sup>307</sup>

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<sup>302</sup> MFA 2016/2, 103–110

<sup>303</sup> Chianca 2008b, 41–42

<sup>304</sup> MFA 2017/3a, 12–13

<sup>305</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003; Pickford & Brown 2006; Saunders 2012

<sup>306</sup> Fleischer & Christie 2009, 171

<sup>307</sup> Pickford & Brown 2006, 4; Saunders 2012, 427–431, 434

Reverting to Saunders's "usability" elements, "the extent to which the evaluation design itself militates against or encourages the use of its outputs in the broadest sense,"<sup>308</sup> they influence on evaluation impacts apart from the evaluator's role. Such usability practices of evaluation design cover the following aspects that impact evaluation utilisation: why evaluation is taking place (reason, purpose, foci); who carries out evaluation (external, internal or both); timing of releasing the evaluation output (summative, formative); who are the users and from what level of use (the audience: self, institutional, programmatic, or national/international); as well as the nature of the data and evidence (stakeholders' capability to read it).<sup>309</sup> Apart from the agent, by whom evaluation was carried out and who could be either an external or internal evaluator or even both, Pickford and Brown named four other elements affecting the evaluation impacts. They were a target (what was evaluated) and a purpose (why), methods (how), and a time frame (when evaluation was carried out).<sup>310</sup>

If comparing elements of Pickford and Brown with those of Saunders, Saunders combined a target and a purpose of evaluation together in his classification, by calling it an evaluation reason, a purpose or focus. All three scholars shared a common view about timing or time frame of releasing the evaluation results, which they linked to a form of evaluation and influences on evaluation impacts. To Saunders, one of the factors affecting evaluation use and impacts was the evaluation users and their use level (e.g., self, institutional, programmatic, national, international). However, this vital element for my research, the location of the evaluation users, Pickford and Brown omitted to mention. Finally, the last determinant, substantiated by all three researchers, namely, Pickford and Brown as well as Saunders, influencing evaluation impacts was the evaluation methods used, the nature of the evaluation data and evidence as well as stakeholders' capability to read them.<sup>311</sup>

*When speaking about "positive" evaluation use it is reasonable to assume that behind an evaluation action there is a certain intention and function expected.* The purpose for conducting evaluations varies per scholar. To Berriet-Sollicec, Labarthe and Laurent evaluations were performed to acquire targeted measurement (evaluate a programme's effects); understanding (a mechanism that produces these expected effects); and learning (evaluation, as a collective learning process), while to Nevo the evaluation goals were decision-making, improvement, accountability, professionalisation, and

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<sup>308</sup> Saunders 2012, 421

<sup>309</sup> Saunders 2012, 427–431, 434

<sup>310</sup> see Narayan-Parker 1989 in Rebien 1997, 448; Pickford & Brown 2006, 4

<sup>311</sup> Pickford & Brown 2006, 4; Saunders 2012, 427–431, 434

certification.<sup>312</sup> Chelimsky would state that evaluation could be conducted for accountability (results or efficiency measurement); for development (strengthening institutions); and for knowledge (gaining a wider understanding in a specific area or field) purposes.<sup>313</sup> A fourth evaluation purpose, social improvement aiming at modifying the situations of the beneficiaries of a particular intervention, would be added by Stern, to which Huusko would add empowerment.<sup>314</sup>

Since the early 1960s, accountability and learning have been widely accepted as objectives for evaluations in the US's development field.<sup>315</sup> These two goals also find acceptance by the OECD-DAC, one of the current key determinants of Western development evaluation. According to its definition of development evaluation, this development activity is "to improve future aid policy, programmes and projects through feedback of lessons learned; and to provide a basis for accountability, including the provision of information to the public."<sup>316</sup> Picciotto worded his views, referring to his evaluation experience with the World Bank, as follows: "Feedback is about learning and follow up is about accountability. They are two sides of the same coin."<sup>317</sup> Regeer, de Wildt-Liesveld, van Mierlo and Bunders link accountability to a situation where the receiving organisation gives an account to the development funding agency, regarding activities and their outcomes funded by their designated money on the designated purposes.<sup>318</sup>

These two "competing" development evaluation purposes, accountability and learning (see Table 3), could be said to have taken their roots from Scriven's summative and formative evaluations used in educational evaluation. In Table 3, two vital evaluation domains of this research, development and education with their key purposes, are summarised by the researcher. This summary was based on the findings of such scholars as Bhola; Cracknell; Cronbach; Hansson; Herman, Morris and Fitz-Gibbon; Lincoln and Guba; Nevo; Patton; Robson; Rossi, Lipsey and Freeman; as well as Scriven.<sup>319</sup>

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<sup>312</sup> Berriet-Sollic, Labarthe & Laurent 2014, 196–197; Nevo 2006, 443–444

<sup>313</sup> Chelimsky 1997; Fetterman 2001, 125

<sup>314</sup> Huusko 2008, 134–135; Stern 2004, 16; 2005, xxvii in Vestman & Conner 2006, 230

<sup>315</sup> Cracknell 2000, 54; Schaumburg-Müller 2005, 213

<sup>316</sup> OECD-DAC 1991

<sup>317</sup> Picciotto 2002, 1

<sup>318</sup> Regeer, de Wildt-Liesveld, van Mierlo & Bunders 2016, 7

<sup>319</sup> Bhola 1990, 16; Cracknell 2000, 42, 56, 349; Cronbach 1982, 12; Hansson 2006; Herman, Morris & Fitz-Gibbon 1987, 26; Lincoln & Guba 1986, 550; Nevo 2006, 443; Patton 1997, 67–70; Robson 2001, 82–83; Rossi, Lipsey & Freeman 2004, 34; Scriven 1991a

Simply put, a summative evaluation examines results and summarises them after the fact, and a formative evaluation is a reality check of what can be improved and developed through an evaluation process.<sup>320</sup> Summative evaluators have tried to find relationships between a cause and its effects, examining the effects that an intervention has had, by adopting the post-intervention evaluation technique, typically conducting evaluation at the final stage of a development grant. Furthermore, they have demanded that values and facts be distinguishable from one another, because values have been regarded as a threat to objective and valid research results.<sup>321</sup>

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<sup>320</sup> Scriven 1967, 40–43 in Patton 1997, 67–68

<sup>321</sup> Gergen & Gergen 2008, 165–166

**Table 3.** The primary purposes of educational and development evaluation summarised by the researcher

Emphases on Purpose/goals/functions	EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION <sup>322</sup>		DEVELOPMENT EVALUATION <sup>323</sup>	
	Summative	Formative	Accountability, control	Lessons-learning
<b>Orientation Audience/favoured by</b>	Provide an overall judgement of the evaluated Truth, scientific acceptance Informs consumers about an evaluator's values (e.g., quality, cost, utility, safety) Assists consumers in making wise decisions	Quality assurance, improvement Understanding, perspective Provides feedback for improvement Assists goal setting, planning, and management	Finding out about the past Feedback relatively unimportant Data itself relatively unimportant	Improving future performance Feedback vitally important Data valued for the planning and appraising of new projects
<b>Conduction</b>	Retrospective and reflective Decision makers, funders, sponsors, consumers or interested stakeholders; especially to outsiders	Prospective and proactive Staff of the project/services: managers especially to insiders	The past Parliament, treasury, media, pressure groups	The future Aid agencies, research institutions, consultants, developing countries
<b>Conceptualisation/criteria/variables</b>	After completion of development (completed projects, established programmes, or finished products, and ultimate outcomes)	During development or ongoing operations (goals, alternative courses of action, plans, implementation of plans, and interim results)	Evaluation is an end product Impartial and independent evaluators	Evaluation is a part of the project cycle Include members of the aid agency staff
<b>Contribution to theory</b>	Derived from goals on higher level request Independent and dependent variables Comprehensive range of dimensions concerned with merit, worth, probity, safety, equity, and significance Validating theoretical positions from scientific literature	Derived from stakeholders Holistic interdependent system All aspects of an evolving, developing programme		
<b>Design</b>	Experimental designs	Grounded theory	Positivism	Constructivism
<b>Emphasis/focus</b>	Evaluation of impacts and results models	Naturalistic inquiry	Random samples	Projects selected for their potential lessons
<b>Inquiry mode</b>	Deduction	Evaluation of processes and process models	Degree of success or failure	Reasons for success or failure
<b>Methods</b>	Wide range of methods including case studies, controlled experiments, and checklists	Induction		
<b>Organisation</b>	Top-down	Case studies, observation, interviews, not controlled experiments		
<b>Task</b>	Documentation of impacts and implementation	Self-evaluation or independent peers/consultants Clarification of objectives/Collection of information about processes and implementation, problems and progress of the service or of the project		

<sup>322</sup> Hansen 2005; Herman, Morris & Fitz-Gibbon 1987, 26; Patton 1997, 299; Robson 2001, 83; Stufflebeam & Shinkfield 2007, 25

<sup>323</sup> Cracknell 2000, 42, 56, 349

Armytage supports comments by Picciotto, who claimed that the most important evaluation purposes in the present evaluation context are accountability and effectiveness (e.g., Aid Effectiveness in 2005<sup>324</sup> and the Accra Agenda for Action 2008<sup>325</sup>). These conventions have evidently shifted more focus towards results: outputs, outcomes and impacts. Since then, accountability has ever-increasingly been given priority over learning as the evaluation purpose, as the data of Regeer *et al.* substantiates.<sup>326</sup>

Some scholars, such as Clements, Cracknell, Feinstein, Beck, Liverani, Lundgren, and Schaumburg-Müller, hold to the consensus that aid evaluation has a strong pragmatic character and that learning should be considered the primary purpose of development evaluation, though they also acknowledge the role of accountability in current development evaluation.<sup>327</sup> For Taut, prioritising and using accountability (e.g., results-based management) as the main evaluation purpose caused the deficiency in evaluation utilisation. Within her study context she realised that focussing on accountability as the evaluation goal limited readiness to use evaluations for learning.<sup>328</sup> Understandably, evaluators are now required to support learning-oriented evaluations, as Hay demanded, more than ever before.<sup>329</sup>

The “accountability movement” has been unavoidable for NGOs as well. This was confirmed by Thayer and Fine in their study on characteristics and outcomes on evaluations among US non-profit organisations. Their study was comprised of a mail-survey to 140 non-profit human service organisations; an interview of a random sample of 40 survey respondents regarding outcome measurements in evaluation and issues that make evaluation useful, credible and satisfying; and in-depth profiles made of four organisations found among survey respondents.<sup>330</sup>

The findings of this 3-part research demonstrated that outcome measurements were common in evaluations. The collected data revealed that the primary purpose for conducting evaluation has been to measure outcomes or impact (56% of 140 organisations). The number of evaluations inquiring about results was 80% of 35 interviewees. These outcome-measurement activities conducted among 69% of

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<sup>324</sup> Conlin & Stirrat 2008; OECD 2005/2008

<sup>325</sup> Conlin & Stirrat 2008; OECD 2005/2008

<sup>326</sup> Picciotto 2003; 2007; Power 1997, 43 in Vestman & Conner 2006, 233; Regeer, de Wildt-Liesveld, van Mierlo & Bunders 2016, 7; United Nations 2000. See Kushner 2009, 413–422.

<sup>327</sup> Clements 2008; Cracknell 2000, 39, 54–57; Feinstein & Beck 2006, 538; Liverani & Lundgren 2007, 241; Schaumburg-Müller 2005, 207

<sup>328</sup> Taut 2007c, 45–59

<sup>329</sup> Hay 2010, 225

<sup>330</sup> Thayer & Fine 2001



respondents.<sup>331</sup> Likewise, findings of the mail-study performed by Carman and Fredericks confirmed the results of Thayer and Fine. Their study on what evaluation looked like among non-profit organisations providing human services in 2008, took place in the US, covering 189 organisations, of which 71% received government funding. The data produced evidence that results were emphasised in many NGO evaluations. Specifically, 62% of the evaluations focussed on program results, although no NGO studied received any separate grant for evaluation.<sup>332</sup>

When referring to the attention and interest being given to non-profits' accountability, some scholars have called it "an era of accountability" or "accountability myopia."<sup>333</sup> The sole purpose of fulfilling the demands of external stakeholders (e.g., funding organisations, government agencies), which Alaimo calls "an external pull," obligates NGOs to engage in evaluating programmes. In contrast to "an external pull," "an internal push" refers to an intrinsic motivation existing within the organisation and programme to carry out evaluation to strengthen its learning and culture of continuous improvement inside the programme.<sup>334</sup>

*Upon completion of evaluations, they are presumed to be of benefit to something or someone and to be used by someone, for whom it was originally produced.* This entity is expected to acquire new knowledge or to develop skills, plainly put, to learn something. Evaluation users may be individuals, though Senge, Argyris and Schön speak about organisational learning. All organisations, of course, are formed by its members, individuals.<sup>335</sup> To Saunders, there are four domains in which the outputs of an evaluation are used as a resource for onward practice, policy or decision making. They are as follows: self (evaluative practices initiated and undertaken by practitioners); institutional (organisational evaluative practices); programmatic (specific intervention's evaluative practices); and national/international (sector wide evaluative practices).<sup>336</sup>

However, poor participation of the locals in an evaluation prohibits its use and impacts. This is demonstrated by the OECD-DAC, which conducted the inquiry on its members' evaluation systems and resources in 2009. The study of 38 bilateral development agencies and multilateral institutions indicated that most of the 696 evaluations reviewed, namely 76%, were carried out by the donors only, excluding

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<sup>331</sup> Thayer & Fine 2001

<sup>332</sup> Carman & Fredericks 2008, 55–58

<sup>333</sup> Ebrahim 2005; King 2007, 48; Murray 2005 and Tuan 2004 in Carman 2010, 257

<sup>334</sup> Alaimo 2008, 76

<sup>335</sup> Argyris & Schön 1978; 1996; Marra 2000, 33–34; Senge 1990; Vedung 1997. See Patton 1997; Weiss 1998.

<sup>336</sup> Saunders 2012, 427, 432–433

local partners. Only 15% of evaluations included local partners. Again, the study showed that the best covered stakeholder group in the distribution of these findings were staff and management at donor headquarters and in the field (through e.g., dissemination of reports, workshops, sending of summaries). 55% reported sending evaluation findings to their own parliamentary bodies. Over half of the members sent results to civil societies in donor countries, but only five distributed these evaluation reports to legislative bodies in the partner countries. Finally, 13 members (i.e., 34%) distributed evaluation results to the intended beneficiaries of their agency/bank's development activities in partner countries, and only seven (N = 38) enabled the partner countries' civil society groups to take part in follow-up activities derived from these evaluations.<sup>337</sup>

The data revealed that utilisation of evaluations included in the OECD-DAC inquiry was poor, even though the policies of some two-thirds of the member groups stated agency learning as their top, or one of the top goals for evaluation departments. The study indicated that the involvement and learning of donors was the real priority. Further, the research demonstrated that “few mechanisms are in place to monitor, assess or publicise actions taken in response to evaluations. Members shared a general concern about the lack of interest in the use of evaluation findings.”<sup>338</sup> In addition, regarding the standard of the evaluations, the survey revealed that the quality of external consultants has been unsatisfactory, for 50% of survey respondents estimated their quality to be poor or variable. Finally, the inquiry revealed that cooperation with the partner country would have been crucial to intensified systematic distribution of evaluation results to the locals. Those units doing considerable amounts of joint work with partner countries were more likely to systematically distribute evaluation findings to stakeholders in partner countries.<sup>339</sup>

A lack of local involvement in evaluations contributes to non-use at national levels as well as international levels. The study of the United States Agency for International Development carried out between 2005 and 2008 and sent to the Development Experience Clearinghouse<sup>340</sup> revealed that only 22% of its evaluations (N = 296) examined had participatory features. 11.5% of these evaluation

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<sup>337</sup> OECD 2010, 33, 36; OECD-DAC 2009, 28, 31–34, 39

<sup>338</sup> OECD-DAC 2009, 28, 39

<sup>339</sup> OECD 2010, 33, 36; OECD-DAC 2009, 28, 31–34, 39

<sup>340</sup> Development Experience Clearinghouse (2014) is the United States Agency for International Development's largest online source for its material, covering also its evaluations.

stakeholders<sup>341</sup> — only 4% being their beneficiaries — were permitted to be involved. And in only 9% of evaluation cases was evaluation data reported to the project target group.<sup>342</sup> Thus, this poor engagement of the locals in evaluation is a challenge to be met more seriously. Rightly, Marra reported that evaluation methods used, and collaborative relations in evaluation, could contribute to the utilisation of evaluation results.<sup>343</sup>

The former statements made regarding poor participation of the locals in evaluations parallel the Finnish development field as well. The meta-evaluation carried out on project and programme evaluations of the Finnish MFA in 2014–2015 indicated that no example was found where the evaluation was carried out in partnership with the key recipient country’s executing agency or with another agency of that government. This situation highlights the fact that opportunities to strengthen the capacity for evaluation and learning via, and regarding, evaluation by using the evaluations within the recipient countries were undervalued, neglected and lost.<sup>344</sup>

### 2.2.3 My standpoint: Put evaluation to good use for local evaluation impacts through a process use and learning in evaluation

It was MHCC staff representatives who explained the need for assistance in knowledge validation and development of VET activities through evaluation, during my first field trip. Since they were the evaluation initiators, with an intrinsic “right to know,” this research would serve the MHCC project participants and their community in Tanzania. Understandably, their need and initiation paved the way to my decision to prioritise their standpoint.<sup>345</sup>

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<sup>341</sup> To Greene (2005, 397–398) 4-stakeholder-types in evaluation of the programme are: 1. the deciding authorities (e.g., other policy makers, funders, and advisory boards). 2. Persons in direct charge (e.g., programme developers, administrators, implementers, managers, and direct service staff). 3. The intended beneficiaries, their families and their communities. And 4. People disadvantaged by the programme due to lost funding opportunities, while Bryson, Patton and Bowman (2011, 1) regard evaluation stakeholders as “individuals, groups, or organizations that can affect or are affected by an evaluation process and/or its findings”. In this research, evaluation stakeholders cover those local people who can affect or are affected by an evaluation process and evaluation findings.

<sup>342</sup> USAID 2009, 10, 44, 46

<sup>343</sup> Argyris & Schön 1978; 1996; Marra 2000, 33–34; Senge 1990; See Patton 1997; Weiss 1998.

<sup>344</sup> MFA 2016/5, 96

<sup>345</sup> see MacDonald 1976, 224 in Greene 2006, 119–122; McKee & Stake 2002 in Ryan 2004, 445

This guiding principle of the locals' participation behind this research gave the space for the local evaluation participants to be "experts of their lived experiences," to generate and create knowledge, and make critical reflections and generalisations on their lived experiences through social interaction. Their participation in decision-making with their local "co-evaluators" aimed at democratising the evaluation processes and relegating power to the local multi-stakeholders. Then, the locals could own the knowledge, use it to implement changes needed as well as modify their actions based on their knowledge and experience gained while learning. In fact, I followed the recommendation made by Zuber-Skerritt (to whom this type of learning is appropriate to be used for personal learning as well as transformation and development of an organisation) in which learning processes themselves are used for learning which occurs in cooperative practice. He continued that it can be supported in complex situations where no solution is known beforehand to be an answer to an existing setting and where prevailing power structures want to be influenced.<sup>346</sup> This situation held true in the evaluation experiment of the VET case at MHCC, where "no right answers were known in advance."

All evaluation and research are standpoint-bound. The evaluation standpoint chosen seems to be reflected in evaluation use and its impacts through the evaluation factor. Collins found two strategies, which she called "intellectual activism," of how multiple languages of power could be spoken: either to "speak the truth to those in power (the elite)" or to "speak the truth directly to the people (the masses)."<sup>347</sup> I chose to "speak directly to the people" in dialogue to generate stronger evaluation impacts, instead of the donors only, as is most common in development evaluations. Thus, I served as the advocate, taking an active role in making social changes happen by affecting power distances by bringing together multi parties of evaluation, presenting evaluation findings to the leadership of MHCC, providing information to policy-makers through this report, and delivering these results to the academia. Neither power nor priority were given over those who were deciding on the broad directions and funding of policy, nor was the evaluation conducted for accountability with an external evaluator, as done in autocratic evaluation. Neither was my evaluation a bureaucratic evaluation, which reflects "the reality of power," conducted for the people in power by fulfilling needs, interests and accountabilities of policy

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<sup>346</sup> Zuber-Skerritt 2002, 115, 122

<sup>347</sup> Collins 2013, 38

operatives of donor agencies,<sup>348</sup> and in which the evaluator's position is inside the "ruling apparatus"<sup>349</sup> or institutional power structures.<sup>350</sup>

In this utilisation-oriented evaluation social relations between the evaluator/researcher and stakeholders were a focal point, and were important for the use of evaluation findings as well as for evaluative learning.<sup>351</sup> Indeed, with the application of the action research approach, I had been strongly involved in the evaluation experiment, having been a part of it.<sup>352</sup> This requirement was fulfilled with me, for I have known the "evaluand" (the subject of evaluation), its environment, cultural context and local language (Swahili), used in the location of this research, as well as the majority of the persons evaluating, "the evaluatees." Furthermore, the collaborative operations performed included my fulfilling the roles of an action researcher, a case researcher, an evaluation researcher and a facilitator, as well as a cross-cultural researcher. Hence, as the researcher, I was an instrument together with the research participants, who bore the knowledge and co-created it.<sup>353</sup> For this reason, the roles of researcher and research partner were blurred. I did not regard the research participants as research objects, but rather as acting and participating subjects, that is, change agents. Furthermore, this social process required understanding and knowledge about the local culture and language from me as the researcher. Thus, my studies and knowledge of Swahili, as well as cultural understanding after living some years in Tanzania, were essentials in this type of research.

My role as the independent knowledge broker was to serve the public, the Tanzanian multi-stakeholders involved in the VET case at MHCC, in their "learning in evaluation," those ordinary people interested in or affected by concerns of the activities evaluated and representing multiple perspectives being both distant and near to power. I realised that through evaluation use emancipation, participation, development of critical spaces and building of communicative space (so that communication and discussion, as open and free as possible, could provide a basis for decision-making among all stakeholders), could be supported.<sup>354</sup> In addition,

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<sup>348</sup> MacDonald 1976, 224 in Greene 2006, 119–122; McKee & Stake 2002 in Ryan 2004, 445

<sup>349</sup> Smith (1987, 107 in Ryan 2004, 458) defines "ruling apparatus as that familiar complex of management, government, administration, professions, and intelligentsia, as well as the textually mediated discourses that coordinate it and penetrate it".

<sup>350</sup> Ryan 2004, 445

<sup>351</sup> Patton 1990; 1997b

<sup>352</sup> Syrjälä 1995b, 34–35

<sup>353</sup> Leavy 2014, 3

<sup>354</sup> Heikkinen 2001, 174

communication, ongoing interaction and contacts, social forums, and cultural considerations could be provided.<sup>355</sup> Instead of categorising the dualism of a knower and known, an observer and observed, object and subject, both partners — the evaluator, and evaluatees, programme decision makers, staff and service users — were brought to the same table and were engaged in negotiations, conversations and dialogues to learn to communicate equally without role differentials or domination of any parties.<sup>356</sup>

The standpoint chosen also demanded that I take the practical (or pragmatic<sup>357</sup>) and critical (emancipatory, educational, empowering) roles of the action researcher. These roles Johansson and Lindhult categorised in Table 4 based on the original identification made by Carr and Kemmis, known by their critical action research. As the critical action researcher, I understood evaluation as a political act in the society having impact on the future development of the evaluand, but also on its use and impacts. Moreover, I realised that, by means of evaluation, the activity of VET at MHCC could be increased and developed; as could its evaluation, along with cooperation among participants, and the level of democracy and equality inside the VET case itself.<sup>358</sup>

**Table 4.** The comparison between a pragmatic and critical orientation to action research<sup>359</sup>

ISSUE	PRAGMATIC ORIENTATION	CRITICAL ORIENTATION
<b>Purpose</b>	Improvement in workability of human praxis	Emancipation
<b>Action focus</b>	Experimental, cooperation	Resistance, liberation
<b>Orientation to power</b>	Power as ability to do, collaborative relation, practical agreement is striven for	Dominant interests, coercive, conflict is acknowledged
<b>Role of researcher/ related knowledge</b>	Closeness, practical knowledge	Distance, episteme, reflective knowledge
<b>Research focus</b>	Action, dialogue	Reflection
<b>Development focus</b>	Experiential learning, learning by doing	Consciousness raising, reflexivity
<b>Type of dialogue</b>	Cooperative, experience-based, action-oriented	Promote openness to the other
<b>Situation</b>	Fragmentation, compartmentalization	Asymmetrical power relations, invisible structures that are restricting

<sup>355</sup> Abma & Widdershoven 2008, 217–221

<sup>356</sup> Abma 2006, 195–196; Guba & Lincoln 1989, 44–45; Rajavaara 1999, 48–49; Rebien 1997, 449

<sup>357</sup> Johansson & Lindhult 2008

<sup>358</sup> See Syrjälä 1995b, 31–33.

<sup>359</sup> Johansson & Lindhult 2008, 102

The evaluation standpoint chosen for this evaluation experiment presented a mirror for its participants to reflect their ideas and learn a self-reflective process so that the outcome was power to act. Simultaneously, all evaluation participants at the VET case were the reflective mirrors to each other involved in the evaluation practices. These locals took the final responsibility from the change processes of MHCC, from the production of these changes and from their own emancipation, even if I tried to narrow power distances by “transferring power” to the participants by means of opening opportunities for their engagement in authentic and accurate evaluation processes and promoting their access to evaluative learning through purposefully “new” positions and forums offered.<sup>360</sup>

In the evaluation experiment at MHCC, increasing evaluative knowledge inside the community necessitated the use of participative methods in evaluation. Thus, I employed empowerment evaluation as the evaluation method to challenge power from the inside,<sup>361</sup> to reveal unequal and unseen power with its relationships (known as hegemonies<sup>362</sup>), and even to transform power structures during the research process. My standpoint chosen required I put emphasis on local knowledge by legitimating it with local, communicational interaction, linguistic practices, and oral and written narratives, as Kvale highlighted.<sup>363</sup>

So, the “illuminating and liberating” empowerment evaluation was used as a tool of encouraging stakeholders and participants to examine their VET programme from different perspectives and to redefine their own positions and duties within the programme, as well as to assist the locals in reflection through knowledge circulation.<sup>364</sup> When putting emphasis on empowerment evaluation, consistent with Fetterman, I viewed this evaluation application as the means of the programme to become more independent and self-sufficient in conducting evaluations in its programme evaluation efforts,<sup>365</sup> for during participation in evaluation stakeholders became familiar with evaluation logic, evaluation skills and evaluative thinking. This process itself could have had a long-lasting influence, as Patton emphasises, “acquisition of evaluation skills and ways of thinking can have a longer-term impact than the use of findings from a particular evaluation study.”<sup>366</sup>

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<sup>360</sup> see Carr & Kemmis 1986, 204; Johansson & Lindhult 2008; Kuula 1999, 75; Kuusela 2005, 20

<sup>361</sup> Collins 2013, 38

<sup>362</sup> Masters 1995, 7–8 in Kuusela 2005, 29; Syrjälä 1995b, 33

<sup>363</sup> Kvale 1995, 13–14, 18

<sup>364</sup> Fetterman 1999, 16; 2002, 101

<sup>365</sup> Morra Imas & Rist 2009, 204

<sup>366</sup> Patton 1997, 97

In empowerment evaluation, as the social change agent<sup>367</sup> I used a holistic approach, rather than relying on reductionism, repeatability and refutation. I studied human behaviour in natural settings and within its total context in Tanzania, as it naturally occurred, as Edelenbos and van Buuren, Guba and Lincoln, as well as Shaw have stated. Thus, I neither divided the reality into parts or segments suitable for myself, nor studied it in pieces (e.g., as variables) but only holistically in context.<sup>368</sup> Therefore, this VET intervention, MHCC, was impossible to treat through independent variables, issues, treatments, and so on, as every social programme was constituted within complex processes of human understanding and interaction.<sup>369</sup> Consequently, in this evaluation experiment at MHCC problem-identification, planning, action, and evaluation were interlinked. Reflection and research by utilising various research methods were employed. Actions taken during that process were in their nature participative, educative, evaluative, empowering, as well as improvement- and future-oriented.<sup>370</sup>

I was also involved in the role of evaluator, one of the case researcher's four roles. Iriti, Bickel and Nelson defined this role as "the nature of the evaluator's relationship with the client and the evaluand."<sup>371</sup> Guba and Lincoln, when observing roles of evaluators from historical perspectives and through their generations, identified four such evolutions in the role of the evaluator: a technician, a describer, a judge, and a negotiator (Table 2). These other three roles of evaluator (except that of the negotiator), underlined the evaluator's sole power to independently make an authoritative assessment on the grounds of measurements, descriptions, or judgements (by telling people what they should do), and were inappropriate to maximise local utilisation and ill-suited to the learning-oriented approach used in this evaluation research.<sup>372</sup> Instead, as the qualitative evaluator I predominantly took the role of negotiator, mediator, co-producer, and co-player of social constructions, as Table 2 demonstrated,<sup>373</sup> because empowerment evaluation is one of the forms used during the fourth evaluation generation. Thus, I emphasised the locals' roles as

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<sup>367</sup> Patton 1997, 103

<sup>368</sup> Edelenbos & van Buuren 2005, 593; Guba & Lincoln 1989, 27; Shaw 1999, 39

<sup>369</sup> Pawson & Tilley 2000, 17–18

<sup>370</sup> Waterman, Tillen, Dickson & de Koning 2001, 11

<sup>371</sup> Iriti, Bickel & Nelson 2005, 472

<sup>372</sup> Edelenbos & van Buuren 2005, 596; Guba & Lincoln 1989; Poikela & Poikela 2006, 231

<sup>373</sup> Guba & Lincoln 1989



knowledge agents, their access and power to consume the evaluation knowledge generated, as well as their leading roles as evaluation describers and judges.<sup>374</sup>

My role as a facilitator or moderator was essential when working with various groups. As the facilitator, critical friend or coach,<sup>375</sup> I identified relevant stakeholders, enabled their participation in evaluation, promoted role sharing between the evaluator and participants, and facilitated learning and the use of evaluation processes by intended users to maximise the utilisation of evaluation results.<sup>376</sup> As the orchestrator of negotiation processes between stakeholders, I also offered possibilities to produce a series of mental and social constructions in social interaction.<sup>377</sup> For instance, in the group interview I had to guide discussion without controlling it, while simultaneously responding to participants who were either too dominating or who were less forthcoming in discussion. This was to ensure that all voices and viewpoints were heard; to promote interaction; to probe for details when warranted; to ensure that the discussion was focussed on the topic of interest; to catalyse the production of the discourse, but also to create a relaxed atmosphere in which the participants could express themselves freely.<sup>378</sup> In this way, I captured meaningful insights and tried to find the meanings which people carried within themselves, and in cooperation with the evaluated, I used social relations and learned about them further. In this way, I attempted to transmit their knowledge to become shared knowledge.<sup>379</sup>

My purpose was congruent with Mabry's. In her words, as the case study researcher, I wanted to offer insiders' unique perceptions, experiences and meanings.<sup>380</sup> With the assistance of this case the target was to learn about impacts of development activities and development of these services further by means of process use of evaluation with the assistance of this instrumental case, the evaluation experiment of VET at MHCC. Subsequently, features of this case at MHCC, with the stories of these stakeholders who experienced the case, were revealed. In addition, a group of individuals (former students and other stakeholders), who had experienced the VET and its evaluation at MHCC, were involved. Also, the case of

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<sup>374</sup> Ryan 2004, 445

<sup>375</sup> Fetterman 2005a; Preskill & Torres 1999

<sup>376</sup> Guba & Lincoln 1989; Patton 2007

<sup>377</sup> Guba & Lincoln 1989, 137; Pawson & Tilley 2000, 17–18

<sup>378</sup> Bloor, Frankland, Thomas & Robson 2001, 48, 91; Dreachslin 1999, 228; Gilflores & Alonso 1995, 95; Morgan 1988; Stewart & Shamdasani 1990 in Race, Hotch & Packer 1994, 731

<sup>379</sup> Abma 2005, 280; Edelenbos & van Buuren 2005, 596; Poikela & Poikela 2006, 231

<sup>380</sup> Mabry 2009, 344

MHCC acted like an illustration, a representation of a part of a wider population, being described in detail and functioning as a tool for solving practical challenges after building up the overall picture of the phenomenon. It assisted readers in the process of learning and of discovery of the phenomenon that had been investigated: the VET and its evaluation.<sup>381</sup>

At the same time, an instrumental case study was conducted, by using MHCC and its evaluation as an example, to advance and facilitate both the readers' and the researcher's and evaluators' understanding, as well as my other interest set — to observe development evaluation impacts from the perspectives on standpoints and paradigms chosen on evaluation utilisation. This instrumental case study gave me insight and offered me an opportunity to learn by studying this case in depth, its context scrutinised, and these ordinary activities detailed, as Stake emphasised.<sup>382</sup>

One of my roles as a case researcher was the role of teacher. If referring to separate facets of empowerment evaluation, when speaking about its essential feature, training, I gave basic knowledge to programme stakeholders on evaluations by introducing key evaluation concepts and some other research training tools which were designed to help a systematic programme evaluation. As the facilitator, I assisted the locals in specifying activities that would be needed to achieve goals and objectives by gaining and delivering useful information on VET training and past experiences on it, to provide direction and help the locals keep the effort on track.<sup>383</sup> Again, I served as a coach or facilitator to support the multi-stakeholders to conduct their evaluation. I assisted these locals to set goals and find strategies to measure performance with which future progress can be compared. My role as a resource person and catalyst was to stimulate stakeholders to make changes by addressing issues that concerned them during the evaluation process. In this experiment, cooperation of each group was facilitated by purposefully increasing local capacity, relevance and self-determination through seminars and workshops. They were to learn new evaluative skills. Their awareness was to rise as part of a conscious empowerment or “quality enhancement” strategy,<sup>384</sup> so that their knowledge could be developed through rational discussion taking place in the research processes.

On the other hand, as the teacher, I was to teach others of what I have learned from the case, that Stake calls “teaching didactically”; and to provide materials for the readers (viz., this research report) to learn on their own from this case, which is

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<sup>381</sup> Merriam 1988 in Simons 2009

<sup>382</sup> Stake 1994, 237, 243; 1995, xi, 3–4; 2005, 445, 450–451, 461. See also Baxter & Jack 2008, 547–549.

<sup>383</sup> see Fetterman 1999, 16; 2002, 101

<sup>384</sup> see Torkington 1991 in Hall & Hall 1996, 51

to Stake “discovery learning.”<sup>385</sup> I aimed with my experiment and this report to assist my readers and the evaluation participants, as Mabry so aptly explained, “The mission of the case study researcher or evaluator is to understand and portray the case so that readers and stakeholders can also understand it.”<sup>386</sup>

Further, this discovery learning took place through the case itself: by learning propositional and experimental knowledge, inductively, from the case and also by feeding awareness and enriching understanding. I could assist in increasing competence, maturity and even liberation by facilitating individual learning in those issues which not only the reader or the audience, but also the multi-stakeholders of the VET case and its action research participants needed to know.<sup>387</sup> In my case these topics were utilisation of VET and the process use of evaluation, as well as impacts on development evaluation caused by taking the evaluation standpoint and evaluation paradigm that was selected. In my case teaching and learning, as can be read in this report, occurred in a social process (i.e., group interviews, seminars and workshops), as Stake puts below.

Together they bend, spin, consolidate, and enrich their understandings. We come to know what has happened partly in terms of what others reveal as their experience. The case researcher emerges from one social experience, the observation, to choreograph another, the report. Knowledge is socially constructed — and thus, case study researchers assist readers in the construction of knowledge.<sup>388</sup>

Regarding other typical roles of a case researcher, namely the advocate, evaluator, biographer, theorist, or interpreter, as identified by Stake,<sup>389</sup> I took roles of biographer, theorist and interpreter. In the data generation process I used written stories that resembled “life histories” and biographies to describe the case in depth. These biographical products presented the provocative models and different patterns for VET impacts, and they assisted me in capturing new meanings and connecting problems with known matters and new connections, when taking the role of interpreter together with the multi-stakeholders of the evaluation experiment. When taking the theorist role, I wanted to reveal that evaluation use could be strongly influenced by various factors, as well as, to emphasise how in the evaluation factor elements such as evaluation paradigm and standpoint chosen are vital for

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<sup>385</sup> Stake 1994, 236–237, 240; 2003, 134, 140; 2005, 454. See also Laine, Bamberg & Jokinen 2007, 9; Simons 2009, 3.

<sup>386</sup> Mabry 2009, 342

<sup>387</sup> Stake 1995, 91–95, 105

<sup>388</sup> Stake 1994, 240; 2003, 145; 2005, 454

<sup>389</sup> Simons 2009, 36–38; Stake 1995, 91–95, 105

evaluation utilisation. Again, I illustrated the VET case's uniqueness by showing multi-layers of development evaluation and VET as well as of their impacts.<sup>390</sup>

Evaluations are always conducted in culturally infused contexts. No culture-free evaluation exists. Thus, evaluation should be context specific and context sensitive.<sup>391</sup> Thereby, to guarantee evaluation utilisation at the local level, both the evaluation and the evaluator should be culturally competent. Cultural competence, as Chouinard and Cousins put it, is a person who values and is aware of differences between cultural groups and can communicate with these groups.<sup>392</sup>

That being said, definitions of cultural competency within an evaluation context seem to vary. For instance, to Patton a cross-cultural evaluation is "a two-way educational process aimed at mutual understanding."<sup>393</sup> During that process, the evaluator is challenged with various world views, beliefs and values, ethics, languages, communication and interaction styles, social relationships, time orientations, infrastructures, as well as political views.<sup>394</sup> Alternatively, SenGupta, Hopson and Thompson-Robinson define cultural competence in evaluation as follows:

a systematic, responsive inquiry that is actively cognizant, understanding, and appreciative of the cultural context in which the evaluation takes place; that frames and articulates the epistemology of the evaluative endeavour; that employs culturally and contextually appropriate methodology; and that uses stakeholder-generated, interpretive means to arrive at the results and further use of the findings.<sup>395</sup>

The essential ingredients to culturally competent evaluation have been identified by many. To Botcheva, Shih, and Huffman these three elements are collaboration, reflective adaption and contextual analysis. The first two elements emphasise the evaluator's ability and willingness to concentrate on perspectives, interests and worldviews of all stakeholders and to learn from them, as well as to integrate these different viewpoints into evaluation. The third element, contextual analysis, highlights the evaluator's ability to link local cultural views into the societal context by accounting for the historical, political, economic and social contexts of evaluatees' environments. This all requires from evaluation both theoretical and methodological considerations, and the best fit evaluation goals and methods applicable to this cultural context. Consequently, this means that the cultural context of evaluation

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<sup>390</sup> See Stake 1995, 95–99, 105.

<sup>391</sup> King 2007, 48

<sup>392</sup> Chouinard & Cousins 2007, 46

<sup>393</sup> Patton 1985a in McDonald 1999, 169

<sup>394</sup> Merryfield 1985 in McDonald 1999, 169

<sup>395</sup> SenGupta, Hopson & Thompson-Robinson 2004, 13

frames the epistemology of the methodology, and uses stakeholders to generate knowledge, produce results and use them. Simply put, this provides the shift from an “evaluator-ethnocentric”<sup>396</sup> evaluation towards a stakeholder-centric collaboration in evaluation.<sup>397</sup> I accomplished this by using Chouinard and Cousins’s five dimensions of cultural context, which they developed to clarify theoretical and practical understanding of evaluation context of a cross-cultural programme by analyzing 52 empirical studies. These aspects, specifically relational, ecological, methodological, organisational, and personal,<sup>398</sup> have each influenced my research and evaluation process in Tanzania, and are reviewed next.

First, the relational dimension of my evaluation experiment was addressed by revealing the various roles I took (Chapter 2.2.3). This was reflected in the evaluation knowledge produced during the evaluation process, which was a product of the interaction between the evaluator and evaluatees and which required communication, dialogue, listening and understanding, as well as participation and trust. Indeed, different views led us to a greater understanding about VET, its evaluation, evaluation use and impacts. I also witnessed the prior history between the evaluators’ community and evaluatees’ community, having spent time with them all in the past, which had an impact on learning about the community in the evaluation context that proved vital for becoming acquainted with each other. The ecological dimension of the evaluation case covered the social, historical, and political climate surrounding the development evaluation as well as the intervention being evaluated (the VET case),<sup>399</sup> as seen in Chapter 4. A quick look at the Tanzanian cultural context is beneficial to better understand this development intervention and the research carried out in this phase.

As the evaluator and researcher, I could not ignore the Tanzanian cultural context of this evaluation and research. Indeed, to better understand the cultural context of evaluation and evaluation research in a stable and taxonomical way (for instance, as

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<sup>396</sup> In an ethnocentric stage, the own culture is seen in every possible way and other cultures from the perspective of the person’s own culture and reality, which is the only valid one. Then, other cultures differences are reacted either by denying them, by reacting against them with a defence or by minimising these differences. (Bennett 1993; 1998.) In contrast, in ethnorelativism own culture is experienced in relation to other cultures, and a manner of behaviour is considered in its cultural context; cultural differences are accepted, understood and met with appropriate communication and action through an adaptation process, and finally, in integration, one’s cultural identity is in a constant process of movement in and out of different cultural worldviews (Bennett 1993, 46; Pelkonen 2005a, 77).

<sup>397</sup> Botcheva, Shih & Huffman 2009

<sup>398</sup> Chouinard & Cousins 2009

<sup>399</sup> Chouinard & Cousins 2009, 484–486

Hofstede did), stereotyping is a risk.<sup>400</sup> In Tanzania, where vast numbers of significant differences exist between ethnic and regional cultures as well as between the Tanzanian rural and urban areas,<sup>401</sup> as in many African cultures, the situation is complex. Not only do their national cultures differ, but their micro cultures do as well, based on such differences as age, education, gender, religion, ethnicity, or socio-economic status.<sup>402</sup> For instance, Tanzania's population consists of more than 120 ethnic groups, each having their own mother tongues (a language the child can speak fluently before going to school), although the country's official languages (languages of government, business and other formal purposes in the country) are English and Swahili.<sup>403</sup>

As mentioned, I hired a Tanzanian research assistant, Mr Kacheye. I did this based on the arguments supported by many scholars pointing to benefits for evaluation teams consisting of both foreign persons and members of the host community.<sup>404</sup> Merryfield stated that this blended team approach (which I used) provided “a diversity of perspectives and interests”, while McAlpine and Slaughter referred to an evaluator who they called “the bilingual researcher” and “the cultural expert.”<sup>405</sup> In my case, inability to speak the local language (which seemed to have generally been one of the most significant difficulties for cross-cultural evaluators<sup>406</sup>), was not a concern.

The Tanzanian research assistant assisted me, as the researcher, to better consider the local culture. He was uniquely positioned to do this, having worked “in-house” with the VET programme being evaluated and was familiar with MHCC personnel associated with the VET programme, the organisation itself and with its goals. He was a member of the host community, recommended by them, and worked closely with the development project itself.<sup>407</sup> In a development context, characteristically, an in-house evaluator is seen to have a better knowledge and grasp of the

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<sup>400</sup> Bennett 1998, 5

<sup>401</sup> Mugore 2002, 74–75

<sup>402</sup> Pelkonen 1999 in Pelkonen 2005a; 2005b

<sup>403</sup> Van Dyken 1990, 40–41

<sup>404</sup> Chouinard & Cousins 2007, 46; Chow, Murray & Charoula 1996, Cuthbert 1985, Duncan 1985, McAlpine 1992, Merryfield 1985, Slaughter 1991, and Westwood & Brous 1993 in McDonald 1999, 170

<sup>405</sup> Merryfield 1985, McAlpine 1992 and Slaughter 1991 in McDonald 1999, 170

<sup>406</sup> Ginsberg 1988 in McDonald 1999, 170

<sup>407</sup> Albæk 1996; Cracknell 2000, 82; Love 2005, 206–208; Morris, Fitz-Gibbon & Freeman 1987, 12; Patton 1997, 138; Robson 2001, 166–167

development, as well as of aid context and awareness of the working of the activities than an outside evaluator.<sup>408</sup>

Fleischer and Christie demonstrated in their study that internal evaluators, as Mr Kacheye did, could intensify evaluation use and impacts. Fleischer and Christie found that an employee and associate, a staff member with suitable training, was worth using as an evaluator because they are less likely to leave the organisation after completion of an evaluation, they have a better opportunity for utilising the evaluation process and will use evaluation instrumentally and therefore, are more likely to facilitate learning within the organisation.<sup>409</sup> In the VET case at MHCC this knowledge received in the evaluation was possible to be delivered instantly to the intervention, which guaranteed that the feedback<sup>410</sup> and experience gained were utilised and evaluation capacity developed inside the intervention.<sup>411</sup>

The strengths of the engagement of this suitable person, as Slaughter put it, were local knowledge and skills; the ability to present views persuasively to the project community; as well as the ability to assess credibility and receptivity of evaluation amongst local people.<sup>412</sup> Mr Kacheye had in-depth and first-hand knowledge about Tanzania's national and tribal cultures and he knew the long history of actions of the VET organisation and its development. His familiarity with the tasks inside the VET organisation and having working relationships with all MHCC key personnel and stakeholders as well as the local VET officials, simplified the researcher's communication tasks in Tanzania.<sup>413</sup>

Internal evaluators could be used predominantly when strengthening organisations through reflection and learning, increasing understanding and better planning.<sup>414</sup> This supports practitioners to take control of the development intervention and grow in the process.<sup>415</sup> An extra bonus that came along with the use of the internal assistant/facilitator was spared expenses.

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<sup>408</sup> Cracknell 2000, 82, 307

<sup>409</sup> Fleischer & Christie 2009, 172–173

<sup>410</sup> Evaluation feedback is not only the information (analysed data), but rather that knowledge, which enables the use of this information, turning them into information-in-use (Cracknell 2001, 143).

<sup>411</sup> see e.g., Cracknell 2000, 82, 307; Fleischer & Christie 2009, 172–173

<sup>412</sup> Slaughter 1991 in McDonald 1999, 170

<sup>413</sup> Bhola 1990, 16; Edelenbos & van Buuren 2005, 593; Morris, Fitz-Gibbon & Freeman 1987, 12; Nevo 2009, 294–295; Robson 2001, 166–167; Rubin 1995, 44

<sup>414</sup> Rubin 1995, 44

<sup>415</sup> Bhola 1990, 16

One weakness that some might point out was a lack of specific evaluation skills and evaluation experience,<sup>416</sup> however, this enabled the Tanzanian research assistant to develop evaluation research skills while understanding the local and organisational culture, which moved us towards our goal of evaluation becoming regarded as a continuous, local activity.<sup>417</sup>

I took a visible practical and theoretical orientation to consider the importance of the Tanzanian cultural context from the viewpoints of methodological and epistemological choices as well as the roles of the evaluator.<sup>418</sup> Thus, in this evaluation research — when using, for example, empowerment evaluation (the recipients' standpoint at MHCC) — specific, appropriate and valid standards (i.e., set by the multi-stakeholders), as well as measures (e.g., narratives on lived experiences), applicable to the VET programme and its cultural group were noted. The various groups' different cultural traits were noted also.

The fourth of Chouinard and Cousins's five dimensions includes such organisational factors as time, resources, policies, norms, needs, and priorities which play important roles in cross-cultural evaluation. They are addressed and dealt with in the context of MHCC in Chapter 4. The VET intervention's cultural, political and educational context, referring to Tanzania's national VET policy and global discourse on VET channelled through development aid and private VET providers, are dealt with in Chapter 4.1. The history of development evaluation and its paradigms are concentrated on in Chapters 2.2.1 and 2.2.2. The final, fifth dimension of cultural context in evaluation is the personal one. Thus, I admitted as an evaluator and researcher my subjectivity. I approached myself as a cultural product of my Western cultural experiences and examined my biases and assumptions critically when doing self-evaluation, in Chapter 5.3.<sup>419</sup>

Finally, I decided to observe my role as the cross-cultural researcher through a 4-class taxonomy made by Banks (Table 5). Hence, I had to ask whether I have been, as a researcher, either an indigenous or external insider or an indigenous or external outsider.<sup>420</sup>

Generally, I considered myself an external-outsider during my MHCC employment in 1996, as shown in Figure 2, with some degree of external-insider since visiting there in 1998, 2001–2002, and 2005–2006. In principle, having been

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<sup>416</sup> Cracknell 2000, 82, 307

<sup>417</sup> Whitmore, Guijt, Mertens, Imm, Chinman & Wandersman 2006, 353

<sup>418</sup> Chouinard & Cousins 2007, 46

<sup>419</sup> Chouinard & Cousins 2009, 484–486

<sup>420</sup> Banks 1998, 8 in Banks 2006, 777–778



“an outsider” of MHCC during these years I presume that I have gained enough distance from, and objectivity toward the VET project; something my position as researcher demands. Furthermore, my role during the research process could be regarded as an external researcher while my role during the process use of evaluation could be regarded as an internal facilitator.

**Table 5.** A typology of cross-cultural researchers<sup>421</sup>

TYPE OF RESEARCHER	DESCRIPTION
<b>The indigenous-insider</b>	This individual endorses the unique values, perspectives, behaviors, beliefs, and knowledge of his or her indigenous community and culture and is perceived by people within the community as a legitimate community member who can speak with authority about it.
<b>The indigenous-outsider</b>	This individual was socialized within his or her indigenous community but has experienced high levels of cultural assimilation into an outsider or oppositional culture. The values, beliefs, perspectives, and knowledge of this individual are identical to those of the outside community. The indigenous-outsider is perceived by indigenous people in the community as an outsider.
<b>The external-insider</b>	The individual was socialized within another culture and acquires its beliefs, values, behaviors, attitudes, and knowledge. However, because of his or her unique experiences, the individual rejects many of the values, beliefs, and knowledge claims within his or her indigenous community and endorses those of the studied community. The external-insider is viewed by the new community as an “adopted” insider.
<b>The external-outsider</b>	The external-outsider is socialized within a community different from the one in which he or she is doing research. The external outsider has a partial understanding of and little appreciation for the values, perspectives, and knowledge of the community he or she is studying and consequently often misunderstands and misinterprets the behaviors within the studied community.

With these connections to MHCC, I regarded myself mainly as an external-insider. I had a better knowledge and grasp of the development, as well as of aid context and awareness of the working of the activities than an outside evaluator.<sup>422</sup> First, I was the worker and the actor inside the system. During my five years working at MHCC in Tanzania I acquired tacit knowledge about the centre and possessed in-depth and first-hand knowledge regarding its values, activities, principles, organisational culture, and staff. I also developed knowledge and skill in the local language as well

<sup>421</sup> Banks 1998, 8 in Banks 2006, 778

<sup>422</sup> Cracknell 2000, 82, 307

as of the wider Tanzanian cultural context. Later, I worked as an external researcher in this multileveled evaluation experiment but managed to maintain an internal perspective due to my long working history with MHCC. Thus, I easily cooperated with practitioners to chart out problems and operationalise them, to plan actions and to evaluate the changes taking place in these actions, so that actors and agents, viz. all multi-stakeholders, could become better heard through more democratic participation, critical reflection and evaluation. In conducting this research, I view all of the information which I have gained, as well as the experience inside the community being evaluated, as strengths that enhanced the process.

I would agree with Mathison, as well as Marsden and Oakley, who highlighted that the evaluator cannot be collaborative without a long-lasting relationship with the target of evaluation.<sup>423</sup> Aply, one of my interviewees shared his thoughts on the value of personal experiences learned through personal contacts and local language in the following words:

TI2nd2, M: And as I have said before that you are a part of that society. So, you do according to that society, it's a part of yourself... That he or she should understand the sociology of the society. That is very important.

I: How can you learn it?

TI2nd2, M: You can learn it informally by, by introduction, looking people in this, studying them, discussing with them. Of course, that is very important, to discuss with them. And to discuss with just normal people, that's number one. And number two, you can even learn books, but the books are not, not very much practical. But learning with, learning from people it is very important.

I: But without a language you can't learn?

TI2nd2, M: Yes, that's very important, you can't learn without a language. That's, that's very important. That you must know the language, because just rough know-how of the language, yes. That is very important.<sup>424</sup>

## 2.3 Data analysis and interpretation

Data analysis and interpretation were at the core of this research due to its action research application, empowerment evaluation and the case study strategies used. In practice, data analysis and interpretation were intertwined in my case. They were not discrete processes, rather, backward and forward movements between the data and

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<sup>423</sup> Marsden & Oakley 1990; Mathison 1994 in McDonald 1999, 168, 172

<sup>424</sup> TI2nd2, M, 526–528, 533–544

my understanding. Interpretation, covering such elements as explaining findings, attaching significance to results, interference making, and patterns found in the research framework, took place after data transcriptions and extraction of meanings from these transcriptions. In my case, analysis of multiple data sources was very challenging. Neither action research nor case study provided a certain special data analysis method, for each data generation method provided its own typical method of data analysis. Data analysis was naturally derived from the purpose of this research and research questions, as well as the nature of the research, and the overall perspective (e.g., referring to the process use of evaluation in this research and stronger evaluation impacts) taken in the research.

Data needed to be organised and arranged through various processes before analysing. This included coding, categorising, themes, issues and patterns generation, and cognitive mapping, to reduce the original data and to break it down into segments and data sets, so that it could be investigated more easily.<sup>425</sup> I was unable to manage data and break it into manageable coding categories until the data was first transcribed, systematised and classified, which was done by the researcher. Similarly, all interviews were transcribed verbatim by her. Thereupon, a database for this case study was made by categorising all collected data (e.g., archival records like project documents; data from questionnaires, written stories, interviews, seminars and workshops). Open-ended questions produced a mass of data, which the researcher organised through coding the transcripts by pencilling codes in the margins. Then, the data was grouped based on the themes derived from the research questions and the theoretical framework so that all findings could be linked to a main document and transcribed.<sup>426</sup>

This time-consuming and laborious data organisation process was carried out to make sense of the data, to produce findings and understandings about a case, as well as interpretations. Hence, in data analysis I sought to transcend beyond the purely descriptive features as they were originally recorded about the question studied, by systemically identifying key themes and patterns as well as their relationships from the data, while in interpretation the focus was on the question of meaning. This aspiration was, as Wolcott explained, to go beyond “what can be explained with the degree of certainty usually associated with analysis” so to understand that “transcends factual data and cautious analyses and begins to probe into what is to be made of them.”<sup>427</sup>

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<sup>425</sup> Flick 2006, 296; Simons 2009, 117–118

<sup>426</sup> Flick 2006, 307; Yin 2009a

<sup>427</sup> Wolcott 1994, 11, 36 in Simons 2009, 117–121

*Qualitative content analysis.* When referring to VET utilisation, the process use of evaluation and evaluation impacts (on the grounds of utilisation of evaluation findings and processes) a qualitative content analysis was used as the analysis tool. It is a widely used systematic, flexible method to reduce a large amount of data from different domains in much fewer content categories. These categories equate to themes or patterns directly found in the text or are results of thorough analysis based on a coding scheme that reveals the logic and scientific trustworthiness of process and rules of data analysis.<sup>428</sup> From now on in this research, when referring to content analysis it is spoken about in its qualitative form.

In this research, the qualitative content analysis was defined by citing Hsieh and Shannon, being “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns.”<sup>429</sup> The raw data, obtained from research findings, was systematically extracted, coded and organised into conceptually congruent categories derived from the research topic and questions.<sup>430</sup> Indeed, the research questions presented in Chapter 1.2, demonstrated the viewpoint — VET utilisation, process use of evaluation and evaluation impacts — from which the data was elicited.<sup>431</sup>

In my case, I used theory-driven or directed content analysis. This type of data analysis was carried out on the grounds of a theory or concept system and was guided by a theme, mind-map or coding template. The starting point of my case study was a set of existing theoretical frameworks (e.g., positive impacts of education; types and levels of evaluation influences) from whose research findings codes were developed before and during the data analysis process. These basic theoretical concepts were used as a basic ready-made frame, after which I created and even broadened a concept frame and made data groupings based on this existing frame. With the assistance of data analysis, a concise, logical picture about the data was planned, so that clear reliable statements could be produced on the grounds of data analysis about the research target.<sup>432</sup>

*The process of qualitative content analysis.* During the field period, a thick pile of questionnaires, written stories, interviews and field notes was generated, as well as a collection of project documents. In addition, samples of archival materials were

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<sup>428</sup> Flick 2006, 312; Hsieh & Shannon 2005, 1278, 1285; Schreier 2012, 2–3, 5; Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2006, 93, 105

<sup>429</sup> Hsieh & Shannon 2005, 1278

<sup>430</sup> Elo & Kyngäs 2008

<sup>431</sup> see Schreier 2012, 4

<sup>432</sup> see e.g., Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2006, 110–116

received, including speeches, letters, diaries, articles, reports, books, manuals, media products, emails, websites, contracts, and brochures. The transcription process also included tape recordings. In short, the research data was generated and selected based on the research question.

The qualitative content analysis originated in my case from transcription. This a widely used, classic method for analysing textual material, based on writing out the content in word for word form before the text is analysed. I transcribed interviews, narrative responses and open-ended questions, as well as group discussions and dialogues. At the time, I used verbal, printed and electronic text data, though some scholars, like Schreier, stretch this generic term for textual material “text” to cover all kinds of qualitative material from verbal to visual data.<sup>433</sup>

The researcher transcribed all interviews. The 11 students’ thematic interviews totalled 23, 90-minute-long audiotapes. In the first phase, there was a plan to hire local assistants to spare my effort and time of transliterating. However, after some delays, I was obliged to take down all these tapes myself. The time-consuming process of transcription was finished in Autumn 2004. After the drafting, all tapes were checked twice by the researcher. The verbatim transcription of 11 graduates interviewed thematically produced a vast amount of text: 559 typed pages, singled spaced, font size 12. In addition, these pages included my notes made during all thematic interviews, containing impression and observations derived from these sessions.<sup>434</sup> The verbatim transcription of 16 interviewees, including some workers and committee members of MHCC; parents and employers of former students; and VET officials aside from MHCC, produced a further 389 pages of text. Because some of the thematic interviews were completed in Swahili and English, depending on the interviewee’s desire, the transcription of Swahili interviews took even more time than those conducted in English. These interviews replied to research questions 1.3 and 1.4, as seen in Chapter 1.2 and Figure 5.

The group interview of 11 interviewees was transcribed by the researcher. This data generation method produced a transcription of 49 typed pages. This material, produced during the group communication made in English and Swahili at the end of the first field trip in 2002, was audiotaped, transcribed and double-checked by the researcher. The tape-and-transcript-based technique was performed instead of a memory/note-based technique<sup>435</sup> due to the use of the Swahili language.

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<sup>433</sup> Schreier 2012, 2

<sup>434</sup> Nightingale & Rossman 2010, 343

<sup>435</sup> Krueger 1994 in Dreachslin 1999, 228

After the transcription, my research process went on to coding. This coding began with note writing aimed at giving a structure for data processing and a tool for text illustration. It helped to check and identify a text's points and to test the structure of data by using three common techniques in data analysis: classification, thematisation and typification.<sup>436</sup> The coding frame, which comprised several main categories with their own set of subcategories, was then developed and revised. Thereafter, I divided the material into coding units. When data segments were identified, it was time to develop data matrices and coding categories. This took place by placing the reference citation in the far-left column, as Averill and Finfgeld-Connett instructed. "Subsequent columns should be labeled using preliminarily identified codes, and extracted raw data (i.e., qualitative findings in the form of data segments) are then placed into these columns."<sup>437</sup>

After testing the coding frame, I evaluated and modified it before carrying out the main analysis that transformed the information into the case level. Finally, findings were interpreted and presented. This data reduction took place when all the material was included and each part of it was fitted to the coding frame. In practice, not all the information provided in the case (e.g., interviews, documents) was taken, rather, the analysis was focussed only on these perspectives that were relevant from the viewpoints of the research questions. When the categories used in the coding frame were at a higher level of abstraction than the concrete information, the amount of material decreased.<sup>438</sup> I used pattern matching as the analysing strategy when evaluating impacts of evaluation and the process use of evaluation.<sup>439</sup> When reverting to pattern matching, the coding frames employed are explained in more detail in Chapters 3.3 and 4.3.

When analysing data, to Yin patterns found from the empirical data can be compared with the theory of theoretical propositions made beforehand by the researcher. Rival explanations can also be used as patterns. Several cases are assumed to have a certain type of outcome, and the investigation explains how and why this outcome occurred in each case.<sup>440</sup> I utilised propositions based on the theoretical framework summarised by the researcher when analysing data. First, I revealed my working hypothesis. Second, in my evaluation experiment on VET at MHCC a

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<sup>436</sup> Finfgeld-Connett 2014, 343; Tuomi & Sarajarvi 2006, 94–95

<sup>437</sup> Averill 2002 in Finfgeld-Connett 2014, 344

<sup>438</sup> Flick 2006, 358–359; Schreier 2012, 5–7

<sup>439</sup> see Yin 2012

<sup>440</sup> Eriksson & Koistinen 2005, 32; Yin 2009a, 128, 136–141

development of the case description, as seen in Chapter 4.2, was used.<sup>441</sup> Referring to strategies and techniques used in the data analysis of the evaluation experiment of the VET case, I used pattern matching when conducting evaluation<sup>442</sup> on the socio-economic impacts of VET at MHCC. Then as the researcher I tried to find data patterns on VET utilisation, like codes or code combinations, which could be categorised so that they were internally homogenous and externally heterogeneous. This internal homogeneity meant that the analysed data under this pattern was comprised of a coherent type of entity. These patterns found in the VET case described a certain type of changes, and their investigation explained the context in which this impact occurred (how and why) within each sub-case. I ended up using pattern matching, since after reading the data I began to find patterns, for instance, about changes experienced resulting from VET at MHCC. Rival explanations were also used as patterns.<sup>443</sup>

In the case study a unit of analysis needed to be defined. To Nightingale and Rossman the unit of analysis is derived from the evaluation questions.<sup>444</sup> These units, on which the analysis of the VET case at MHCC was based, are described in Table 6. As Table 6 reveals, the sub-units of the VET case were individuals and the VET project; to be more precise, the socio-economic impacts of VET, the impacts of the process use and of development evaluation. Indeed, one of the most significant challenges of this research to me was how to distinguish the case and the unit of analysis. In fact, the case study and its unit of analysis are interrelated and interactive. This interplay is a constitutive element of case study research.<sup>445</sup> To some scholars, like VanWynsberghe and Khan, the circumscription of the unit of analysis is essential. Thus, case study is not primarily about the case revealing itself “as it is about the unit of the analysis being discovered or constructed.”<sup>446</sup>

Indeed, by means of using several methods and data sources in data generation, I gained an opportunity to observe the phenomenon (VET and its evaluation process and their use) from different perspectives through a crystal. This crystallisation enabled me to view simultaneously competing visions and patterns, experiences as well as realities in a complex, multi-coloured context, which challenged me during

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<sup>441</sup> Yin 2009a, 130–136

<sup>442</sup> see Yin 2012

<sup>443</sup> Eriksson & Koistinen 2005, 32; Yin 2009a, 128, 136–141

<sup>444</sup> Nightingale & Rossman 2010, 331

<sup>445</sup> see e.g. Mark & Henry 2004, 41; Yin 2009a, 89

<sup>446</sup> VanWynsberghe & Khan 2007, 90

data analysis and interpretation. Next, each data generation method is briefly observed from the viewpoint of its data analysis.

**Table 6.** The research design versus data generation compared with different units of data analysis

		DATA GENERATION SOURCE				
		Individual level (IN)	Interpersonal level (IP)	Collective level (CL)		
<b>DESIGN</b>	<b>ABOUT VET UTILISATION</b>	Former students' evaluation on socio-economic impacts of VET education experienced at MHCC? <b>What changed?</b> Qs, WSs, and T11 <sup>st</sup> s of the former students; T12 <sup>nd</sup> s with the parents FORMER STUDENT AND EXTENDED FAMILY	Internal stakeholders' evaluation on socio-economic impacts of VET education experienced at MHCC? <b>What changed?</b> Former students' records, personnel files; T12 <sup>nd</sup> s with the supervisors, trainers, and committee members; PDs and archival records MHCC	External stakeholders' evaluation on socio-economic impacts of VET education experienced at MHCC? <b>What changed?</b> T12 <sup>nd</sup> s with employers of the former students; T12 <sup>nd</sup> s with the VET officers COMMUNITY	IMPACTS	IF THE CASE AIMS AT VET
	<b>ABOUT THE PROCESS USE OF EVALUATION</b>	Internal stakeholders' evaluation on the process use of evaluation and its impacts experienced at personal level? <b>What changed?</b> GI and FQs of the staff and committee members; T13 <sup>rd</sup> s of the management group members INDIVIDUAL	Stakeholders' evaluation on the process use of evaluation and its impacts experienced at interpersonal level? <b>What changed?</b> GI and FQs of the staff and committee members; T13 <sup>rd</sup> s of the management group members; S&W1 <sup>st</sup> and S&W2 <sup>nd</sup> for the staff and committee members EVALUEES	Stakeholders' evaluation on the process use of evaluation and its impacts experienced at organisational level? <b>What changed?</b> S&W1 <sup>st</sup> and S&W2 <sup>nd</sup> , as well as T12 <sup>nd</sup> s, T13 <sup>rd</sup> s, GI and FQs of the staff and committee members; MHCC, diffusion of the process use of evaluation and its impacts into the community, COMMUNITY	FOR IMPACTS	IF A CASE AIMS AT EVALUATION
	<b>ABOUT THE STANDPOINT AND THE PARADIGM OF DEVELOPMENT EVALUATION</b>	Former students' and the staff members' evaluation on impacts of evaluation experienced at individual level? <b>What changed?</b> T11 <sup>st</sup> s of the former students; FQs of the staff and committee members EVALUATION PARTICIPANTS	The staff members' evaluation on impacts of evaluation experienced at organisational level? <b>What changed?</b> FQs of the staff; S&W1 <sup>st</sup> and S&W2 <sup>nd</sup> for the staff and committee members MHCC AND NGOS	Evaluation on impacts of evaluation at national and international policy level? Studies, policy documents DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION POLICIES (National/international)		IF A CASE AIMS AT EVALUATION FOR DEVELOPMENT
					<b>RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS (DEVELOPMENT IMPACTS)</b>	

Key project documents were used to acquire background knowledge on MHCC. Its history and role in the local Tanzanian context (the VET sector in Mwanza) were also charted. Documents were principally utilised in the form of statistics and descriptive data about MHCC in this research. I treated and read them critically by assessing their credibility. I realised that they were not solely an objective reflection



of reality but rather representations of their producers' viewpoints and specific versions of realities constructed for the purposes of certain audiences. Also, I noticed that these documents recorded institutional routines and simultaneously, recorded information necessary for legitimising how matters have been done in those routines. Organisations for which these documents had typically been produced included the MFA of Finland and Fida.<sup>447</sup>

The background questionnaires of 115 MHCC graduates were organised by writing them first in English on a computer. The answers, originally written in Swahili, were listed and categorised separately according their departments. Coding took place by creating the data matrices of each department: carpentry and joinery, tailoring, as well as welding and fabrication. Each questionnaire was marked with consecutive numbers. In the next phase, three separate datasheets were made based on the data received from the questionnaires. Thereafter, all replies of MHCC graduates were organised and listed, based on their numbers given to the data matrices (Figure 13).



**Figure 13.** Data sheets, created based on the answers of MHCC graduates' questionnaires, hanging on the wall (Pylvänäinen 2016)

Based on the questionnaire, the following information was received regarding each former student: personal details (name, sex, address, year of the birth, tribe, religion/denomination, marital status, number of children), year of graduation from

<sup>447</sup> Stake 1995, 68; Yin 2009a, 106

primary school and from MHCC, Grade of the Trade Test and its year of sitting, further education and training, current employment activities, and employment history. The coding scheme utilised in the data analysis emerged from the questionnaire itself.<sup>448</sup> The questions asked (see Appendix 5) were used as the variables in the matrix, per which the cases (former students of MHCC) varied. Some of the questionnaire questions were closed (e.g., sex, date and place of birth, tribe, religion, marital status, children; Trade Test grade, year, results, department,), while some were open, such as questions concerning work history after MHCC (places, duration, dates, type of work), a current workplace (type of work, date of beginning), and educational background (all studies from the primary to the tertiary level: courses, duration of courses, institutions attended, qualifications).

Data on changes experienced and socio-economic impacts contributed by VET at MHCC was generated by using one form of the life history method, which I called written stories. All 113 stories, written in Swahili by the former students, were assigned to groups based on their departments and all were translated from Swahili into English verbatim by the researcher before their analysis, and simultaneously typed on a computer. These narratives were then numbered with consecutive numbers, marked with a code of sex (F = female or M = male) and of departments (carpentry and joinery, tailoring, or welding and fabrication). As an illustration of this, the written story (WS) of the male (M) graduate with the number 53 from welding and fabrication (W&F) department, was marked as WS53, W&F, and M.

The former students were asked to evaluate in their written stories changes they have experienced as a result of their studies at MHCC from the perspective of their personal, socio-economic life, and their culture, traditions as well as customs. Similarly, they were requested to explain experienced changes and impacts of their VET on the lives of their extended families by describing their lives before, during and after the studies at MHCC, with examples. Furthermore, the graduates were encouraged to describe and compare their lives, their family life, and the lives of their communities or villages before and after their enrolment at MHCC. They were invited to illustrate their writings with examples regarding benefits and losses as well as of changes caused by studying at MHCC, and to make a comparison between their studies and staying at MHCC versus other study places. These former students were also given a chance to illuminate the situation from the perspective of their private and family life, from viewpoints of their extended family, local community and organisations (e.g., religious groups or other small groups they engaged in), at the time of their evaluation. In addition, they were offered the opportunity to tell more

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<sup>448</sup> Seale 2004, 313

about their economic situation, working situation, payments, and plans from that time period (Appendix 4).

In the case of MHCC, the personal and collective aspects, in terms of lived experience, were both intertwined. The lived experience concept was used for evaluating personal socio-economic VET impacts, while the case study strategy was utilised for conducting research on organisational evaluation impacts. Referring to the evaluation experiment, all stakeholders participating in the evaluation research had personal lived experience with the VET programme at MHCC and were involved in the evaluation process of this programme as well. The main target group of this evaluation experiment, the graduates of MHCC evaluated both positive and negative changes caused by VET and MHCC from their personal, extended family and community's viewpoints. This evaluation carried out by the former students in their written stories was done based on the primary themes given and expressed in the covering letter, with detailed instructions to the story writers provided by the researcher. For illustration, the graduates of MHCC were free to express and pick up the most significant changes, either positive or negative, to their lives originating from the VET studies at MHCC. After several readings of all the written data, my task, as research question number 1.2 demanded, was to create a holistic picture of each respondent when coding her or his data.

To find results for research questions 1.3 and 1.4, the third thematic interviews of four management group members of MHCC were conducted. These interviews addressed the actual individual, interpersonal and collective changes that had taken place since at MHCC between 2002 and the date of the interview conducted in 2006. In addition, feedback questionnaires were delivered for MHCC personnel and committee members to reveal characteristics of the process use of evaluation as well as evaluation impacts on participants at MHCC. Both datasets were analysed by first coding all responses based on various levels and types of evaluation impacts (Tables 8 and 9). Further, during the entire data generation process, two seminars and workshops were organised and used as data generation sources. Their group answers were written on the blackboard in English, as seen in some of the photographs provided by the researcher (Figures 12, 24 and 25), although English and Swahili were both used as the seminar languages.

Indeed, I modified a coding frame for evaluation impacts, on the grounds of the summary made from findings of scholars such as Amo and Cousins; Forss, Rebien and Carlsson; Kirkhart; Mark and Henry; as well as Patton.<sup>449</sup> The gathered data was

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<sup>449</sup> Amo & Cousins 2007, 22; Forss, Rebien & Carlsson 2002, 29–30; Kirkhart 2000, 7; 2005; 2011, 74–75; Mark & Henry 2004, 41; Patton 2007

coded into categories by the researcher (as demonstrated later in Table 8). Evaluation impacts were defined as cognitive (knowledge, skills), behavioural (actions, changes), affective (attitudes, motivations, affections) as well as social individual, interpersonal, collective (programmatic, institutional, policy) changes or actions taking place directly or indirectly, with learning taking place due to participation in the evaluation processes. In addition, during the group interview, key points and findings of the previous data generation processes were fed back to the participants to support those decision makers who were involved in the seminars and workshops. Two kinds of thematic interviews and a questionnaire as well as written stories were used as a database when analysing utilisation of VET based on the coding category, seen in Table 11.

PART II  
THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL FOUNDATIONS



### 3 REVIEW AND RENEW — EVALUATION IN LOCAL USE FOR IMPACTS

In this chapter, theoretical and practical foundations for this research on evaluation use and its impacts are laid. In the first place, we see how definitions characterising evaluation use vary per scholar. In the second place, key concepts linked to evaluation use, such as findings and process use of evaluation, are approached. In the third place, we look at a meaning of a process use concept from the perspectives of evaluation capacity development and learning. Then, evaluation use and evaluative learning are approached from the standpoints of various evaluation elements existing in the evaluation factor. Next, a coding frame for inquiry of evaluation impacts in the VET case at MHCC is set up. Finally, the evaluation process is used as the primary source of learning and assisted by using empowerment evaluation as the learning method.

We concentrate our attention on the evaluation factor, one of Alkin and Taut's three factors — contextual, evaluation and human — that influence evaluation use and its impacts. Because the political and financial constraints that inhibit evaluation utilisation, and which have been widely addressed in this report, were not things I could influence, I had the possibility in my evaluation experiment at MHCC to use my power to affect and influence evaluation and human factors instead, but I focussed chiefly on the evaluation potency from these determinants that colour evaluation use.<sup>450</sup> These parts of the evaluation factor, if referring to Saunders as well as Pickford and Brown,<sup>451</sup> covered the evaluation goal, the users' location, the evaluator's position, the evaluation design and methodology, as well as its time-line. In short, in this research they were primary ways of how to reach stronger evaluation impacts via the process use of evaluation at the local level of development intervention.

So, as a starting point of this discussion, we shift our focus from the viewpoints of accountability and learning (the key development evaluation targets set by the

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<sup>450</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003, 4; Taut & Alkin 2003, 263

<sup>451</sup> Pickford & Brown 2006; Saunders 2012

OECD-DAC<sup>452</sup>) to learning as the evaluation purpose prioritised (see Table 3). Evidently, a purpose, reason, function or an objective of evaluation affects evaluation utilisation and evaluation impacts and can enhance it.

When targeting stronger evaluation impacts, learning is regarded as a vital key not only at the personal level, but it is also considered a solution to an organisation's adaptation to uncertainties and challenges of the future, as well as generally to development. With the assistance of evaluation use organisational practices can be improved step by step. Then, evaluation can be used inside any organisation as an effective means for learning and changing, when moving towards excellence. Evaluation can be used as a tool of moving towards the organisation's goals (short term), mission (long term) and vision (the ultimate ideal), as takes place, for instance, with empowerment evaluation. Sanders noticed that to reach the consensus that evaluation is the core value of an organisation at all levels, requires shared values, assumptions, and meanings. The more widespread evaluation is as a core value, the more mainstreamed evaluation is likely to become, and the more evaluations will be conducted. Gaining a better understanding of the ways that organisations function and develop (i.e., learning) may lead to better identification of the ways of how to improve the organisation (i.e., renewal), which will in time contribute to increasing effectiveness along the path to excellence.<sup>453</sup> Revans emphasised that organisations' survival depends on their capacities to learn, principally to reflect and learn from past experiences. No learning takes place without action, and no sober and deliberate action without learning.<sup>454</sup>

On the other hand, the viewpoint emphasising the importance of social contacts in learning brings into discussion the term cumulative learning in which stakeholders, those people having a 'stake' in the intervention under study are brought into the evaluation process to establish a common construction of knowledge and reality as wide and deep as possible. For instance, Rebien viewed the evaluation process, if actualised as a continuous chain of events in the end, leads to emergence of the common construct of reality.<sup>455</sup> That is why Khakee also stated that in the evaluation process, if it is a dialectical, learning-oriented process; experiences and viewpoints can be spread from one participant to another. During this process "reality is probed into rather than discovered."<sup>456</sup> Knox saw that a combination of different modes of

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<sup>452</sup> OECD-DAC 1991

<sup>453</sup> Sanders 2002, 256–257

<sup>454</sup> Pedler 2016, xxi–xxii

<sup>455</sup> Rebien 1997, 449

<sup>456</sup> Khakee 2003, 343



learning makes the capacity building process most effective. And what is most important, evaluation skills can be taught by involving stakeholders actively in evaluation.<sup>457</sup> Learning does not happen independently of practice, but through interaction with others and the circumstances of that practice.<sup>458</sup>

In the environment of this research, viz. NGOs, we know that these organisations do not only survive but also develop in the uncertain, complex and volatile global environment by promoting learning, by managing knowledge and by becoming “learning organisations.”<sup>459</sup> Organisational learning or learning organisations<sup>460</sup> are popular concepts. To Hailey and James, the learning organisation is a synonym for any ongoing process of individual learning, capacity building and organisational development.<sup>461</sup> Cousins, Goh, Clark, and Lee reported in their study of 36 empirical studies that evaluation utilisation, evaluation capacity building and organisational learning have reference to each other and created an outline of how evaluation capacity was closely intertwined with organisational learning capacity to contribute to “organizational readiness for evaluation.”<sup>462</sup>

In fact, a learning organisation needs to continuously expand its capacity to create its future.<sup>463</sup> A case in point is Torres and Preskill, the intercessors of organisational learning through evaluative inquiry. They emphasised that organisations need new types of evaluations because of their various inadequate resources. These advocates of more flexible, internal evaluations saw that the recent shift to large-scale external evaluations, whose results are seldom used within the organisation, is a waste of time and resources. Further, it is increasingly recognised that external evaluations, which lack holistic understanding and insight into the given service or programme, are not always the best option. Conversely, these scholars substantiated that results of internal evaluations were utilised to gain a deeper understanding of and to develop local practices. Cousins and Leithwood also summarised that evaluations might be used with more probability if they focussed on implementation rather than exclusively on outcomes.<sup>464</sup>

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<sup>457</sup> Knox 1992 in Forss, Kruse, Taut & Tenden 2006, 130 and in Taut 2007b, 49; Weaver & Cousins 2004

<sup>458</sup> Schwandt 2005, 101

<sup>459</sup> Edwards 1997; Hailey & James 2002; Lewis 2001

<sup>460</sup> Senge (1990) defined a learning organisation as one which is “continuously expanding its capacity to create its future”.

<sup>461</sup> Hailey & James 2002, 399, 401–406

<sup>462</sup> Cousins, Goh, Clark & Lee 2004; Fleischer & Christie 2009, 161

<sup>463</sup> Senge 1990

<sup>464</sup> Cousins & Leithwood 1986 in Leviton 2003, 526; Preskill & Torres 1999; Torres & Preskill 2001

Indeed, NGOs face many challenges in their evaluations. Consistent with Snibbe's views, Carman demonstrated that the majority of NGOs not only lack capacities (time, resources) to carry out evaluation, but also suffer from gaps in evaluation design and expertise, evaluation data collection and evaluation use.<sup>465</sup> Fowler formulated a challenge to NGOs regarding how to transform information into organisational change; specifically "bring together facts and personal learning as primary information sources, then collectively make sense of what they mean and then translate the result into greater capacity to be agile."<sup>466</sup> Due to deficient NGO capabilities, more researchers have been interested in strengthening these organisations' evaluation capabilities by engaging in evaluation capacity development efforts as a part of the solution. This is demonstrated by Carman and Fredericks who studied US NGOs' (N = 179) evaluation capacity and their challenges faced in relation to resources, evaluation expertise, implementation issues, as well as leadership and support when carrying out evaluation.<sup>467</sup>

### 3.1 Evaluation use

Evaluation utilisation has been a constant topic of lively debate and of research on evaluation since the 1970s.<sup>468</sup> It is arguably the most studied evaluation area.<sup>469</sup> Despite the substantial and ever-increasing American literature on the theme, oddly, evaluation use has been left remarkably untouched in the European context, let alone in Africa, the context of this research.<sup>470</sup> Indeed, studies conducted on evaluation use in the African context, except for Marra and Podems, which I know, are rare.

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<sup>465</sup> Carman 2010, 256; Snibbe 2006

<sup>466</sup> Fowler 2000, 138

<sup>467</sup> Carman & Fredericks 2010, 84–104

<sup>468</sup> e.g., Alkin & Taut 2003; Amo & Cousins 2007; Balthasar 2009; Baptiste 2010; Bhola 1990; Carlsson 2000; Chelimsky 1995; 1998; Christie 2007; Cousins & Shulha 2006; Dahler-Larsen 2009; Davidson 2005; Feinstein 2002; Fetterman 2001; Fleischer & Christie 2009; Forss, Cracknell & Samset 1994; Forss, Rebien & Carlsson 2002; Harnar & Preskill 2007; Henry & Mark 2003; Johnson 1998; Johnson, Greenseid, Toal, King, Lawrenz & Volkov 2009; King 2007; Kirkhart 2000; 2005; 2011; Ledermann 2012; Lehtonen 2005; Leviton 2003; Lindqvist 1999; Mark 2011; Mark & Henry 2004; Marra 2000; Patton 1997; 2007; Podems 2007; Preskill 2004; Preskill, Zukerman & Matthews 2003; Raivola 2000; Rajavaara 1999; Rönnholm 2005; Saunders 2012; Schaumburg-Müller 2005; Stufflebeam & Shinkfield 2007; Taut 2007c; Valovirta 2002; Vedung 1997; Weiss 1988; 1998; 1999; Widmer & Neuenschwander 2004

<sup>469</sup> see e.g., Christie 2007, 8; Fleischer & Christie 2009, 171; Mark & Henry 2004, 35

<sup>470</sup> Christie 2007, 8; Ferry & Olejniczak 2008; Fleischer & Christie 2009, 171; Mark & Henry 2004, 35; Marra 2000; Podems 2007; Saunders 2012, 422

When Marra studied utilisation of evaluations in the development field and concentrated on the use of evaluation findings of the World Bank Institute to contribute to anti-corruption activities in East Africa, Podems conducted a case narrative on process use of an HIV/AIDS programme evaluation in Southern Africa.<sup>471</sup>

When speaking generally about use, such features as dissemination, diffusion, application, and exploitation are essential, as is the word utilisation. Again, usefulness, usability, use or utility of evaluation, whatever you want to call it, has become a significant indicator to measure evaluation quality. Utility, one among other standards of evaluation quality — feasibility, propriety, accuracy, and evaluation accountability — set for evaluation by the Joint Committee on Standards for Educational Evaluation, basically ensures that intended users of evaluation could gain the needed information from evaluation.<sup>472</sup> For instance, the OECD-DAC went further by differentiating in evaluation use such concepts as evaluation feedback and dissemination. To them feedback ensures that evaluation lessons become part of a learning cycle within organisations rather than just dissemination, distribution of evaluation findings.<sup>473</sup> Feedback, then, is essential not only when referring to new development activities, but also is worth linking directly and strongly to existing, on-going development activities. Manifestly, these kinds of capacities need to be developed, for on-going practices are essential for conducting and managing evaluations, and crucial in promoting both ownership and the use of evaluation processes.<sup>474</sup>

Evaluation use is a contributory factor in evaluation impact. The changes originating from evaluation utilisation are called various things. These evaluation impacts, results, consequences, outcomes, and influences can cover, for instance, improvement and development in practices of an intervention, or decision making based on evaluation findings about this intervention, or the process of learning through collaborative evaluation practices.<sup>475</sup> Mark and Henry, as well as Kirkhart (in her 3-dimensional integrated theory of evaluation influence) prefer to call these outcomes evaluation influences.<sup>476</sup> To Kirkhart this influence was a person or thing's

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<sup>471</sup> Marra 2000; Podems 2007

<sup>472</sup> Kuula 1999, 30; Rajavaara 1999, 34–35; Rönholm 2005, 62; Stufflebeam & Shinkfield 2007, 87, 90–92; Yarbrough, Shulha, Hopson & Caruthers 2011

<sup>473</sup> OECD-DAC 1990 in OECD-DAC 2001, 60

<sup>474</sup> see e.g., Feinstein & Beck 2006, 541

<sup>475</sup> Raivola 2000, 66; Weiss 1998, 21, 23

<sup>476</sup> Kirkhart 2000, 7; 2005; 2011, 74–75; Mark & Henry 2004, 46

power or capacity to contribute effects on the others by using the evaluation in different ways,<sup>477</sup> while to Saunders as well as Pickford and Brown, they were simply evaluation impacts.<sup>478</sup>

Traditionally, evaluation use is narrowly linked with utilisation of evaluation findings. These results, with conclusions or recommendations used, are typically written on evaluation reports published.<sup>479</sup> This is exemplified, for instance, in the studies made by Valovirta and Ledermann. Valovirta dealt with evaluation utilisation as argumentation in his empirical study made on the use of evaluations in Finnish government agencies in 2002. He accomplished this by studying the important roles of all accessible evaluation reports from argumentative perspectives: discussion, dialogue and argumentation.<sup>480</sup> Ledermann identified conditions which are necessary but insufficient for evaluation use when studying 11 Swiss development program and project evaluations in 2011.<sup>481</sup> Evaluation use, in these cases, has been inquired from the viewpoints of which procedures and implications have been taken, after the evaluation, on the grounds of recommendations through feedback processes.<sup>482</sup>

Evaluation use has various definitions. If Christie regards evaluation use as “the effect the evaluation has on the evaluand—the ‘thing’ being evaluated—and those connected to the evaluand;”<sup>483</sup> then Saunders’s definition is consonant with Weiss’, where evaluation use simply stands for producing positive change.<sup>484</sup> Johnson, Greenseid, Toal, King, Lawrenz, and Volkov used the evaluation use or utilisation concepts interchangeably by defining evaluation use “as the application of evaluation processes, products, or findings to produce an effect.”<sup>485</sup>

However, not only can the findings of evaluation be used, but the process of evaluation can be used also, as Mark, Patton, Vedung, as well as Alkin and Taut emphasised.<sup>486</sup> Saunders also named the process use in his typologies of evaluation use apart from instrumental, conceptual, enlightenment, and persuasive or symbolic (justificatory) uses.<sup>487</sup> To Kirkhart the source for the change in evaluation can be

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<sup>477</sup> Kirkhart 2000, 7; 2005; 2011, 74–75

<sup>478</sup> Pickford & Brown 2006, 4; Saunders 2012, 427–431, 434

<sup>479</sup> Patton 1998, 225

<sup>480</sup> Valovirta 2002, 78

<sup>481</sup> Ledermann 2012, 159–178

<sup>482</sup> Forss, Rebien & Carlsson 2002, 29; Laukkanen 1998, 154

<sup>483</sup> Christie 2007, 8

<sup>484</sup> Saunders 2012, 433; Weiss 1998, 31

<sup>485</sup> Johnson, Greenseid, Toal, King, Lawrenz & Volkov 2009, 378

<sup>486</sup> Mark 2011; Patton 2007, 99; Vedung 1997

<sup>487</sup> Saunders 2012, 425

either the evaluation process, then called process-based, or evaluation findings, known as results-based, or their combination.<sup>488</sup> Besides these two elements, Christie and Alkin as well as Cousins and Shulha identified a third evaluation dimension, the commissioning of the evaluation, which could be utilised as well.<sup>489</sup>

Both evaluation findings and processes can be used instrumentally according to Alkin and Taut, either conceptually or legitimately. This means that instrumental or conceptual findings can be produced either formatively or in a summative way, while legitimate use refers only to summative evaluations and legitimisation of decisions based on evaluation findings.<sup>490</sup> To Greene, instrumental use of evaluation is action-oriented, conceptual use is learning and education-oriented; while symbolic use is either persuasive or politically-oriented.<sup>491</sup>

The direct, linear, instrumental use of evaluation has typically taken place after the evaluation is at least partly complete. Then, evaluation recommendations and findings have been used in the decision-making process and problem solving to modify and improve, in some way, the object of evaluation, the *evaluand*.<sup>492</sup> To Carlsson, an evaluation is instrumental if “the operations are tried and tested and where the results from such a testing are fed back into the planning and implementation of the operations.”<sup>493</sup> In addition, evaluation processes can be used instrumentally, to generate actions. When referring to evaluation purposes, judgement-oriented and improvement-oriented evaluations include the instrumental use of evaluation based on which actions are taken.<sup>494</sup>

The conceptual evaluation is used for educative purposes.<sup>495</sup> This type of evaluation use is also called enlightenment. It refers to changes occurring in thoughts, ideas, insights, concepts, generalisations, and feelings while evaluating.<sup>496</sup> Through understanding, conceptualising (conceptual schema) and learning, thinking can be stimulated regarding issues, and knowledge or understanding can be

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<sup>488</sup> Kirkhart 2000, 7; 2005; 2011, 74–75

<sup>489</sup> Christie & Alkin 1999, 3–6; Cousins & Shulha 2006; Rich 1977 in Baptiste 2010, 46; Shulha & Cousins 1997

<sup>490</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003, 7

<sup>491</sup> Greene 1986 in Garaway 1995, 88

<sup>492</sup> Harnar & Preskill 2007, 27; Ledermann 2012, 160; Mark 2011, 106; Nevo 2009, 297; Saunders 2012, 425; Shulha & Cousins 1997; Weiss 1998, 23–24

<sup>493</sup> Carlsson 2000, 121

<sup>494</sup> Mark & Henry 2004, 36; Mark 2009, 61; Patton 1997, 70

<sup>495</sup> see also Harnar & Preskill 2007, 27; Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein & Cousins 2009, 195; Mark 2009, 61–62; 2011, 106; Mark & Henry 2004, 36; Nevo 2009, 297; Patton 1997, 72; Shulha & Cousins 1997

<sup>496</sup> Mark 2011, 108; Mark & Henry 2004, 36

improved about a problem or its solution,<sup>497</sup> in order that old ideas can be questioned by providing new views as a result of evaluation findings or processes. Both evaluation elements could be used by the local program people by increasing knowledge and creating new ways of structuring program operations.<sup>498</sup> This can take place without influencing decisions or activities; so that anyone's — not only those participating in the program or its evaluation — knowledge in the field can be generated, or through rearranging the policy agenda, for instance.<sup>499</sup> Next, we concentrate on the processual use of evaluation in more detail.

## 3.2 Process use of evaluation

*Process use of evaluation defined.* Process use is a widely used concept in the theoretical literature on evaluation use. Several scholars, such as Baptiste, have tried to define this term. In his model of the process use concept and its meanings, the findings of scholars such as Amo and Cousins, Forss *et al.*, Kirkhart, as well as Patton were unified.<sup>500</sup> Nevertheless, empirical analyses on the process use concept are few,<sup>501</sup> as Johnson *et al.* confirmed in their review of empirical literature from 41 studies on evaluation use between the years 1986 and 2005. Of these 41 studies, only three explored the process use.<sup>502</sup> However, there is contradictory evidence available as well, for Amo and Cousins investigated many more studies, (18, specifically) conducted on the topic between the years 1984 and 2005.<sup>503</sup>

The question posed by Harnar and Preskill was “What does process use look like?” Their puzzle was solved by 1,140 evaluators of the American Evaluation Association in their web-based exploratory survey in 2007. To the majority of survey respondents (N = 481) the process use was something happening while evaluating or with involvement in it, while to a smaller group it was intertwined with work practices as learning and change or evaluation capacity building.<sup>504</sup> To Patton the process use of evaluation “is indicated by individual changes in thinking and

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<sup>497</sup> Mark 2009, 61; Patton 1997, 70

<sup>498</sup> Carlsson 2000, 121; Mark 2011, 108; Weiss 1998, 24

<sup>499</sup> Saunders 2012, 425; Weiss 1998, 23–24; 1999, 468, 472

<sup>500</sup> Amo & Cousins 2007, 22; Baptiste 2010, 58; Forss, Rebien & Carlsson 2002, 29–30; Kirkhart 2000, 7; 2005; 2011, 74–75; Patton 2007, 99

<sup>501</sup> Jacob, Ouvrard & Bélanger 2011, 114

<sup>502</sup> Johnson, Greenesid, Toal, King, Lawrenz & Volkov 2009, 378

<sup>503</sup> Amo & Cousins 2007

<sup>504</sup> Harnar & Preskill 2007, 32

behaviour, and program or organizational changes in procedures and culture that occur among those involved in evaluation as a result of the learning that occurs during the evaluation process.”<sup>505</sup> In Taut’s vocabulary, evaluation process use was quite simply whatever cause the process use contributed to the effects achieved.<sup>506</sup>

To Preskill, Zuckerman and Matthews the question of process use is in which ways individuals learn about the evaluand, about the practice of evaluation, and from their engagement in an evaluation study. To them, process use meant an individual construction of new knowledge and development of a shared reality through involvement with other participants in evaluation in the context of the situation. Then, these participants’ past experiences were interpreted and integrated.<sup>507</sup> Lawrenz, Huffman and McGinnis saw that evaluation process use includes both direct impact plus process and indirect impact of evaluation process.<sup>508</sup> King also grasped an interesting meaning of process use when identifying key elements for an intentional process use, as follows: organisational context as the environment enabling evaluative learning; users/clients as the learners in the process use; the evaluator as its teacher; as well as the evaluation process and evaluation findings as its curriculum.<sup>509</sup>

*Evaluation purpose in processual evaluation use: Learning for impacts prioritised.* To Patton the evaluation process is worth utilising due to its six areas of profitability. First, through this intervention-oriented evaluation, shared understandings about the programme can be enhanced among those involved in it. Second, the programme can be reinforced and improved as well as third, its organisation developed. Fourth, through process use, participatory and empowerment evaluation, participants’ engagement, self-determination, commitment, and sense of ownership (empowerment) could be increased and evaluative learning facilitated. Fifth, the process use has instrumentation effects; it infuses evaluation thinking into an organisation’s culture. Finally, Patton clarified the profit of this processual evaluation use by saying what gets measured gets done.<sup>510</sup>

Compared with Patton, Forss *et al.* identified five benefits from using the evaluation process. Among these positive outcomes were developing networks,

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<sup>505</sup> Patton 1997, 90

<sup>506</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003, 7; Taut 2007b

<sup>507</sup> Preskill, Zuckerman & Matthews 2003, 423–424

<sup>508</sup> Lawrenz, Huffman & McGinnis 2007

<sup>509</sup> Forss, Rebien & Carlsson 2002, 29–30; King 2007, 47

<sup>510</sup> Patton 1997, 91, 111; 1998, 225–233; 2007, 103, 110; see also Forss, Rebien & Carlsson 2002, 32; Harnar & Preskill 2007, 27

extending communication and boosting morale.<sup>511</sup> Patton, Saunders, and Johnson all found additional advantages to be gained from the process use of evaluation; through the engagement process the participants can learn to think in the evaluative way, like an evaluator via learning.<sup>512</sup> In addition, Johnson and Patton stated that it is most especially this learning and involvement in the evaluation process that can contribute to long-lasting effects on the participants and their organisations. Most importantly, these impacts could last much longer and be greater than those originating solely from an evaluation's findings.<sup>513</sup> Patton argued that "Findings have a very short 'half-life' .... They deteriorate very quickly as the world changes rapidly. Specific findings typically have a small window of relevance."<sup>514</sup> Next, we concentrate on this evaluative learning through the models created by Amo and Cousins, as well as Mark and Henry, in more detail.

Amo and Cousins modelled positive outcomes of the process use of evaluation in Table 7. Their refined model originated from Mark and Henry's typology of evaluation influences with four types of mechanisms contributing to social betterment at three levels or stages: the individual, the interpersonal and the collective stage. These processes were general; cognitive and affective (or attitudinal) (e.g., changes in thoughts and feelings); motivational (e.g., goals and aspirations to receive rewards or avoid punishment); and behavioural. Amo and Cousins demonstrated four types or stages in their representation based on content analysis of the literature on direct or empirical studies on process use of evaluation (N = 18) from the years 1984–2005: learning, action or behaviour, attitude or affect, and other.<sup>515</sup>

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<sup>511</sup> Forss, Rebien & Carlsson 2002, 29–45; see also Lawrenz, Huffman & McGinnis 2007, 75

<sup>512</sup> Johnson 1998, 94; Patton 2008, 108; Preskill, Zukerman & Matthews 2003, 423; Saunders 2012, 425

<sup>513</sup> Johnson 1998, 94; Patton 1997, 88. See also Mark & Henry 2004, 36.

<sup>514</sup> Patton 1998, 226

<sup>515</sup> Amo & Cousins 2007, 22; Cousins 2003 in Mark & Henry 2004, 37–38; Henry 2000, in Henry 2003, 516–517; Henry & Mark 2003; Mark 2011; Mark & Henry 2004



**Table 7.** What counts as process use to Amo and Cousins?<sup>516</sup>

LEARNING	ACTION OR BEHAVIOR	ATTITUDE OR AFFECT	OTHER
Enlightenment	Not repeating previous action	Improved morale	Shared experience
Concept development	Deciding to act on feedback from evaluator, on basis of participation in process	Personal growth	Organized reflection
Confirming prior impressions	Requesting assistance from evaluator	Professional growth	Social justice
Awareness of key issues knowledge development (about evaluation in general, evaluative inquiry, benefits of evaluation)	Modifying practice, integrating evaluative inquiry in work practices	Self-examination	Programme and project changes, strengthening of service
Expertise development	Using evaluation data, results, findings	Empowerment, belief in ability to influence change	Organizational improvement, development
Research skills, ability to implement elements of evaluation inquiry	Using evaluation skills	Self-determination	Creation of relationships, developing professional networks
Cognitive changes	Changing behavior	Better understanding, respect of others	Opportunity (to test out partnerships)
Greater shared understanding	Developing plan	Appreciation of evaluation	Public declaration of commitment (by being part of evaluation group)
Ability to train others	Developing indicators, recommendations	Sense of ownership	Overall evaluation experience
Learning to learn, ability to recognize other learning opportunities	Transferring decision-making power	Fostered independence	
Learning about programme, intervention, organization	Acting on other opportunities for learning	Role reconceptualization	
		Enhanced political self-esteem	
		Increased engagement	
		Desire to keep using skill	

To Amo and Cousins one of the advantages of the processual use of evaluation was learning. It could be manifested in enlightenment, cognitive changes and shared understanding. Again, this learning could become apparent from knowledge development of evaluation concepts, logic, its facilitation and implementation; as well as knowledge about the programme, its environment and other learning opportunities. Secondly, this evaluative learning, the process use of evaluation, which Amo and Cousins termed behaviour or action, known in Mark and Henry’s model as the behavioral stage, could contribute to changes modifying practices; changing conduct; integrating evaluation into programme activities or transferring decision-making power. Thirdly, attitudinal or affective changes, known in Mark and Henry’s vocabulary as motivational and affective influences, were identifiable through

<sup>516</sup> Amo & Cousins 2007, 22

evaluation appreciation; empowerment, self-determination and self-reflection; morale improvement; as well as personal and professional growth. Finally, due to the processual use of evaluation Amo and Cousins noted other encouraging signs (which Mark and Henry labelled general evaluation influences), such as better programme services; social justice; professional networking and partnerships; organisational development; or organised reflection.<sup>517</sup>

Chelimsky and Patton, who emphasised the evaluation use, said that the evaluation purpose determines the value of each evaluation<sup>518</sup>. Dahler-Larsen reminds us that *if learning in evaluation is desired then, first and foremost, evaluation's key purpose must be learning*; precisely, learning from and through evaluation<sup>519</sup>. To Carden, “if evaluation is to serve a learning function, then the shift must be to a purpose of empowerment.<sup>520</sup>” This learning can take place, for instance, by means of empowerment evaluation, as Carden stressed, and as was done in this research. Regarding learning as the evaluation purpose, Preskill *et al.* formulated that stakeholders “must understand that a goal of the evaluation is to learn — to learn from the evaluation’s findings, but also to learn about evaluation practice, the organization, and themselves.<sup>521</sup>” In this light, understandably, some scholars, like Preskill and Torres, have called on evaluators to teach stakeholders relevant skills through on-the-job facilitation and have emphasised (consistent with Dahler-Larsen) the function of evaluation itself: learning while evaluating.<sup>522</sup>

Some scholars link the process use of evaluation to evaluation capacity development. This development can refer to the conducting of evaluation, or (for some) to its utilisation, and (for still others) even to both. For instance, Amo and Cousins found theoretical linkages between process use, evaluation capacity development and organisational learning, and linked process use to preparation of an organisation for evaluation by developing its capacity both to conduct and to utilise evaluation.<sup>523</sup> Likewise, to Stockdill, Baizerman and Compton evaluation capacity development meant its routine utilisation in overall organisational processes and its qualified execution. Consistent with their definition, Labin, Duffy, Meyers, Wandersman, and Lesesne linked evaluation capacity development to a group or

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<sup>517</sup> Amo & Cousins 2007, 21–23; Mark & Henry 2004, 41

<sup>518</sup> Chelimsky 1997; Patton 1997

<sup>519</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009, 312, 320; Suzuki 2000, 99–100

<sup>520</sup> Carden 1998, 67

<sup>521</sup> Preskill, Zuckerman & Matthews 2003, 438

<sup>522</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009, 312, 320; Preskill 2004, 348–354; Preskill & Torres 1999

<sup>523</sup> Amo & Cousins 2007, 7, 22

organisation's ability and intention to carry out or use evaluation by increasing a person's motivation, knowledge and skills.<sup>524</sup> Patton crystallised and summarised Amo and Cousins's view on both consequences of evaluation, namely findings' use and process use, which could happen during an evaluation simultaneously if evaluation inquiry included evaluation capacity building.<sup>525</sup>

*Key evaluation users/learners and user levels in processual evaluation use: the locals.* Different actors (evaluators, managers, stakeholders) benefit from different types of evaluation use. However, appropriate and relevant methodological solutions should be chosen if the aim of evaluation is to reach stronger evaluation impacts via the process use of evaluation at the local level of development intervention. For instance, Weiss recommended for local stakeholders to be involved, not only professionals of the programme staff (managers, sponsors, board members) but also the public and clients who had a stake in the programme, with participatory methods in the evaluation study. To Weiss, evaluation users were both individuals and the organisation within which these individuals function.<sup>526</sup>

In addition, Saunders emphasised that the awareness of an evaluation can be improved through enhancing and strengthening engagement, from low level distribution of evaluation outcomes to interactional, collaborative and creative applications and actions.<sup>527</sup> Forss, Cracknell and Samset compared two ways of how evaluations result in learning — via involvement and communication — but noted (as did Suzuki), that neither of these happen automatically.<sup>528</sup> As expected, Forss, Kruse, Taut, and Tenden provided evidence that this active engagement in evaluative practices generated individual learning more quickly than passive communication itself through rapid development of knowledge structures. In addition, they saw that one-way passive communication or feedback of evaluation information seemed to have had more impact on learning at the organisational level.<sup>529</sup>

*The role of the evaluator in process use: Learning requires active involvement and facilitation of the stakeholders in evaluation.* Learning is one of the official key purposes set for development evaluation by OECD-DAC,<sup>530</sup> but for this to actually take place,

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<sup>524</sup> Labin, Duffy, Meyers, Wandersman & Lesesne 2012, 308; Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein & Cousins 2009; Stockdill, Baizerman & Compton 2002, 14

<sup>525</sup> Amo & Cousins 2007; Patton 2007, 105–106

<sup>526</sup> Weiss 1998, 27–32

<sup>527</sup> Saunders 2012, 427, 432–433

<sup>528</sup> Forss, Cracknell & Samset 1994; Suzuki 2000, 88

<sup>529</sup> Forss, Kruse, Taut & Tenden 2006, 129

<sup>530</sup> OECD-DAC 1991

participants must be given every chance to be active in the evaluative learning process and gain entry to actual evaluation situations. Understandably, participation as an instrumental part of learning, has belonged to the rhetoric of many international organisations, like the World Bank, the United Nations, and NGOs as well, after becoming a required component in the jargon of evaluation, assessment, appraisals, training, and research projects.<sup>531</sup>

Active participation, the vital requirement for learning, enhances relevance, ownership and deep engagement in development processes. The importance of the locals' engagement and devotion to the evaluation was confirmed, for example, by Alaimo; Dahler-Larsen; Dewey; Forss *et al.*; Papineau and Kiely; Khakee; Rebien; as well as Thayer and Fine.<sup>532</sup> Practitioners had to be involved in the evaluation process, the activity with a learning purpose, if learning at the individual and collective levels were the desired goal.<sup>533</sup> To Shulha and Cousins, commitment and involvement of evaluation users in an evaluation process are the primary ways of how to contribute to evaluation use.<sup>534</sup> Likewise, the following passage from Suzuki emphasises how learning as a process requires active involvement.

Fashionable terms in international development such as 'participation', 'sustainability' and 'empowerment' all imply that learning is key to the success of development efforts. First, because learning is not a good that one can obtain instantly but rather is a process that entails changes in oneself, participation is a necessary condition for learning. Second, as learning takes place within an individual, constituting internal changes within the learner, it can be sustained without interventions from outside. Third, learning constitutes empowerment, for it develops one's capacity. These links between learning and key concepts in development indicate its centrality to development efforts.<sup>535</sup>

Also, Levin agreed that evaluation use can be supported by engagement. To him active participation in evaluation contributes to evaluation use in various ways. Firstly, involvement tends to increase utilisation of evaluation results (the pragmatic concern). Secondly, participation enables the representation of values and concerns of multiple groups involved in decision-making (the philosophical or methodological concern). Thirdly, disenfranchised stakeholders — previously locked out of the

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<sup>531</sup> Brydon-Miller, Greenwood & Maguire 2003, 24

<sup>532</sup> Papineau & Kiely 1996

<sup>533</sup> Suzuki 2000, 88

<sup>534</sup> Shulha & Cousins 1997, 195–208

<sup>535</sup> Suzuki 2000, 88

process — could become empowered<sup>536</sup> through increased involvement (the political concern).<sup>537</sup> Finally, a culture of learning can be built by teaching evaluation logic and skills during participation in evaluation.<sup>538</sup>

A link between intensity of actor involvement and process use was detected by Jacob, Ouvrard and Bélanger. Their case study within a social service organisation among 28 individuals in Canada in 2011 revealed that if an organisation needs rapid changes, then participant learning, and a process use are worth valuing while evaluating. They analysed the link between participatory evaluation as well as the effects and lessons attributable to the evaluative process. In their evaluative process, favouring participant learning had many indirect and direct impacts on the practices of those involved. Positive results included more diverse lessons, reinforcement of evaluation abilities, and rapid practice changes. Consequently, the learning of the stakeholders was reflected in a better understanding of evaluation as well as better learning, which had a bearing on everyday work, the functions of the programme, its activities and the organisation.<sup>539</sup>

Thayer and Fine studied the relationship between stakeholders' participation levels and evaluation use among 140 US non-profit organisations. They found that evaluations with a high level of stakeholder participation were more likely to be used than with a low level of stakeholder involvement. These scholars documented statistically significant differences between evaluation with high and low stakeholders' participation for the following uses: to improve programme outcomes or impact (92% compared 64%); to design an ongoing monitoring or evaluation process (73% compared 47%); to promote the programme to potential beneficiaries (73% compared 47%); to respond to questions or criticism about the programme (65% compared 47%); and to determine resource allocation within the organisation (58% compared 22%).<sup>540</sup> Moreover, Thayer and Fine, when dealing with usefulness of the evaluations, stated that the respondents with high stakeholder participation rated their evaluations highly useful when compared to those with low stakeholder involvement (85% compared with 74%).<sup>541</sup> In brief, the scholars distilled the main results by saying that “evaluations are more useful, credible, and satisfying to non-profit agencies when they have a solid and focused design, document programmatic

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<sup>536</sup> Papineau & Kiely 1996, 81; Patton 1997, 101

<sup>537</sup> Levin in Patton 1997, 101; Papineau & Kiely 1996, 81

<sup>538</sup> Levin in Patton 1997, 99–100

<sup>539</sup> Jacob, Ouvrard & Bélanger 2011, 113, 121–122

<sup>540</sup> Thayer & Fine 2001, 105–106

<sup>541</sup> Thayer & Fine 2001, 105–106

success, offer recommendations for program improvement, and involve stakeholders.”<sup>542</sup>

*The role of the evaluator, to link evaluation to local use by considering its local methodological relevance: collaborative methods needed.* Shulha and Cousins summarised some facts, mainly from the perspectives of evaluation users, which have an influence on evaluation utilisation: evaluation design, evaluation information being applicable for the utilisers, and the level of information available.<sup>543</sup> Similar results were exemplified by Contandriopoulos and Brousselle as well, for whom the use of evaluation results could be intensified by considering the evaluation process, the evaluator's role, the evaluation model chosen, and the evaluation context itself.<sup>544</sup>

Consistent with these findings, Preskill *et al.* emphasised the learning aspect in the process use of evaluation and its possibilities to offer chances for real participation. They recommended participatory and collaborative evaluation approaches employed in process use; to be familiarised with the ways of how individuals learn about the evaluand and evaluation practice as well with the methods for their engagement in an evaluation.<sup>545</sup> The findings of Patton, as well as of Preskill *et al.* supported the view that increasing interest of stakeholders' involvement in evaluation by employing, for instance, collaborative, participatory, empowerment, or learning-oriented approaches will strengthen stakeholders' sense of ownership and their commitment to evaluation; can increase the organisation's adaptability and build evaluative capacity within the organisation. It enables participants to learn about evaluation practices through learning opportunities, it increases the use of evaluation findings, and it also produces more useful recommendations. In addition, the use of collaborative methods not only promotes the use of evaluation findings, but also makes evaluation more democratic by equalising power distributions and narrowing power distances.<sup>546</sup>

On-going individual learning can become collective learning through participation, formal learning, research, practice, or evaluation in cooperation with external actors and locals, resulting in collective learning, capacity building and organisational development, as Hailey and James put it.<sup>547</sup> If aiming at evaluation

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<sup>542</sup> Thayer & Fine 2001, 108

<sup>543</sup> Shulha & Cousins 1997, 195–208

<sup>544</sup> Contandriopoulos & Brousselle 2012

<sup>545</sup> Preskill, Zuckerman & Matthews 2003, 424

<sup>546</sup> Forss, Rebieu & Carlsson 2002, 31; MacNeil 2002, 48; Patton 1997, 100; 2007, 110; Preskill, Zuckerman & Matthews 2003, 424

<sup>547</sup> Hailey & James 2002, 399, 401–406

utilisation, evaluation should be embedded in organisational practices. Thus, capacity development can be performed among individuals, groups, or/and an organisation to teach and learn strategies to enhance individuals', groups', and organisations' learning of effective, useful and professional evaluation practices, as Preskill and Boyle illustrated in their Multidisciplinary evaluation capacity building model.<sup>548</sup>

There are methods to be used for strengthening learning in, and on, evaluation. Stevenson, along with his research fellows Florin, Scott Mills, and Andrade, reported some useful methods to develop evaluation capacity. Based on their case study of 13 US community-based organisations, needs assessments, on-site technical assistance, a workshop series, and selected model projects, were all documented as helpful in developing evaluation capacity. Also, their study showed that this capacity development contributed to gaining a deeper understanding of evaluation. This meant that evaluation was no longer regarded as an isolated activity but rather a way to improve quality continuously.<sup>549</sup>

Arnold, Taylor-Powell and Boyd highlighted the importance of team-based approaches in evaluation capacity building in complex organisations. They see that learning through practice and by using collaborative evaluation projects, as well as utilising expertise and resources in peer-learning, has more impact and promotes sustained change. To them, individual-level learning is more likely to take place if the new information is linked directly to a person's experiences, because this type of learning happens through changes in knowledge structures (schemas) by assimilating new information.<sup>550</sup>

Swantz argued that participatory evaluations as continuing, regular processes put into the project's monitoring practices could generally reduce the need for external evaluations,<sup>551</sup> which paralleled Fetterman's findings of how, by means of processual evaluation use, seeds of capacity building could be sown, helping to avoid becoming dependent on external consultants.<sup>552</sup> Nevertheless, it was important to recognise that an evaluation process did not automatically create transferable learning or lead to capacity building, which is agreed to by several scholars.<sup>553</sup>

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<sup>548</sup> Preskill & Boyle 2008a, 444–445

<sup>549</sup> Stevenson, Florin, Scott Mills & Andrade 2002, 233–243

<sup>550</sup> Arnold 2006, 267–268; Morgan 2002, in Taut 2007c, 49; Taylor-Powell & Boyd 2008, 59, 67; Torres 1994 in Taut 2007c, 50

<sup>551</sup> Armytage 2011, 273; Narayan-Parker 1991 in Rebien 1997, 447–448; Rebien 1997, 448; Swantz 1992; Turnbull 1999, 131

<sup>552</sup> Fetterman 2005b, 67, 71

<sup>553</sup> Forss, Kruse, Taut & Tenden 2006, 139; Preskill, Zukerman & Matthews 2003, 423–442

To Levin-Rozalis *et al.* “learning by doing” was a central way in indirect evaluation capacity building to enable non-evaluator stakeholders to participate in the process.<sup>554</sup> Levin-Rozalis and Rosenstein studied humanitarian organisations<sup>555</sup> and regarded evaluation capacity building as an evaluator’s professional duty, to assist stakeholders to understand evaluation logic, its power and develop skills. Evaluation capacity can be developed by employing a mix of participative and utilisation-focussed approaches; by arranging participative workshops and on-the-job training, by ensuring the collaborators’ continuity; and by disseminating activities to a varied public.<sup>556</sup> Levin-Rozalis and Rosenstein’s views were supported by Preskill and Boyle as well in their Multidisciplinary evaluation capacity building model. They emphasised that the evaluation process should be a tool for transformative learning.<sup>557</sup> In describing a practice-oriented evaluation approach, Schwandt called for evaluators to take a “pedagogical” approach to capacity building<sup>558</sup> to advance the locals’ preferences, priorities and knowledge, so that they could have easy-access to evaluation processes and results.<sup>559</sup>

How individuals, teams and organisations get better at evaluating and simultaneously develop their evaluation capacities, was the topic which interested Forss *et al.* They carried out their experiment inside UNESCO by using the “learning by doing” approach, as well as by linking evaluation capacity building and participatory evaluation. The primary stakeholders were taught during their active engagement in the evaluation process. Forss *et al.* noted that learning was faster if it was combined with guidance, for instance, with initial training, ongoing mentoring and support from other materials.<sup>560</sup> In this light, some scholars, such as Preskill and Torres, have called evaluators to teach stakeholders relevant skills through on-the-job facilitation.<sup>561</sup> Consistent with Dahler-Larsen, they emphasised the function of evaluation itself, which is learning while evaluation.<sup>562</sup> Likewise, referring to development evaluation, Dabelstein favoured strengthening evaluation capacity when simultaneously carrying out evaluation. This could take place through

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<sup>554</sup> Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein & Cousins 2009, 206

<sup>555</sup> Levin-Rozalis & Rosenstein 2005

<sup>556</sup> Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein & Cousins 2009, 206

<sup>557</sup> Preskill & Boyle 2008a

<sup>558</sup> Schwandt 2005, 103 in Taut 2007b, 48

<sup>559</sup> see e.g., Berg 2000; Carlsson 2000; Edgren 2000

<sup>560</sup> Forss, Kruse, Taut & Tenden 2006, 129–130, 139–142

<sup>561</sup> Preskill & Torres 1999

<sup>562</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009, 312, 320; Preskill 2004, 348–354; Preskill & Torres 1999



“learning by doing” training and undertaking joint evaluations to improve the evaluation capacity of partner countries and in assisting them to develop an “evaluation culture.”<sup>563</sup>

By increasing the involvement of participants and stakeholders, learning and empowerment among the locals could be generated. As learning takes place in a social context, as Dewey put it, social contacts need to be appreciated and utilised in evaluation when aiming at evaluation utilisation, impacts and learning. This learning takes place best in meaningful situations, in an open and authentic environment, in interaction with humans, in real situations that have a direct link to the experiences or life of the learner.<sup>564</sup> These personal contacts and trust paralleled results from Dahler-Larsen as well, who viewed them as essentials for evaluation use and learning. Thus, social contexts, such as local groups, a community, and an institution, appropriate for evaluation and learning, should be utilised.<sup>565</sup>

*Building a culture of learning while evaluating via evaluation capacity development.* The positive outcomes of evaluation capacity development are many. To Dahler-Larsen, for whom evaluation capacity development is inextricably intertwined with the process use, they are identifiable in the future-orientation, growing reactivity to changes taking place in the intervention and its environment, improved networking and partnerships with multi-stakeholders, as well as in continuous utilisation of reflection on activities and evaluation capacity building, and even steps taken towards systematic empirical inquiry and preparedness for such steps.<sup>566</sup>

Preskill and Boyle carried on the empirical study of the process and outcomes of evaluation capacity development effort with 15 organisations all over the US. These organisations participated in two surveys and 31 semi-structured phone interviews with 25 evaluators and 13 clients (N = 38). The reasons given by these organisations for building their members’ evaluation capacity were charted, their evaluation capacity development teaching and learning strategies were examined, and outcomes derived from these capacity building efforts, as well as lessons learned, were inquired of. Based on the study results, Preskill and Boyle found that more than 50% of the 15 sites used training, technical assistance, written materials, technology, mentoring or coaching, as well as meetings to help others learn about and be involved in evaluation practice. When charting out the outcomes in their study, Preskill and Boyle used the following criteria — knowledge about evaluation, skills (behavior) to

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<sup>563</sup> Dabelstein 2003, 369

<sup>564</sup> Dewey 1944 in Robinson 1994, 15

<sup>565</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009, 312, 320

<sup>566</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009, 313

conduct evaluation, and affections toward evaluation — which they had defined earlier as objectives for evaluation capacity development.<sup>567</sup>

According to Preskill and Boyle, the evaluation concepts and practices of the interviewees improved due to the evaluation capacity development efforts. The interviewees could name specific skills of evaluation capacity development participants that had strengthened. This was illustrated by better and more frequent questions about their programs asked by the staff, and improved utilisation of evaluation findings. In addition, attitude changes were recognised as another outcome from evaluation capacity development. Hence, almost all respondents saw that participants more eagerly participated in evaluations and valued evaluation as a success-factor for organisation development. A few expressed that their fear regarding evaluation was reduced. The study also revealed that the majority of evaluators and clients thought that participants understood the following: development of logic models; basic evaluation vocabulary; the importance of utilisation of evaluation results in making decisions; various methods used for data generation in evaluation; and the evaluation process in general.<sup>568</sup>

The efficient role of an evaluative learning culture is studied by Hoole and Patterson, as well as Botcheva, White and Huffman. A learning culture is opposed to an “antilearning culture”, which, for instance, refers to circumstances within an organisation in which staff resist change, fear risk-taking, have negative attitudes towards data collection and distrust the organisation. Thus, to them evaluative practices seem to threaten the status quo.<sup>569</sup> In contrast, a learning culture can be illustrated by a systematic and ongoing use of knowledge to improve an organisation continuously, as Botcheva and her colleagues did. In this culture, risk taking, as well as learning from mistakes, are allowed. Trust and courage are characteristics within these kinds of organisations.<sup>570</sup> Values and elements useable for strengthening the evaluative learning culture were identified by Trochim. These values, ideal to evaluation culture are action, learning, diversity and innovation oriented; inclusive and participatory; responsive and fundamentally non-hierarchical; scientifically rigorous; interdisciplinary; self-critical; honest and impartial; ethical and democratic; forward-looking and transparent.<sup>571</sup>

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<sup>567</sup> Preskill & Boyle 2008b, 147–174

<sup>568</sup> Preskill & Boyle 2008b, 161

<sup>569</sup> Hoole & Patterson 2008, 110–111

<sup>570</sup> Botcheva, White & Huffman 2002, 421–434

<sup>571</sup> Trochim 2006

Botcheva and her colleagues examined the relation between a learning culture and evaluation among community-based organisations (N = 25) in Northern California. Their study findings of outcome measurement practices as indicators of readiness for implementation of research-based evaluation paralleled the results of Hoole and Patterson's inquiry among US NGOs. They all established that the learning culture of these organisations was a vital element in implementing evaluation practices systematically. What is more, Botcheva *et al.* indicated that external funding could strengthen the relationship between learning culture and systematic evaluation practices. In addition, Botcheva *et al.* found that organisations emphasising learning culture were interested in learning more about evaluation techniques and tended to request help in programme evaluation and in building internal capacity for evaluation. These scholars also documented that evaluation efforts not only increased the organisation's performance but could also serve as a change agent for creating a culture that values learning inside the organisation.<sup>572</sup>

In addition, Hoole and Patterson indicated that those NGOs using evaluation as a tool for adaptation, as opposed to those using evaluation for accountability purposes, were more prosperous with their implementation. Yet, they found that the commitment of organisational leadership played a key role when shifting the focus of evaluation from accountability and basic reporting to a process of continuous organisational learning by means of evaluation capacity building. Ideally, an infrastructure should be appropriate and developed by the organisational leadership as well as supported by the funders. These scholars stressed that a successful transition to a learning-focussed NGO requires evaluation capacity building efforts from evaluators. If funding evaluation capacity building efforts, the funders themselves are key players in this process, primarily when shaping much of the evaluation work.<sup>573</sup>

Organisational leaders are in key roles when evaluation capacity is developed. Carman and Fredericks, in their study using a cluster analysis on evaluation capacity and challenges experienced while implementing evaluation, found that organisations which linked evaluation to larger management initiatives (i.e., strategic management or quality assurance efforts) and used it as an internal management tool, were satisfied with their evaluation efforts. In addition, the leaders' role was vital in these organisations. Apart from the executive directors, other stakeholders (e.g., the board) also valued, collected and utilised evaluation information.<sup>574</sup>

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<sup>572</sup> Botcheva, White & Huffman 2002, 421–434; Hoole & Patterson 2008, 110–111

<sup>573</sup> Hoole & Patterson 2008, 93–94, 110–111

<sup>574</sup> Carman & Fredericks 2010, 84–104

We can clearly say that management and leaders are important players in evaluation use. This was substantiated by Preskill *et al.* and Alaimo in their studies as well. Preskill *et al.* made the exploratory qualitative case study on variables contributing to process use when studying evaluation capacity development at the American Cancer Society (N= 15 interviewees),<sup>575</sup> while Alaimo studied the steps of executive directors (N = 42 interviewees) within US NGOs at developing evaluation capacity and using programme evaluation.<sup>576</sup>

Based on their study Preskill *et al.* identified five factors affecting process use. These elements, seen to be crucial for utilisation of both evaluation process and evaluation findings, are facilitation of evaluation processes; management support; characteristics of advisory group members; frequency, methods and quality of communications; and characteristics of the organisation. They also concluded that process use should be intentional. According to these scholars if evaluation process is composed of dialogue, reflection, asking questions, identifying and validating assumptions and beliefs, the participants may be more actively involved in and less likely not to ignore, their own learning.<sup>577</sup>

Alaimo demonstrated that leadership, specifically the executive director, played an important role within US NGOs in successful implementation of evaluation efforts. He showed that among contributing variables to process use of, and learning in, evaluation was the leaders' role(s). These directors were important players, not only in the implementation of the evaluations, but also in their use: to alter their programme(s) through learning. Alaimo indicated that 67% of the directors of organisations who saw evaluation as a learning opportunity stated that evaluation was the turning point for its stakeholders. Typical of this were the staff and the board members, when they understood "how evaluation can be used to improve the programme(s), the organization's work toward the mission, and their individual work performance."<sup>578</sup> Additionally, Alaimo emphasised the evaluator's role in helping the organisation and its leaders to become involved in evaluation capacity development through education, assistance, affirmation and empathy, as well as to gain better understanding of, and build long-term commitment and capacity for evaluation.<sup>579</sup>

When referring to this research and its Tanzanian context, it is essential to deal with the appropriateness of using an organisation development concept when

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<sup>575</sup> Preskill, Zuckerman & Matthews 2003, 423–442

<sup>576</sup> Alaimo 2008, 73, 89

<sup>577</sup> Preskill & Torres 1999; Preskill, Zuckerman & Matthews 2003, 423–442

<sup>578</sup> Alaimo 2008, 83

<sup>579</sup> Alaimo 2008, 73, 89

referring to the process use of evaluation within the organisation in Africa. Organisation development is one of the participatory and process-based ways to deal with organisational change and capacity development. In the African cultural context, enhancement of people-centred ways within their organisations are typically questioned. For instance, Blunt doubted African organisations' ability to actuate and master change.<sup>580</sup> Consonant with this, Chowdury expressed that "African culture discourages innovativeness, individualism, or impersonalism and anything that prevents or challenges the valued social order and stability."<sup>581</sup> Likewise, Mugore stated that some authors view African organisations as social constructs that are interested in developing relationships via domination rather than sharing the instrumental, task-achievement-focussed views about organisations, as is common in the West.<sup>582</sup>

Typically, developing countries are seen by donor countries and agencies as less appropriate for fostering organisation development values, for they are portrayed as having larger power distances and high uncertainty avoidances. The former term, viz. large power distance, means that there is a great distance between leaders and staff members in their societies and organisations, while the latter, high uncertainty avoidance, is characterised by an avoidance of unstructured activities having unpredictable outcomes or likely causing a conflict or aggression. Consequently, frank and open communication between members in the same group representing different hierarchical levels is assumed be impossible. Hence, the junior members' involvement is thought to be more apparent than real.<sup>583</sup> Similar statements were made by Srinivas, who stressed that "traditional African cultures embody a respect for the person as part of society and value social interaction and interdependence as central to life in the community. There is ... a high respect for age and experience."<sup>584</sup>

By contrast, however, many African practitioners argue that despite this theoretical and cultural debate about the organisation development approach, indeed, it does work in Africa. For instance, the Eastern and Southern African Management Institute, which operates in at least seven African countries stated that "process consultancy is the most effective approach in sub-Saharan Africa."<sup>585</sup> Many

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<sup>580</sup> Blunt 1995, 31 in Mugore 2002, 74

<sup>581</sup> Chowdury 1986, 89 in Mugore 2002

<sup>582</sup> Mugore 2002, 74

<sup>583</sup> Blunt 1995, 10–11 in Mugore 2002, 73–74; Mugore 2002, 72–73

<sup>584</sup> Srinivas 1995, 207 in Mugore 2002

<sup>585</sup> Mbise & Shirma 1993, 147 in Mugore 2002, 75

elements of African culture, when managing change, supported and encouraged the use of organisation development, rather than avoided it. A case in point was Mbigi, who noted that “traditional African approaches to managing change are: collective ceremonies and rituals, story tellers, dancing and music as well as facilitation by an outside soothsayer ....”<sup>586</sup>

Mugore’s findings were congruent with the statements of Mbigi, for Mugore revealed that organisation development approaches to managing change already existed in Africa long before Western management consultants turned up.<sup>587</sup> Again, the typical African way of managing change has taken place by cooperating with the whole community or organisation. Accordingly, an outside mediator or soothsayer has traditionally been used to encourage the process of managing change in Africa. This means that process use and evaluation capacity development are appropriate concepts to be used in this evaluation experiment. Furthermore, evaluation can be used as a tool for creating an evaluative learning culture and for adaptation inside Tanzanian organisations as well.

Nevertheless, there are components in every culture which may hinder the use of the organisation development approach. These factors should be considered. Burgeois and Boltvinik pointed out that there is a need for extensive research done within the culture, to ascertain what values, preferences and inclinations exist within cross-cultural organisation development interventions.<sup>588</sup> To Preskill and Torres, four important factors can support learning in organisations: leadership, organisational structures, culture, and communication.<sup>589</sup> Srinivas concluded that organisation development practices which do not involve local cultural heritage may not have an optimal effect at deeper levels when managing change.<sup>590</sup> Hence, capacity development interventions, such as organisation development, should be implemented by weaving in the local cultural heritage: by using cultural expressions as leavers for change; by identifying cultural barriers to change; by building on pre-existing approaches to change within the society; but also, by adapting outside techniques and language to fit the local culture.<sup>591</sup>

*Time-frame in the process use of evaluation: It enables future- and development-orientation.* If the goal is to develop the evaluand by means of evaluation, it is necessary to adopt

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<sup>586</sup> Mbigi 1995, 110 in Mugore 2002

<sup>587</sup> Mugore 2002, 76

<sup>588</sup> Burgeois & Boltvinik 1981, 79 in Mugore 2002, 79

<sup>589</sup> Preskill & Torres 2000

<sup>590</sup> Srinivas 1995, 218 in Mugore 2002

<sup>591</sup> see e.g., Mugore 2002

the future-oriented perspective in evaluation. This could take place through evaluation capacity development, which Dahler-Larsen and Patton linked with process use and Fetterman with empowerment evaluation, when establishing the future goals and strategies.<sup>592</sup> Dahler-Larsen emphasised that the processual evaluation is worth using due to the future-orientation and growing reactivity to changes taking place in the intervention and its environment,<sup>593</sup> which is generally appreciated and needed by the locals, as Nagao demonstrated in his study.<sup>594</sup>

As mentioned earlier in this report, Nagao found imbalances related to development evaluation and their use between two evaluation partners, the donors and recipients. To be precise, their interests, positions, users, targets, and time-frames differ. The results-based, impacts-focussed, effectiveness-centred practices of development evaluation were overrated by donors, and the self-reliant approaches for capacity development within the process of development and evaluation were valued by recipients. The second dissymmetry was related to the point in time an evaluation is carried out and can vary from donors' finite-time span to recipients' boundless time horizon in development.<sup>595</sup>

When referring to time scales in general, in development evaluation and regarding the viewpoint of the Western time concept favoured by donors, this time-scale is said to be future-oriented. On the contrary, African time is said to be two-dimensional, made up of the long past and the present, as formulated by Mbiti. In this concept, time, as continuity, is directed from the perspective of the past more so than towards a future goal. In Africa, time does not exist in a vacuum and as an entity it cannot be isolated conceptually. Time relates to events, and it only makes sense and becomes real when it is possible to experience. There is no need or relevance for mathematical division of time in Africa as in Western cultures.<sup>596</sup> Typical of this is the Tanzanian expression "Labda kesho" [maybe tomorrow] describing the Tanzanian time-concept, where there seems to exist plenty of time, and tomorrow will bring even more.

The time concepts typical of Western and African cultures, as described above, however, are inconsonant with the findings presented by Nagao earlier.<sup>597</sup> First, it is

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<sup>592</sup> Fetterman 1996, 9–18; 1997, 384; 1999; Patton 1997, 91, 111; 1998, 225–233; 2007, 103, 110; see also Forss, Rebien & Carlsson 2002, 32; Harnar & Preskill 2007, 27

<sup>593</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009, 313

<sup>594</sup> Nagao 2006, 28–31

<sup>595</sup> Nagao 2006, 28–31

<sup>596</sup> Pennington 1985, 124–127, 130, 136–137

<sup>597</sup> Nagao 2006, 28–31

the donors (with their impact evaluations), who unexpectedly prioritise the past-orientation, not the recipients. Instead, as Nagao noted the recipients were strangely more future-oriented than the donors, which was against the cultural interpretations made. These local participants called for future development and improvement of the development intervention by utilising evaluation processes. Paradoxically, impact evaluation as an evaluation method is concentrated strongly on the distant past of development practices, as the results of the study made by Cameron *et al.* revealed.<sup>598</sup>

What is more, if referring to the duration of evaluation impacts, Johnson and Patton reported that involvement, and more so learning, in the evaluation process could contribute to longer lasting effects on the participants and their organisations than the ones originating from evaluation findings. Indeed, these process consequences could not only last much longer but could also be greater.<sup>599</sup> Namely, Patton argued that evaluation findings quickly become irrelevant due to rapid environmental changes.<sup>600</sup> Simply put, if looking at evaluation impacts from the time perspective, there is a big difference between past-oriented summative and future-oriented formative evaluations, between two purposes of aid evaluation, accountability and learning, as well as between the use and usability of evaluation findings and of the evaluation processes.<sup>601</sup>

### 3.3 The coding frame for evaluation impacts

In this research, terms such as evaluation use and utilisation were used interchangeably together with evaluation impact, despite Kirkhart's preference expressed for an evaluation influence concept. She was unsatisfied with an evaluation impact expression, associated with data-based or results-based evaluation findings.<sup>602</sup> In this research, evaluation impacts covered such effects, both negative and positive, which resulted from the evaluation process, evaluation products and findings utilised, excluding evaluation commissioning.

In my case, evaluation use had impacts on the evaluated entity, VET, the VET institution and its evaluation, as well as on the persons, groups, and the organisation involved in the evaluation and connected to the evaluated, as Christie together with

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<sup>598</sup> Cameron, Mishra & Brown 2016

<sup>599</sup> Johnson 1998, 94; Patton 1997, 88. See also Mark & Henry 2004, 36.

<sup>600</sup> Patton 1998, 226

<sup>601</sup> see e.g., Fowler 1997 in Hailey, James & Wrigley 2005, 7

<sup>602</sup> Kirkhart 2000, 7; 2005; 2011, 74–75; Mark & Henry 2004, 46



Johnson *et al.* stated.<sup>603</sup> In addition, it is my view that process use of evaluation was the cause for the effects achieved, which happened while evaluating through engagement in evaluation, capacity development and via evaluative learning. I agreed with Taut, as well as Amo and Cousins, that evaluation capacity could be developed simultaneously with both individual and organisational capacities gained to use and to carry out evaluation while evaluating.<sup>604</sup> This interpretation was also supported by Cousins *et al.*, Labin *et al.*, Levin-Rozalis *et al.* as well as Patton, who linked a process use to evaluation capacity development.<sup>605</sup> Furthermore, I used empowerment evaluation as a process and a tool to develop capacity among staff members and participants of the VET programme, as did Fetterman.<sup>606</sup>

In fact, I preferred the concept of collective learning to organisational learning. No learning ever happens without individual learning, while individual learning can become collective learning through participation, formal learning, research, practice, evaluation from external actors and locals. Additionally, in this research, evaluation capacity development was the term preferred to evaluation capacity building, although the latter concept is more popular among the scientists. To me, development referred to a phenomenon which already existed and for which capacities are available, while building referred to something which needed to be created from scratch. Furthermore, I viewed that capacity development included the idea of strengthening existing capacities through sharing, growth, experimentation, institutionalising participation, and continuous learning, as well as a changing process. Capacity building, on the other hand, based on a clear and detailed plan or blueprint and engineering of something, meant that non-existing capacities needed to be imported. Regarding the VET case at MHCC, local capacities existed and were available. Hence, I agreed with James that capacity development “is an on-going process of helping people, organizations and societies improve and adapt to changes around them. Performance and improvements are taken in the light of the mission, objectives, context, resources and sustainability.”<sup>607</sup>

There can be several evaluation impacts, both positive and negative, produced through the process use mechanism. Therefore, for my evaluation experiment, I needed to create the skeleton of how to illustrate and operationalise these changes

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<sup>603</sup> Christie 2007; Johnson, Greenesid, Toal, King, Lawrenz & Volkov 2009, 378

<sup>604</sup> see Alkin & Taut 2003, 7; Amo & Cousins 2007; Taut 2007b

<sup>605</sup> Cousins, Goh, Clark & Lee 2004, 106; Labin, Duffy, Meyers, Wandersman & Lesesne 2012; Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein & Cousins 2009

<sup>606</sup> Fetterman 2003, 46; Patton 1997

<sup>607</sup> James 2002, 6

originating from the evaluation use. After due consideration, I decided to use evaluation impact as a term in my coding frame. This concept I understood and operationalised as a positive, negative, intended, unintended, expected or unexpected change or changes or networks of changes contributed from the evaluation use (i.e., processes, products and findings) experienced by its local multi-stakeholders (e.g., graduates, households, communities, or groups).

I did not regard this evaluation impact, the change derived from the evaluation, as a linear phenomenon. It could not have been captured by organising pre-and post-measurements, randomised experiments, or by using treatment and control groups, but was a lived, personal experience derived from evaluation utilisation, for the conscious standpoint taken in this research emphasised personal involvement in evaluation as well as dialogues taking place while evaluating. This standpoint was chosen, as mentioned many times before, to put emphasis on local learning within the development intervention of MHCC in Tanzania and to grant power to these locals to have access and to utilise the evaluation as the learning source by means of its processual use in their decision-making.

When studying evaluation impacts, I was dealing with a cultural phenomenon.<sup>608</sup> This was demonstrated by Kirkhart. Likewise, Stockdill and his colleagues, and Sanders, saw that evaluation capacity building, which helps to institutionalise and mainstream evaluation, is dependent on context and therefore, requires consideration of a site, structure, culture and day-to-day working practices.<sup>609</sup> In like manner, Taut stressed that cultural, geographical and organisational realities require flexibility when even using the term “evaluation capacity building.”<sup>610</sup>

When creating coding categories for this research, the refined model of Amo and Cousins, with the four mechanisms of the process use of evaluation, was used. This was combined with some elements from Kirkhart’s theory of evaluation influence. Originally, Amo and Cousins’s typology based on the model of four evaluation influences from Mark and Henry were used while coding impacts of the process use and evaluation in the VET case at MHCC (Table 8). These were manifested at three levels, abbreviated in brackets as follows: individual (IN), interpersonal (IP) or group, as well as collective (CL). Based on these classifications, as demonstrated in Table 7, the skeleton outline of the coding framework for this research was summarised.

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<sup>608</sup> Kirkhart 2011, 73–74

<sup>609</sup> Sanders 2002, 253–259; Stockdill, Baizerman & Compton 2002, 22

<sup>610</sup> Taut 2007a, 120

**Table 8.** The coding categories with abbreviations used in the qualitative content analysis for evaluation impact types and levels

<b>EVALUATION IMPACTS OF THE PROCESS/FINDINGS USE OF EVALUATION</b>			
<b>LEVEL OF IMPACTS</b>			
<b>TYPE OF IMPACTS</b>	<b>INDIVIDUAL (IN) (within a single evaluation participant)</b>	<b>INTERPERSONAL (IP) (in exchange between two or more evaluation participants)</b>	<b>COLLECTIVE (CL) (within a programme, intervention, institution, organisation or policy evaluated in co-operation with evaluation participants)</b>
<b>Cognitive (Co) (knowledge, skills, expertise)</b>	e.g., Evaluative thinking, enlightenment Awareness of evaluation issues and concepts Evaluation and training skills Cognitive changes Learn to learn Evaluation Capacity Devel. Increased evaluation capacity Personal agenda setting	Local norms Evaluation Capacity Development	Creating shared understanding and experience of the programme and its context Development plans and recommendations for the programme Evaluation expertise Use of the same evaluation language Shared meanings and priorities Decreased evaluation resistance Reactivity to the environment
<b>Behavioural (B) (action, doing, changes)</b>	Individual change in practices Behavioural change Self-assessment Use evaluation skills Learning actions	Improved communication Respect others Collaborative change Better understanding Requesting assistance from evaluator Learning actions	Programme continuation, termination or change based on evaluation, modifying practice Organisational improvement or development, policy change Transferring decision-making power Evaluation Capacity Development, using evaluation process and findings, skills Diffusion
<b>Affective (A) (motivation, attitudes, affections)</b>	Personal growth, empowerment Moral improvement Professional growth Self-confidence for the future Appreciation of evaluation Desire to use evaluation skills	Attentiveness to the others' views Preparedness to a dialogue with external stakeholders	Sense of ownership of evaluations Fostered independence Self-determination Appreciation of evaluation Desire to use evaluation skills
<b>Social (S) (relationships, networks, partnerships)</b>		Developing networks Role reconceptualisation Increased engagement Agenda setting	Networking, reflection Creation of relationships Developing professional networks Evaluation experience Testing partnership Social justice Shared experience

If examining the coding category presented in Table 8 more closely, we see that all types of evaluation impacts, except social evaluation impacts, could be noted at three levels. The coding criteria set for the VET case at MHCC revealed that individual (IN) evaluation impacts could be identifiable when observing a single evaluation participant, while interpersonal (IP) impacts could take place in exchange between two or more persons or within a group involved in evaluation. Meanwhile, collective

(CL) evaluation impacts could affect much larger units and their multi-stakeholders, such as a programme (VET); institution (MHCC); organisation (FPCI); or policies (VET and its evaluation; development cooperation and development evaluation). Apart from these three levels, four main categories made by Amo and Cousins were utilised in operationalisation of evaluation impacts at MHCC, abbreviated in brackets as follows: cognitive (Co), behavioural (B), affective (A), and other (O). However, in place of their fourth type of process use, this meaningless “other” category,<sup>611</sup> I ended up calling this type of evaluation impact “social” (S) evaluation impacts, from this paragraph onwards, as seen in Table 8. To me, it was a more informative label to illustrate various social aspects linked to social interaction taking place while using the evaluation process, than this “other” class.

If addressing first the individual (IN) evaluation impacts, elements such as knowledge, skills and expertise were placed in the cognitive (Co) category. These impacts comprised, for example, evaluative thinking, enlightenment, awareness of evaluation issues and concepts, evaluation and training skills, cognitive changes, learn to learn, evaluation capacity development, increased evaluation capacity, and the personal agenda setting derived from evaluation. Whereas in the behavioural (B) category of evaluation impacts on the life of a single participant, individual (IN) evaluation impacts were visible in such forms as behavioural actions, things done, practical changes, self-evaluation, utilisation of evaluation skills, or learning actions in the life of the person engaged in evaluation due to this individual’s involvement in evaluation practices. Personal growth, empowerment, moral improvement, professional growth, self-confidence for the future, appreciation of evaluation, as well as desire to practice evaluation skills were classified under the affective (A) category, for individual (IN) evaluation impacts. (Table 8.)

At the interpersonal (IP) level evaluation impacts were also assigned to the groups as follows: cognitive (Co), behavioural (B), affective (A), or social (S). As Table 8 reveals, local norms and evaluation capacity development are placed in the group of cognitive (Co), interpersonal (IP) evaluation impacts. In this cognitive (Co), interpersonal (IP) category improved communication, respect toward other people, collaborative change, better understanding, further assistance requested for the evaluator, and learning actions were signs of behavioural changes or actions due to cooperation agreed between evaluation participants engaged in evaluation. Further, affective (A), interpersonal (IP) evaluation impacts included such attitudes, affections, or motivations as attentiveness to others’ views or preparedness to dialogue with external stakeholders. At the interpersonal (IP) level, developing

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<sup>611</sup> Amo & Cousins 2007, 22

networks, role reconceptualisation and increased engagement were placed in the category named social (S) evaluation impacts.

Various forms of evaluation impacts were also found at the collective (CL) level. Cognitive (Co) evaluation impacts included creation of shared understanding and the experience of the programme and its context, development plans and recommendations for the programme at the collective level (CL). These impacts consisted of evaluation expertise; use of the same evaluation language; shared meanings and priorities; decrease in resistance to evaluation; and reactivity to the environment. At the same time, such behavioural (B), collective (CL) evaluation impacts as programme continuation, termination or change based on evaluation or modifying practice; organisational improvement or development; policy change; transfer of decision-making power; evaluation capacity development, use of evaluation process or findings skills, and diffusion, could be identified. Features such as sense of ownership of evaluation; fostered independence; self-determination; appreciation of evaluation; and desire to practice evaluation skills were assigned to the sub-group of affective (A), collective (CL) evaluation impacts. Social (S) evaluation impacts recognisable at the collective (CL) level were reflection; networking; creation of relationships; developing professional networks; evaluation experience; testing partnership; social justice; and shared experiences. (Table 8.)

**Table 9.** Probable types and levels of evaluation impacts in the VET case at MHCC

IMPACTS OF EVALUATION			
LEVELS OF IMPACTS			
TYPES OF IMPACTS	INDIVIDUAL (IN): within one evaluation participant	INTERPERSONAL (IP): between two or more evaluation participants	COLLECTIVE (CL): in a programme, institution, organisation, or policies involved in evaluation
<b>COGNITIVE (Co): KNOW-HOW</b> Knowledge, skills, expertise	X	X	X
<b>BEHAVIOURAL (B): ACTS &amp; DEEDS</b> Action, doing, changes	X	X	X
<b>AFFECTIVE (A): MIND</b> Motivation, attitudes, affection	X	X	X
<b>SOCIAL (S): CONTACTS &amp; RELATIONS</b> Relationships, networks, partnerships		X	X
<b>ECONOMIC (E): MONEY &amp; PROPERTY</b> Financial influences (Equipment, goods, devices)	X	X	X
<b>CULTURAL (Cu): CULTURAL HABITS &amp; MANNERS</b> Cultural changes (Traditions)	X	X	X

Compared with the four types of evaluation and process use impacts made by Amo and Cousins, as well as Mark and Henry, two more types of evaluation impacts were added to my coding category based on my research data. They were economic (E) and cultural (Cu) evaluation impacts. Columns in Table 9, marked with X, indicated such types and levels of evaluation impacts which could probably be manifested in this evaluation experiment. For instance, economic (E) evaluation impacts could be recognisable at all the levels of the VET case. Economic (E) impacts derived from the evaluation use might be identifiable at the collective (CL) level of MHCC and could refer to financial changes in the economy of the organisation or institution. Cultural changes caused by evaluation utilisation, coded with a label of cultural (Cu) evaluation impact, could be addressed at three levels as well. These evaluation impacts could be inspected from viewpoints of the participant (IN), the group (IP) and the organisation (CL).

## 4 EVALUATION EXPERIMENT — TOWARDS EVALUATION IMPACTS “WHAT IS THIS ALL ABOUT?” — THE VET CASE, AT MWANZA HOME CRAFT CENTRE, AS THE AWAKENER<sup>612</sup>

In this chapter, a wider picture of the context of the evaluation experiment is painted for the reader. Trends seen when organising VET with development funds, and channelling it through NGOs, are described from a Tanzanian and international perspective, before returning to the evaluation experiment of this research, the VET case at MHCC, and the utilisation of its education and evaluation. First, we deal with the MHCC’s Tanzanian educational context. As a starting point for discussion we look at the legacy of the country’s first President (1961–1985) Julius “Mwalimu”<sup>613</sup> Kambarage Nyerere, the Tanzanian education sector, and the education sector’s use of VET.

Second, we turn to the consideration of how VET could be used as a tool for alleviating poverty among youth. Third, the value and attractiveness of VET is a current question in Tanzania and we look at it from policy perspectives and through some myths attached to it. Fourth, we look how VET can contribute positively to reaching one of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals<sup>614</sup>, Education for All, and the Sustainable Development Goals on the Agenda by 2030: increasing the number of the youth with technical and vocational skills (Goal 4.4) and reducing the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training (Goal 8.6).<sup>615</sup> Then, we reveal the hegemonic and fallacious ways that the World Bank is using knowledge and evaluation to devalue VET, and the wide-ranging and disastrous consequences taking place on VET in Tanzania as a result.<sup>616</sup>

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<sup>612</sup> see Valovirta 2002, 75

<sup>613</sup> Mwalimu (Kiswahili) = a teacher (in English). It refers to the first Tanzanian president, J. K. Nyerere’s (1922–1999) position and education, for he was a teacher by his profession. The people of Tanzania preferred use this “Mwalimu” word to president also as the honorary title for him as the greatest teacher. (Wabike 2015, 21.)

<sup>614</sup> United Nations Millennium Declaration A/RES/55/2 (United Nations 2000)

<sup>615</sup> United Nations 2015, 17, 19

<sup>616</sup> Bennell, Mukyanuzi, Kasogela, Mutashubirwa & Klim 2006, 73

In Chapter 4.2 we familiarise ourselves with MHCC, the VET unit of the evaluation experiment and its operational environment in Tanzania. To build up a vivid and more detailed picture of the VET case, its service providers, background organisations, foundation, objectives, teaching and curriculum, trainees and trainers, management and leadership, fiscal situation and sustainability, as well as its linkages and networks, are presented. It is necessary to identify the impacts of these VET services on its multi-stakeholders, when updating, evaluating and analysing MHCC's situation.

In this chapter, we also receive answers to the first research question posed earlier, as follows: “What were the key evaluation impacts of the use of the “recipient hegemonic” standpoint and paradigm in development evaluation utilisation on the evaluation experiment?” Following that, we receive answers to research question 1.2: “What were the evaluation findings from the VET utilisation?” by addressing the socio-economic impacts of VET on various levels of the lives of these multi-stakeholders, as evaluated by themselves and derived from the utilisation of education gained at MHCC. These socio-economic impacts of VET are reflected at the individual, interpersonal and collective levels of these former students, as demonstrated in Chapter 4.3.

In Chapter 4.4 solutions to two research questions are found. These questions, posed in Chapter 1.2, are as follows; first, 1.3: “What was the kind of process use of evaluation in the VET case? With what results?” second, 1.4: “How was evaluation used? How were impacts of the evaluation experiment carried out manifested at the personal, interpersonal and collective levels of the VET case? What changed?” The answers to these questions are linked to the evaluation experiment and concentrate on its evaluation process, as well as utilisation of that process, in the improvement and development of the VET services organised at MHCC.

## 4.1 The evaluation context: VET channelled through development aid in Tanzania

VET is defined in different ways. It can cover all the coordinated or systematised tasks targeted at providing people the knowledge, skills and competencies needed for doing a job or a set of works.<sup>617</sup> Through VET a person can acquire specialised skills for wages, self-fulfillment and further VET studies.<sup>618</sup> After studying in a

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<sup>617</sup> Descy & Tessaring 2005, 9–10

<sup>618</sup> Kalimasi 2015, 115



formal vocational-based institution, a graduate is rewarded with a formal qualification. However, informal VET need not be venue or age-specific, neither does it require specific characteristics from its participants or a previous level of qualification.<sup>619</sup> When talking about VET in this research, I refer to a skill-based program which provides students with practical skills designed to lead to a job or certain types of jobs, wages or further vocational advancement by means of formal education and training within MHCC's school system.

*Contradictory internal demands for knowledge construction.* In the next paragraphs, we address VET from the perspective of standpoint theory and knowledge construction emphasised by Collins and Kvale. On this account, I titled these paragraphs to illustrate the competing, paradoxical and confrontational standpoints taken in Tanzanian VET, the type of knowledge prioritised and validated, as well as used for political domination. These demonstrate that Tanzania's education, let alone its VET, has been strongly influenced by national and international policy changes, and by external and internal political actions taken occurring since Tanzania's independence in 1961. One main reason for this is the long presence of international development funders and donors in Tanzania as well as their considerable influence over decisions made on the government of Tanzania's education priority areas through sub-sectoral allocations.<sup>620</sup>

The paragraphs below reveal the purposes that knowledge was used for: either to socialise or capitalise knowledge, to internationalise or localise it; to let alone, academise or vocationalise it. These paragraphs also tell who had power over knowledge in that period, the colonials or the locals, and whose knowledge was prioritised in Tanzanian education, that of the elite or of the masses. In addition, we look at what type of knowledge was appreciated most in the Tanzanian education, the indigenous, local, African knowledge or Western, colonial, international knowledge.<sup>621</sup>

*From capitalisation towards socialisation of knowledge?* The fact is that President Nyerere, the key figure in Tanzania's history, has had a strong impact on Tanzanian education systems and policies. With a background in teacher education, President Nyerere strongly believed in education and used it as a guiding tool in development, a logical means of achieving policy goals, and as a crucial weapon to fight against the nation's three enemies — ignorance, disease and poverty.<sup>622</sup>

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<sup>619</sup> Descy & Tessaring 2005, 9–10

<sup>620</sup> Buchert 1997

<sup>621</sup> see e.g., Tusiime 2015, 100–114

<sup>622</sup> Metz 1982, 377–378; Nyerere 1968, 340; 1977, 1–34; Wabike 2015

During Nyerere's time, Tanzania was a one-party state and development aid played a supplementary role in the country's development processes and in the development of its education sector.<sup>623</sup> For this reason, President Nyerere, with his thoughts of a kind of African socialism and self-reliance, aimed to develop Tanzania to be a self-reliant economy and be economically independent from foreign aid. His key doctrines, the reform of Education of Self-Reliance and his political ideology, Ujamaa-thinking (villagisation) were crystallised in the 1967 Arusha Declaration.<sup>624</sup> It followed that Nyerere aroused considerably more interest in the country's rural development that had been taken during the colonial era.<sup>625</sup>

In the Swahili language, *Ujamaa* means a relationship, kin and brotherhood. It refers to an African family institution, an extended family or family hood concept, and its practices of holding goods in common by sharing them among all family members. During Nyerere's rule an extended family, the family hood concept was used in a political connection, which is clarified next.<sup>626</sup>

In Tanzania, as in many African countries, the family unit is extended to include all those relatives with close relationships. This means that many joint families exist, a joint family being made up of the heads of two or three lineally related kinsfolks of the same spouse or offspring, all of whom occupy a single "homestead." Individuals are dependent on this family, which is contradictory to a Western nuclear or elementary family. The extended family forms the basis of all social cooperation and responsibility and acts as social security for the members of the group, where there exists shared responsibility in economic issues between relatives. Its member can be a man and his wife, their unmarried children, but also one or more married sons, brothers and even daughters with their spouses and children. It is very common that this household, the smallest well-defined social group in the social system, owns property together, lives in houses built in the same area, and acts like one producing and consuming unit.<sup>627</sup>

"*Ndugu mvui afadhali kuma naye.*" A bad brother is far better than no brother. This Swahili proverb illustrates well the importance of kinship, which means that two individuals are kin to each other, either by birth, descent or marriage. Kinship

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<sup>623</sup> Buchert 1997, 10; Heyneman 2003; Vavrus 2002, 528

<sup>624</sup> The Arusha Declaration was a political blueprint to make Tanzania a socialist, and an economically independent country (Rutayuga 2014, 73).

<sup>625</sup> Metz 1982, 377–378; Nyerere 1968, 340; 1977, 1–34

<sup>626</sup> A Standard Swahili-English Dictionary 2000, 148; Miguel 2004, 347; Nyerere 1974, 6–9; Rutayuga 2014, 19

<sup>627</sup> Ayisi 1986, 15–16, 18, 28

constitutes the basis for the rights, duties, and rules of residence, marriage, inheritance, and succession of an individual. It means that cousins, aunts, uncles, sisters, brothers and even in-laws belong to the family.<sup>628</sup> Kinship is very important because it embodies fundamental social arrangements and norms.<sup>629</sup> It is typical in Tanzania that relatives are called by names that may be confusing to outsiders. An illustration of this is that a father's brother is called father, a mother's sister, mother, or children of their sisters or brothers are regarded as their own children.<sup>630</sup> Similarly, cousins in Tanzania are often classified as brothers and sisters. When speaking about social control in the Tanzanian family or an African family in the household level, usually the head, the oldest member or the father is responsible for order and peace and has the last word in all type of matters affecting the household members.<sup>631</sup>

Ujamaa-thinking stressed communal cooperation and voluntary obligation towards common welfare and harmony. Nyerere described this community as a basis of human security, equality and peace of society, where there existed harmonic love, respect and consideration, and where a duty of work followed automatically for everyone, as well as collective co-ownership of material resources.<sup>632</sup> Nyerere's government aimed to promote African Socialism by means of villagisation, the traditional community idea.<sup>633</sup> Hence, Tanzanians were supposed to be scattered through an ideal community action, into ujamaa villages, to enable collective production, equal opportunity and self-reliance. Through this proper mobilisation of the peasants and workers, as well as by developing responsive leadership, the government could have provided public services more efficiently and farming could have been collectivised.<sup>634</sup>

To Nyerere, socialism was an "attitude of the mind." It was present in the traditional ujamaa households. A significant difference between socialist and capitalist societies is the way in which wealth is distributed, not produced. The ujamaa household concept emphasised economic development as quickly as possible and simultaneously, it aimed to break the chains of Western, capitalistic ways of thinking. Governmental bodies made developmental proposals to become

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<sup>628</sup> Guide to Tanzania 1998; Themba, Chamme, Phambuka & Makgosa 1999, 112

<sup>629</sup> Ayisi 1986, 36

<sup>630</sup> Ayisi 1986, 38; Van Pelt 1971, 92

<sup>631</sup> Ayisi 1986, 111

<sup>632</sup> A Standard Swahili-English Dictionary 2000, 148; Miguel 2004, 347; Nyerere 1974, 6–9; Rutayuga 2014, 19

<sup>633</sup> Metz 1982, 377–378; Nyerere 1968, 340; 1977, 1–34

<sup>634</sup> A Standard Swahili-English Dictionary 2000, 148; Miguel 2004, 347; Nyerere 1974, 6–9; Rutayuga 2014, 19

economically independent from foreign aid and to emphasise more interest in rural development and to internalise the new political philosophy through education and raising the consciousness of the peasantry. The peasantry was encouraged to become involved by hard work and political participation with the institutions of Tanganyika African National Union, the single permitted political party. The nationalisation had begun. The government was asked to transfer means of production to state ownership, including principal financial, manufacturing and trading institutions.<sup>635</sup>

*From internationalisation towards localisation of knowledge?* Nyerere's philosophical thoughts criticised education provided during his rule in Tanzania. It included a major critique of the Western, colonial, capitalist type and content of knowledge, which coloured the Tanzanian education system and its curricula of that time. Nyerere saw in Tanzania four shortages of the Western education system that had been inherited, which he wanted to change. Based on the study results of Mulenga, Nasongo and Musungu, as well as of Wabike, these four areas were as follows: First, the elitist, non-egalitarian, colonial education system, involving only a select few persons; Second, its system and curriculum were too theoretical, over-valuing academic, book-rooted knowledge, certificates and diplomas, but not integrating a theory with practice and production or with experiences of life; Third, its educational plans and practices were alienating and divorcing its participants from their indigenous, local African society and its knowledge; Fourth, Western education did not manage to integrate learning with work, such as offering community service, so that national development and the world of work could be synchronised.<sup>636</sup>

Perhaps inevitably, Nyerere created Education for Self-Reliance. It was a concrete action taken with his critique levelled at Tanzania's education. He designed, based on his own reflexive thinking, the country's education philosophy and policy document. It focussed on improvements and reforms needed in the Tanzanian education system and curriculum inherited from the colonies. Again, his policy was notably directed at the liberation and emancipation of Tanzanian citizens from colonies' mental slavery, and skills development of its young inhabitants with relevant skills to become productive contributors to social development. To Nyerere it was vital that liberating education enables a person to exercise her/his power over circumstances rather than be submerged by them.<sup>637</sup>

*From generalisation and academisation towards functionalisation and vocationalisation of knowledge?* Nyerere emphasised that skills development was needed for increasing the

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<sup>635</sup> Buchert 1994, 90–93, 96; Metz 1982, 377–378; Nyerere 1968, 340; 1977, 1–34; TANU 1974

<sup>636</sup> Mulenga 2001; Nasongo & Musungu 2009, 113; Rutayuga 2014, 78; Wabike 2015, 20–21

<sup>637</sup> Nasongo & Musungu 2009, 114–115

nation's productivity, economic growth, and self-reliant, socio-political (socialist) growth.<sup>638</sup> Interestingly, but appropriately, based on his political ideology, he did not differentiate between mental or manpower labour, but valued indigenous and local knowledge and saw that education is for living rather than for preparing students to attend secondary schools. He wanted to reinterpret the African heritage in its context (Africanisation) and strengthen its citizens' equality and participation within the country.<sup>639</sup> To Nyerere, schools must not only become integral parts of the community and society but must also carry out activities designed to make them financially self-sufficient. To Nyerere,

Each school should have, as an integral part of it, a farm or workshop which provides the food eaten by the community, and makes some contribution to the national income .... This is not a suggestion that a school farm or workshop should be attached to every school for training purposes. It is a suggestion that every school should also be a farm.<sup>640</sup>

On the other hand, Nyerere's education policy was to strengthen "Swahilisation" with Swahili language use at the primary level of education. Since he wanted to make education a tool for living, the areas he prioritised in education were primary and adult education as well as vocational agricultural education. The masses needed a general level of education provided through universal primary education, while the nation's manpower needs could be satisfied with post-primary education, through vocationalisation of those individuals who could serve the nation in its government's jobs and posts, and to whom the society's scarce educational resources could be allocated. Of these few who could progress in the system, Nyerere saw that their primary task should be to serve the rest of the population.<sup>641</sup>

*Contradictory external demands for knowledge construction.* Under Nyerere's regime, free and equal universal primary education was targeted. Likewise, in his educational reform programme emphasis was placed on achieving this goal, in order that pupils could live productive lives in their rural Tanzanian communities. However, the situation in Tanzania changed significantly in 1986. At that time, the country was in the middle of political and economic turmoil caused by the challenges of the ujamaa socialist development strategy. Its targets were economically demanding, with economically self-reliant nationalisation policies, touching, for example, the

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<sup>638</sup> Kalimasi 2015, 117

<sup>639</sup> Buchert 1997, 37

<sup>640</sup> Mulenga 2001; Nyerere 1968, 283

<sup>641</sup> Buchert 1997, 37; McMillan 2011; Tonini 2010, 36

industrial sector, as well the establishment of collective, villages for agricultural production. This sweeping political and economic change took place during the presidency of the second Tanzanian President Ali Hassan Mwinyi.<sup>642</sup>

*From nationalisation towards internationalisation and privatisation of knowledge?* The IMF/World Bank Economic Recovery Programme began privatisation of the Tanzanian school system. This program, designed in cooperation with the Tanzanian government and the World Bank Consultative Group, aimed at liberating trade.<sup>643</sup> At that time, education policy-making faced a big move in Tanzania, specifically the formation of a socialist state with self-reliance and public state-led responsibility which was directed towards the development of a market-oriented economy with public-private educational initiatives.<sup>644</sup>

The case above illustrates clearly how sharp and dramatic turns could have been taken in the country's education policies. This was due to the key players and the role of funders or donor agencies. Evidently, they had considerable influence over the national education policies, which seemed to be under their direction.<sup>645</sup> There were also other significant international decisions and agreements made by these external actors which have strongly influenced Tanzania's current education policy direction, its internationalisation, privatisation, marketisation, and academisation, on to which we are moving next. Tanzania's economic dependency on international outsiders has resulted in increased political dependency on these funders. After the government performed a U-turn due to Tanzania's economic crisis, international development funding for the education sector became a matter of necessity. In summary, these international players claimed more power over dictating terms and conditions for their funding as well as the appropriate political and economic frameworks, such as in the VET sector, as stated by Buchert, Heyneman and Vavrus, as well as conditionalities accepted for supporting the goals of their own macro-economic policies.<sup>646</sup>

*From vocationalisation towards academisation of knowledge?* In the 1970s and 1980s VET as an educational channel very much grew in popularity amongst the donors of development aid. Indeed, until the early 1980s VET was regarded as the prime and most appropriate means of funding the education sector through foreign aid. At that point, the World Bank considerably decreased its resource allocation to VET with

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<sup>642</sup> Buchert 1997, 10; Vavrus 2002, 528

<sup>643</sup> Buchert 1997, 10; Vavrus 2002, 528

<sup>644</sup> Buchert 1997, 34

<sup>645</sup> Vavrus 2002, 544

<sup>646</sup> Buchert 1997, 10; Heyneman 2003; Vavrus 2002, 528

its policy clarification that came into force in 1980, based on the results of studies conducted as part of this initiative.<sup>647</sup> To these contradictory research results we shall return later in this chapter.

VET has been most negatively impacted by cuts in bilateral education aid.<sup>648</sup> With the World Bank's (WB) financial and intellectual policy change, most donors also turned their backs on VET. This was followed by a significant fiscal belt-tightening for VET in sub-Saharan Africa.<sup>649</sup> Between 1983–1984 and 1992–1993 there was a 14.8% reduction in bilateral donors' support towards VET in sub-Saharan Africa. Similarly, after devoting about 40% of its education lending to VET between the years 1963–1976, the WB<sup>650</sup> decreased its support to the extent that vocational post-secondary education received only 25% of its education sector lending in 1984–1985. By 2000–2001, this proportion had been reduced to 8.1%<sup>651</sup> and by 1996 it did not even surpass 3%<sup>652</sup> mainly on the grounds of rate of return studies. By 2011 the WB's spending on this sector made up 8–9% of its educational accounting.<sup>653</sup>

The 1990s has been labelled the “lost decade of technical and vocational education and training (TVET).”<sup>654</sup> In fact, the tendency to neglect VET has been prominent since then. During this time, VET in developing countries has not generated much interest, either by donor agencies or by national or academic communities. Two events in particular serve to illustrate this point. They were the first World Conference on Education for All (EFA) in 1990 and the World Bank's Primary Education Policy Paper in 1991. Following the 1990 Jomtien EFA Conference, basic education was often understood at the national level as a priority for primary education, while at the international level the 1991 WB policy paper

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<sup>647</sup> Hultin 1987, 1, 10; Psacharopoulos 1985 and Psacharopoulos & Loxley 1985 in Bennell & Segerstrom 1998, 271–272; WB 1991

<sup>648</sup> Bennell & Furlong 1998, 17–18

<sup>649</sup> Bennell 1996b; Bennell, Bendera, Kanyenze, Kimambo, Kiwia, Mbiriyakura, Mukyanuzi, Munetsi, Muzulu, Parsalaw & Temu 1999

<sup>650</sup> The World Bank (WB) added education development to its programmes of investment when giving a loan to Tunisia to expand its secondary schooling in 1963 (Psacharopoulos 2006, 331). For the next 15 years, the WB increased its support for a range of public pre-employment skill development programmes (Middleton & Ziderman 1997, 6). The Education Sector Policy Paper shifted the education priority of the WB towards primary education (WB 1980; Bennell & Segerstrom 1998, 272). Psacharopoulos (2006, 330) called the years 1963–1987 in the WB's policy as “Manpower and vocational-technical education (VOCED)” –oriented ones and years 1990–1997 “basic, general education oriented” ones.

<sup>651</sup> Psacharopoulos 2006, 332

<sup>652</sup> Bennell & Segerstrom 1998, 271; WB 1991, 58

<sup>653</sup> Maclean 2010 in Tikly 2013, 6

<sup>654</sup> see e.g., King, McGrath & Rose 2007, 355

focussed on private sector provision with the goal to establish a market for training and work-based training.<sup>655</sup>

Based on the 1991 World Bank (WB) policy paper, the WB argued that VET in developing countries would best be left to private providers.<sup>656</sup> Prompted by allegations of disappointment over poor quality, high cost provisioning and limited skills utilisation resulting from inappropriate planning, and inefficient management and resourcing, the WB argued that VET in developing countries should be provided by individuals, enterprises and private sector training institutions, like NGOs or private companies.<sup>657</sup> The WB formulated this by saying that “private schools flourish when labour markets reward private spending on training and when schools (i.e., training centres) are free to operate with minimal regulation. Good private schools increase the exposure of public institutions to competitive forces, providing a stimulus for improved efficiency and quality.”<sup>658</sup> Similarly, Middleton and Demski expressed their views about VET by saying that “demand-driven training systems with the private sector provision have out-performed supply-driven systems that rely mostly on public sector training institutions.”<sup>659</sup> This policy shift prioritising primary education was crystallised in Tanzania in the form of a new Education and Training policy (1995), which replaced the Education for Self-Reliance policy made in 1967.<sup>660</sup>

#### 4.1.1 VET as a countermeasure against extreme poverty

*Internal contradictory demands for knowledge construction.* VET is stated to be a tool of skill-training and development for many countries<sup>7</sup>, even in sub-Saharan Africa, as such scholars as Hughes, Kalimasi, and Palmer indicated. Despite its low status as

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<sup>655</sup> Atchoarena 2001; Bennell & Furlong 1998; WB 1991. Since the first Education for All (EFA) conference held in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990 in co-operation with the UNESCO, the UN's Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the UNDP, as well as the World Bank (WB), an objective was set to extend the basic level of education to all children, young people and adults worldwide by 2000, and at the 2000 World Education Forum in Dakar by 2015. Similarly, the WB in its Primary Education Policy Paper in 1991 – and in fact, the 1980s Education Sector Policy Paper as well as – decisively shifted the WB's education policy to prioritise primary education and the focus on universal primary education instead of post-basic education and training. (Atchoarena 2001; Bennell & Furlong 1998; WB 1991.)

<sup>656</sup> Bennell, Bendera, Kanyenze, Kimambo, Kiwia, Mbiriyakura, Mukyanuzi, Munetsi, Muzulu, Parsalaw & Temu 1999

<sup>657</sup> Hultin 1987, 1, 10; Psacharopoulos 1985 and Psacharopoulos & Loxley 1985 in Bennell & Segerstrom 1998, 271–272; WB 1991

<sup>658</sup> WB 1991, 42

<sup>659</sup> Middleton & Demsky 1989 in Bennell & Segerstrom 1998, 271–272

<sup>660</sup> Buchert 1997, 44, 75



reported by Daly in Uganda and by Kalimasi in Tanzania, VET is understood to be vital for individuals, enterprises and society as an essential part of lifelong learning.<sup>661</sup> Skills acquisition is important for wages, self-fulfillment and vocational advancement.<sup>662</sup>

Although the World Bank's policy change put an emphasis on universal primary education by donor agencies in the 1990s, the Government of Tanzania continued to regard VET as critically important for the development of both the formal and informal sectors of the country's economy. Every Tanzanian needs skills. The leaders of the country and local educators still believe in VET. To the Tanzanian government VET is a useful tool in fighting for poverty alleviation and for promoting self-employment of the poor and primary school leavers, by supplying and supporting vocational schooling, both financially and technically. Therefore, the governments' support of VET as an element for the skills development system, as well as an initiator of entrepreneurial education is crucial.<sup>663</sup> Also, their attention paid to both public as well as private VET providers plays a vital role in the field. These countries' interests in VET are reflected in their education policies and development strategies.<sup>664</sup> On the contrary however, many Tanzanian parents and students would presently like to prioritise an academic education path, when choosing a post-primary option.<sup>665</sup> Inarguably, not everyone can be trained for top level jobs.<sup>666</sup>

In Tanzania, the role of post-basic education has been and is becoming a vital question, and conflicting views have been expressed about it. With many contradictory myths related to Tanzanian VET, which Kalimasi revealed, some groups favour vocational schooling and some other bodies give an advance to an academic education option. The five basic myths are as follows: the lower-achievers myth; the supply-driven myth, the villagisation myth, the entrepreneurial-based education myth, and the myth of dependence-based VET. We shall look at three myths in more detail, which are used when arguing in preference of some form of academic investment, specifically the lower-achievers myth, the myth of

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<sup>661</sup> Daly 2015, 128; Hughes 2005, 261; Kalimasi 2015, 115; Palmer 2007a; 2007b; 2014

<sup>662</sup> Kalimasi 2015, 115

<sup>663</sup> see e.g., Nkirina 2010

<sup>664</sup> Agrawal & Agrawal 2017, 246–247; Lewis 2009, 562; see also McGrath & Akoojee 2007, 432; 2009; McGrath & Badroodien 2006

<sup>665</sup> Bennell, Mukyanuzi, Kasogela, Mutashubirwa & Klim 2006, 73; Kahyarara & Teal 2008, 2223; Nafukho & Muya 2010, 97; Tonini 2010

<sup>666</sup> Foster 1987 in Watson 1994, 88; Middleton & Ziderman 1997, 6–7; Oketch 2007, 221; Psacharopoulos 1997; Tsang 1999

dependence-based VET (named by Kalimasi),<sup>667</sup> and the lower returns and employment outcomes myth (identified by Kahyarara and Teal,<sup>668</sup> as well as Wedgwood).<sup>669</sup>

The low-status job and the lower-achievers myth attached to VET was dispelled in this research by two Tanzanian VET authorities who were interviewed. These Lake Zone directors illustrated with the following quotations that VET is no longer seen as “the option of last resort”<sup>670</sup> or a “fall-back position”<sup>671</sup> for those school-leaver “failures” or “the low-achievers”<sup>672</sup> who failed to enter more academic streams like secondary education, because:

... the parents, they have begun to value this education, training [VET], nowadays more, during these years than previous years. They know, you know, that vocational training was just a place, a last resort. It was the place for these who failed to achieve secondary school or to proceed to go on higher education — okay, the failures. VET studies were just for the failures. But they have come back to reality. Now, the parents have realised that vocational skills are very, very important, more important than academic ones. As we mentioned, you see, employers also require people with qualifications.<sup>673</sup>

These officials concluded that even primary and secondary school leavers today need skills. This means that, for instance, many “Form Four”<sup>674</sup> or “Form Six”<sup>675</sup> graduates in Tanzania must come for skills training sooner or later, as one of the interviewees stated.

I'd like to see that vocational training takes a larger part, because vocational is skills training. Secondary education now, those who are finishing their Form Four, Form Six, they are expected to come for skills training. They must “pick” some skills. This is what academic [training] is. They do academic [studies], and at the later stage they, they must come for skills training. Originally, in the 60s, 70s, vocational training was ear-marked for the youth, a big population, who had no employment so that they can pick some skills, gain skills. Today, ... primary education is expanding, secondary is

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<sup>667</sup> Kalimasi 2015, 117–119

<sup>668</sup> Kahyarara & Teal 2008, 2223–2242

<sup>669</sup> Wedgwood 2007, 383

<sup>670</sup> see e.g., Kalimasi 2015, 117

<sup>671</sup> Hughes 2005, 261

<sup>672</sup> Kalimasi 2015, 117

<sup>673</sup> TI2nd9, M, 100–111

<sup>674</sup> Form Four (IV) refers to a 4-year-long secondary schooling, also called junior secondary schooling (see Al-Samarrai & Bennell 2003, 34).

<sup>675</sup> Form Six (VI), a 6-year-long secondary schooling, is known also as senior secondary schooling (see Al-Samarrai & Bennell 2003, 34).

trying to expand, is expanding, but these secondary people, secondary education people, primary education people, they all must go on to skills training ...<sup>676</sup>

It is worth asking, then, why academic education is steadily expressed as a preference in Tanzania. Quite apparently, the chance of finding a wage paying job is low, as is the development level.<sup>677</sup> Does one of the reasons behind this prioritisation relate to the power and use of knowledge? The truth is that myths based on contradictory research results of the returns in education are used to maintain a preference for any form of academic investment.

In fact, Nkirina stated that due to the expansion of universal primary and secondary education based on the Millennium Development Goals that absorption of Tanzanian graduates into the labour market has deteriorated, along with shrinking wage employment opportunities.<sup>678</sup> Also, as Wabike clarified, poor education quality characterises the country's secondary schools. He mentioned that so many Form Four leavers (O level)<sup>679</sup> failed, that the secondary schools could not enroll enough students for Form Five (A level) for the school year 2012/2013. This situation also has been reflected in the quality of higher education entrants as well.<sup>680</sup> Aptly, Wedgwood has also mentioned that progress to post-primary education has become limited with several obstacles faced in the external environment. She summarised the situation as follows: 'The low numbers of secondary leavers with good grades has resulted in a deteriorated level of competence of student teachers, which is reflected in their future teaching and also in the level of teaching generally.'<sup>681</sup>

Many study examples above concern such issues as quality, attractiveness or economic benefit of VET, and demonstrated that the knowledge prioritised and collected could have been mobilised for policy purposes.<sup>682</sup> Particularly, McGrath and Lugg were concerned with how consultancy domains have used "a VET

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<sup>676</sup> TI2nd6, M, 439–450

<sup>677</sup> see e.g., Kalimasi 2015, 118

<sup>678</sup> Nkirina 2010, 155–156

<sup>679</sup> The secondary education level covers post-primary formal education, which is offered to persons who have completed a 7-year-long primary education and meet the entry requirements for the second level. This second level has two sub-levels: a 4-year-long ordinary level (Forms I to IV) and a 2-year-long advanced level (Forms V to VI). Students who had completed ordinary level secondary education can continue to the next stage of advanced secondary education level, or vocational education and training (VET), and professional training or join the world of work. Those who complete advanced level secondary education join either tertiary education and training institutions or the labour market. (Rutayuga 2014, 20.)

<sup>680</sup> Wabike 2015, 29–30

<sup>681</sup> McMillan 2011; Wedgwood 2007, 394

<sup>682</sup> see e.g., McGrath & Lugg 2012

orthodoxy” and have stuck to their mantra that “the status of VET is low” as well as how these “findings” have had impact on the valuation of certain kind of knowledge on VET by questioning its limited relevance and effectiveness. These scholars revealed that the funders and donors have become committed, over generations, to support this type of knowledge that they have valued and that can be used for supporting policy formulation. To McGrath and Lugg, the weak level of VET research, its evaluations and management information systems have influenced the serious questioning of VET.<sup>683</sup>

However, research results on employment outcomes and returns of different education levels have also been contradictory. A case in point was the study of Kahyarara and Teal in 2008. They compared the returns and benefits of investments in Tanzanian vocational education with those of academic education, with a sample group of 2527. They provided evidence that the answers to these questions were linked through the shape of the earnings function and the importance of firm effects. This meant that high levels of academic studies had far higher returns than those able to be obtained either from vocational or lower levels of academic studies, although the vocational return could exceed the academic one at lower levels of education.<sup>684</sup> To them the question about the most profitable form of educational investment, either vocational or academic, depends on “the shape of the earnings function and the importance of firm effects.”<sup>685</sup>

*From vocationalisation towards generalisation of knowledge.* The “skills development”<sup>686</sup> of the youth in developing countries has generally been neglected, and particularly so through foreign aid.<sup>687</sup> This disregard, despite various efforts, took place after “the countries’ over-investment in vocational and technical education,”<sup>688</sup> as Heyneman, the scholar of development aid in education, put it. It was, in fact, just before the public statement given by Psacharopoulos — the scholar who worked over two decades with the World Bank — on “costly and inefficient VET.”<sup>689</sup> His famous and very hegemonic statement, “Too much money was going towards vocational education relative to the other types of education,”<sup>690</sup> was originally made

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<sup>683</sup> McGrath & Lugg 2012

<sup>684</sup> Kahyarara & Teal 2008, 2223–2242

<sup>685</sup> Kahyarara & Teal 2008, 2223

<sup>686</sup> In this context skills development (see e.g., Palmer 2014) is narrowly equated with VET.

<sup>687</sup> King, McGrath & Rose 2007, 355; Palmer 2007b

<sup>688</sup> Heyneman 2003, 333

<sup>689</sup> Hultin 1987, 1, 10; Psacharopoulos 1985 and Psacharopoulos & Loxley 1985 in Bennell & Segerstrom 1998, 271–272; WB 1991

<sup>690</sup> Psacharopoulos 2006, 330

in the 1980s, but is still being cited everywhere, and of which VET still suffers consequences in the developing countries.

*From pragmatism towards dogmatism and academisation of knowledge.* Psacharopoulos studied the rate of return on education in sub-Saharan Africa. He claimed that an individual with primary education received the highest rate of return world-wide.<sup>691</sup> To him, parents and students tended to view VET as the second-best option compared with academic studies. For this reason, students' attitudes were psychologically negative towards work, which was also reflected in their work performance. Continuously changing and unpredictable labour market conditions, coupled with a lack of appropriate data for further development and planning, constituted the major challenges for VET. Also, the widely used Western concepts of skills, of jobs, and of employment, failed to take local cultural features into consideration. Other cited problems included the failure of programmes to keep up with rapid changes in technology; the costs needed for technical equipment and technical teacher education, which were double the cost of that of general education; teachers were poorly trained or untrained; and VET was mainly government-led.<sup>692</sup>

In fact, the World Bank's declining interest in VET was chiefly based on contradictory research results.<sup>693</sup> A case in point, once again, was Psacharopoulos. His results indicated that these schools failed in achieving their main purpose, which was to generate the manpower required for their national economic development. The performance of a sizeable part of the WB-funded VET projects, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa during the 1970s and 1980s, was judged to be poor.<sup>694</sup> Predicting how many people with given educational qualifications would meet production requirements led to forecast errors of 1000%. Also, the return rates of investing in education showed that, paradoxically, investment in primary education produces higher returns investment in VET or tertiary education. Interestingly, the return rates also proved to be higher among women than among men. Third, the findings of evaluation on the so-called diversified secondary schools in Tanzania and Colombia lay at the root of the World Bank's policy shift as well.<sup>695</sup>

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<sup>691</sup> Bothun 2011, 1

<sup>692</sup> Psacharopoulos 1991 in Watson 1994, 90

<sup>693</sup> see Ahmad & Blaug 1973 and Psacharopoulos 1973, 1985, 1994, 1995 and Psacharopoulos & Loxley 1985 and Psacharopoulos & Woodhall 1985 in Psacharopoulos & Patrinos 2004

<sup>694</sup> Middleton & Ziderman 1997, 8–10

<sup>695</sup> Psacharopoulos 1985 and Psacharopoulos & Loxley 1985 in Middleton & Ziderman 1997, 9; Psacharopoulos & Patrinos 2004

However, when later referring to the World Bank's studies, Psacharopoulos emphasised that the WB is basically not against vocational-technical education offered in dedicated vocational schools but is against its offering inside the main school system.<sup>696</sup> Psacharopoulos also spoke about the under-appreciation of VET, although he was a person who had strongly criticised VET programmes in developing countries in the 1990s as well.

In regard to the previous results of World Bank (WB) studies, Lauglo said that the WB's policy on VET has been inconsistent when leaving VET to employers and private providers, while Bennell and Segerstrom, criticised them for "the shooting down of VET." They saw that the WB's experiences solely of school-based VET and its way of estimating education only as an economic investment totally neglected the broader societal and individual benefits of education.<sup>697</sup> The results of Psacharopoulos's studies, with extremely low-quality data from the public sector without any interviews, were questioned once again.<sup>698</sup> Thus, generally the investment in VET has been judged as futile, although more holistic ways and "the epistemological awakening of VET" are needed. It means that VET should be viewed more widely, "not just as a means to supply employers with trained workers, but a way to add missing experiential dimensions to the curriculum, that in turn can have tertiary effects upon creativity, inventiveness, and craft consciousness,"<sup>699</sup> as Lewis urges.

The quality of VET in Africa has been, and still seems to be, poor. Also, its VET is said to be costly, and unsuitable for the actual socio-economic conditions due to neglecting the needs of the international sector and labour market, as well as disregarding high unemployment rates among graduates.<sup>700</sup> Apart from a challenge caused by a shortage of VET, the existing VET provision looks to be crying out for further development and assurance of its better quality in sub-Saharan Africa. This was exemplified by the 2008 African Economic Outlook's review of 35 African countries. Again, in light of this report, development systems of vocational and technical skills in Africa suffered from a lack of the qualified and trained staff, as well as out-of-date equipment.<sup>701</sup> The findings of Nkirina on Tanzania's VET were consistent with this former review. For instance, entrepreneurship training, highly

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<sup>696</sup> Psacharopoulos 2006, 33

<sup>697</sup> Bennell 1996a; 1996b, 195; Bennell & Segerstrom 1998; Lauglo 1996, 225

<sup>698</sup> Bothun 2011

<sup>699</sup> Lewis 2009, 558

<sup>700</sup> Atchoarena & Delluc 2002, 38; Watson 1994, 89, 91

<sup>701</sup> AEO 2012

needed in Tanzania, has unfortunately been one of these areas where VET provided minimal benefits.<sup>702</sup> Next, we look at research results dealing with employment prospects of VET holders.

Moreover, VET programmes in Africa seem to be ill-adopted and have weak links with the labour market. Therefore, VET graduates are not well prepared for the growing needs of self-employment due to the missing apprenticeship programmes, lack of strong links between industry and VET centres and missing entrepreneurial role models, which Nkirina found in her study conducted on entrepreneurship education in Tanzania's two biggest cities, Dar es Salaam and Mwanza in 2007 and 2008.<sup>703</sup> Some researchers have noted that the emphasis on VET in Tanzania has shifted to self-employment, despite prohibiting factors for this type of employment, such as deficient entrepreneurial skills, a shortage of capital and unproductive economic systems.<sup>704</sup>

Very few African countries have laid stress on development skills for the informal sector, which is primarily the most significant source of employment and of training at present.<sup>705</sup> Namely, this sector covered 70% of non-agricultural employment in some sub-Saharan African countries in 2012.<sup>706</sup> Consequently, given the ILO's estimation, 93% of new jobs will be offered in the informal sector in Africa, although their wages are 44% lower than wages in the formal sector.<sup>707</sup> Consistent with the ILO's estimation, the results of Palmer's research conducted on skills development of the rural informal economy of Ghana provided evidence that "formal sector employment is continuing to fall, and the great majority of all school leavers, up to 90% in Ghana, are obligated to enter the informal, micro-enterprise economy, urban and rural."<sup>708</sup>

#### 4.1.2 VET as a booster for achieving Education for All

Education for All (EFA) has had several influences. Generally, it has contributed to higher access levels to education. However, it has simultaneously and unexpectedly

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<sup>702</sup> Nkirina 2010, 158, 162

<sup>703</sup> Nkirina 2010, 162–163

<sup>704</sup> Kalimasi 2015, 119; Nkirina 2010, 163; Themba, Chamme, Phambuka & Makgosa 1999, 112

<sup>705</sup> see Adams, Johansson de Silva & Razmara 2013; AEO 2012; Palmer 2007a; 2007b

<sup>706</sup> UNESCO 2012, 26

<sup>707</sup> ILO 2005b; World Youth Report 2003, 60

<sup>708</sup> Palmer 2007b, 398

deteriorated the quality of education in three south-eastern African countries, Tanzania, Malawi, and Zambia. The deterioration of the quality and exchange value of the Tanzanian education was demonstrated with the data from studies by scholars such as McMillan, Wabike, and Wedgwood.

McMillan in her study in 2011 found four examples of unintended consequences of EFA: an increase in after-school learning programs and private schools; more unqualified teachers; higher teacher/student ratios; and inappropriate curricula. These examples have also had a multiplier impact on VET, as secondary and tertiary levels are generally neglected by their governments. They have prioritised and supported very heavily universal primary education due to the strong support received from donors.<sup>709</sup> The World Bank, for instance, has strongly steered this reinforcement through its poverty reduction strategies and papers. In Tanzania, it is known by the Tanzanian Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper,<sup>710</sup> called MKUKUTA.<sup>711</sup> Apropos of education and VET, it influences all their planning documents as well, by emphasising primary education as a key tool for poverty alleviation.<sup>712</sup>

Wedgwood's study on the non-financial and financial returns to the primary and secondary education in Tanzania supported McMillan's findings. She stated that mass access to universal primary education through the Primary Education Development Programme by means of donor-support has had negative impacts on the quality of education and its equality, as well to poverty reduction. Based on her research, Wedgwood wondered why universal primary education in Tanzania has failed to bring about economic development or widespread poverty reduction.<sup>713</sup> To her, "Tanzania provides a clear example that getting children into school on its own is not enough for poverty reduction."<sup>714</sup> She stated "that achieving UPE without

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<sup>709</sup> McMillan 2011, 1, 3

<sup>710</sup> Poverty reduction strategy papers (PRSPs) stands for the documents, approved by the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF), focussing on poverty reduction. The president of the WB, Robert McNamara, proved to be before with his time by announcing the main task of the WB in 1973: to eradicate absolute poverty before the year 2000. When comparing PRSP with poverty reduction strategy (PRS), the latter assumes the wider perspective in relation to poverty reduction. There, poverty reduction is the purpose without linkages the politics to new loans or debt rescheduling. Typically, Education for All and Millennium Development Goals were reflected in many countries' PRSPs in the process of their development and their product (UNESCO 2002, 106; von Bonsdorff & Voipio 2005, 15).

<sup>711</sup> MKUKUTA = Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza (Kiswahili) (McMillan 2011, 143).

<sup>712</sup> McMillan 2011, 143

<sup>713</sup> Wedgwood 2007, 383

<sup>714</sup> Wedgwood 2007, 394



expansion of post-primary education will only have a limited effect on poverty reduction.”<sup>715</sup> She continued that “In rural areas, current investment in education is unlikely to reap substantial returns unless there is concurrent development of infrastructure and services.”<sup>716</sup> She was referring to Tanzania and its deteriorating roads, reduction in local services (e.g., hospitals, markets, farm inputs) and increasing costs.<sup>717</sup>

Similar results were found by Wabike, who criticised, as McMillan Wedgwood did, the low quality of universal primary education in Tanzania. In his article in 2015 he concretised that education at lower levels in Tanzania seems to have been a waste of time and resources.<sup>718</sup> Unfortunately, in Tanzania, for instance, the push for universal primary education has been linked to quality deterioration in all educational levels, instead of genuine universalisation of education. Thus, universal primary education (UPE) has been distorted into the Swahili phrase “Ualimu Pasipo Elimu”, which means “teaching without education.”<sup>719</sup>

There are numerous examples of primary school graduates who cannot read or write, worse still, some of them even continue with further studies.” ... “if school leavers cannot read or write, then education is in the first place meaningless. It is almost as if what Nyerere thought to avoid by providing education for self-reliance is becoming exactly the opposite — the difference now being that the uneducated are now actually at or just left school... This new group of the uneducated has actually been in the education system already!”<sup>720</sup>

Contradictory statements have been made about the usefulness of the Education for All (EFA) approach by some individuals, like Emeritus Professor Phillip Hughes and the Director-General of UNESCO Koïchiro Matsuura, as well as the Sida.<sup>721</sup> They pointed out that primary education, even if achieved, is insufficient to meet the demands of work and citizenship when failing to provide the skills needed for productive work, nor the motivation for continued or lifelong learning.<sup>722</sup>

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<sup>715</sup> Wedgwood 2007, 385

<sup>716</sup> Wedgwood 2007, 393

<sup>717</sup> Wedgwood 2007, 393

<sup>718</sup> Wabike 2015, 31

<sup>719</sup> Leshabari & Masesa 2000 and Rajabu 2000 in Wedgwood 2007, 386

<sup>720</sup> Wabike 2015, 30

<sup>721</sup> Sida 1997 in Hughes 2009, 2045

<sup>722</sup> Hughes 2005; Matsuura 2000

Most importantly, Education for All (EFA) does not mean Work for All.<sup>723</sup> This finding was made by Palmer when studying skills development in Ghana's informal sector. His result was supported by Hughes and the Bonn Declaration for technical/vocational education and training.<sup>724</sup> They highlighted the core importance of Access for All, claiming technical/vocational education and training to be an integral part of EFA. This perspective no longer viewed technical/vocational education and training as optional and marginal, but rather as a booster for achieving EFA by 2015.<sup>725</sup> Finally, after recognising that the great number of primary school leavers in developing countries receive no education upon graduation, in 2003 the UNESCO General Conference expanded EFA to deal with not only general literacy and universal primary education, but also as technical/vocational education and training, skills development for employability; effective citizenship; and functional literacy for the workforce.<sup>726</sup>

However, surprisingly, there has been a call to revisit the value of VET given the changing role of work and its impact on national and international economies.<sup>727</sup> This is exemplified by the establishment of the UNESCO-UNEVOC International Centre for technical/vocational education and training in Bonn (UNEVOC, Bonn) in 2000 by UNESCO and the German Government. This centre provides backing to Education for All through technical/vocational education and training, specifically in developing countries.<sup>728</sup> Also, the Global Monitoring Report in 2005 and the World Summit in September 2005 again raised hope and momentum to refocus more attention on skills.<sup>729</sup>

Young people need qualified VET and decent and productive work. Thus, strategies for this development and implementation are needed. Cases in point were Goal 8 and Target 16 of the United Nations Millennium Declaration,<sup>730</sup> which could be seen as referring to an important role for VET in this development and implementation process. Likewise, the new United Nations Agenda by 2030, with its 17 Sustainable Development Goals, highlights the importance of full and productive employment and entrepreneurship. Again, it stresses decent work for all, which

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<sup>723</sup> Palmer 2007a; 2007b. Education for All ≠ Employment for All (Palmer 2007b, 398).

<sup>724</sup> see Fien & Wilson 2005, 275–276

<sup>725</sup> Hughes 2005; Palmer 2007b, 398

<sup>726</sup> Hughes 2005; Sida 1997 in Hughes 2009; UNESCO-IIEP 2004; UNESCO-UNEVOC 2003, 1; 2005, 1

<sup>727</sup> Fien & Wilson 2005; Hughes 2005, 261

<sup>728</sup> UNESCO-UNEVOC 2001, 1

<sup>729</sup> Palmer 2007b, 397–420

<sup>730</sup> Palmer 2007b, 399; United Nations 2000

could be reached, for instance, by means of supplying technical and vocational skills training as well as qualified teaching. Goal 4.c of this new Agenda by 2030 especially encourages the employment of international cooperation as a channel to assist, for instance, teacher training in developing countries.<sup>731</sup>

### 4.1.3 Summary

*External hegemonic and fallacious ways to use evaluative knowledge on and power over VET.* The state's leadership role in the VET and skills development of Tanzania has been nominal. International aid agencies have long been present and played a vital role in the Tanzanian education sector.<sup>732</sup> The World Bank and other Western funding agencies have used their power over steering the education policies of nation-states seeking loans for making investments in education. For instance, these funders have linked up their own values, e.g., human rights, with loan terms set for loan seeking countries. Also, knowledge acquired through research results have been used in ways contradictory to local benefit.<sup>733</sup>

*Legacy of Nyerere.* Today in Tanzania, Nyerere's original education policy for self-reliance is no more than a dream. At present, the nature of Tanzanian education could be said to be neither Tanzanian nor African. The education knowledge is captured by global economic forces and international policy players, like the World Bank or the International Monetary Fund with their external structural reforms and accountability demands, and other private providers, like in the VET sector.<sup>734</sup>

Even though Nyerere's Ujamaa, villagisation, idea proved to be a failure, some myths are still attached to it. One of them is linked to Tanzanian VET, as Kalimasi revealed recently. According to this myth, VET is supposed to be targeted primarily at enhancing the skills for villages' development. There is no truth to this myth, for most Tanzanian VET graduates are pulled to move from rural to urban areas to find jobs due to socio-economic and development changes taken place in Tanzania towards market economy, free trade and privatisation.<sup>735</sup>

Since the Ujamaa times, the Tanzanian government was regarded as the primary good and service provider, as well as the main creator of jobs, which Kalimasi called

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<sup>731</sup> United Nations 2015, 17–18, 20

<sup>732</sup> Buchert 1997, 11

<sup>733</sup> Kvale 1995, 17

<sup>734</sup> Wabike 2015, 26, 30

<sup>735</sup> Kalimasi 2015, 118–119

the supply-driven myth of VET. This meant “that jobs are there, waiting for graduates and they cannot be created.”<sup>736</sup> Therefore, entrepreneurship has been seen in the country as a foreign phenomenon, typically left to such tribes as the Chaggas and Kurias. However, this misconception is slowly changing, for people are realising that they need to be engaged in some activities to generate income because of the slow growth of Tanzania’s industrial sector and a lack of formal wage employment opportunities.<sup>737</sup>

The current situation of the Tanzanian education sector, which, according to Wabike, could be called “education for dependence,” illustrates that Nyerere’s ideology “Education for Self-Reliance” has been overtaken. This, Kalimasi called the new myth of dependence-based vocational education, in which indigenous knowledge has degraded and Western thinking has risen through competence-based training curriculum development and as a result of new gas exploration activities reflected in the growing number of new investors in the field.<sup>738</sup> Wabike sees that Tanzanians need new emancipation from this “economic slavery and financial colonialism” so that they could be freed from “mental slavery and colonialism” towards which Nyerere directed his policy and philosophy to reach political and social equality, both key values in the development of that period.<sup>739</sup>

To sum up, these words, spoken by Nyerere in 1968, are still valid, “If it [the level of primary education] is poor, the rest of our education system is bound to suffer.”<sup>740</sup> Unfortunately, his thoughts aptly describe today’s education situation in Tanzania. The fall in education quality in Tanzania, at all levels, is real. The data from studies by scholars such as Buchert; Hartwig; McMillan; Meli; Tikly, Lowe, Crossley, Dachi, Garrett, and Mukabaranga; Tonini; Wabike as well as Wedgwood, all indicate this reality. These researchers listed current educational challenges faced in Tanzania, including: declining enrolment and retention rates at primary education; increased illiteracy rates and very low competency in skills; reduced transition rates to secondary education — one of the lowest in Africa; and poor physical infrastructure (e.g., classrooms, furniture, books). In addition, a large number of unqualified teachers exist because of building new schools; overcrowded classrooms as compared to the private tuition industry; low morale among the teaching staff with a high level of teacher absenteeism; authoritarian teaching methodologies and

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<sup>736</sup> Ishumi 2008 in Kalimasi 2015, 118

<sup>737</sup> Nkirina 2010, 155, 161

<sup>738</sup> Kalimasi 2015, 119

<sup>739</sup> Wabike 2015, 26–30

<sup>740</sup> Nyerere 1968; Wabike 2015, 30

students' harassment; as well as vastly outnumbering private secondary education institutions compared with the volume of public ones, all pose a serious challenge to Tanzania's education.<sup>741</sup>

## 4.2 The evaluation experiment: the VET case at Mwanza Home Craft Centre

The Tanzanian VET sector has many providers. Apart from government owned VET, non-governmental education, including missions' trade schools and centres, private vocational training centres as well as company-based training centres, have played a very important role in the VET sector in Tanzania.<sup>742</sup> Due to the political decisions made and their negative influence on the VET sector, many private providers, like NGOs, stepped up to offer VET services to developing countries.<sup>743</sup> Despite a large percentage of these VET providers being private, skills training, specifically, company-based training efforts has been reduced during recent years. The reason for this decrease has been the privatisation of government-owned enterprises and parastatals as well as the restructuring of Tanzanian industry.<sup>744</sup>

In Tanzania, private providers have been, and still are, key players in the VET sector, as the following figures reveal. The proliferation of private VET institutions has led to duplication and competition between these providers.<sup>745</sup> Their number especially increased between the years 1991–1995 (during the economic liberalisation period of Tanzania).<sup>746</sup> In 1995 more than 30,000 students were enrolled in over 300 private VET institutions,<sup>747</sup> of which almost 160 were run by churches or

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<sup>741</sup> Buchert 1997, 111; Hartwig 2013, 487, 495–496; McMillan 2011, 146–178; Meli 2015; Tikly, Lowe, Crossley, Dachi, Garrett & Mukabaranga 2003; Tonini 2010; Wabike 2015, 30–31; Wedgwood 2007, 386

<sup>742</sup> Athumani 1996; Chediell, Sekwao & Kirumba 2000, 9

<sup>743</sup> Bennell & Segerstrom 1998, 271; Doftori 2004, 19; Psacharopoulos 2006, 332; WB 1991, 58

<sup>744</sup> Athumani 1996

<sup>745</sup> Tikly, Lowe, Crossley, Dachi, Garrett & Mukabaranga 2003

<sup>746</sup> Bennell, Bendera, Kanyenze, Kimambo, Kiwia, Mbiriyaakura, Mukyanuzi, Munetsi, Muzulu, Parsalaw & Temu 1999

<sup>747</sup> Atchoarena & Esquieu 2002, 74; Athumani 1996; Bennell, Bendera, Kanyenze, Kimambo, Kiwia, Mbiriyaakura, Mukyanuzi, Munetsi, Muzulu, Parsalaw & Temu 1999; VETA/GTZ 2000, 9; VETA, Strategic Action Plan in Bennell, Bendera, Kanyenze, Kimambo, Kiwia, Mbiriyaakura, Mukyanuzi, Munetsi, Muzulu, Parsalaw & Temu 1999

missions.<sup>748</sup> By 2015 the number of private or NGO-owned VET centres had risen to 840. At that time, only 22 of all VET institutions were government-owned.<sup>749</sup>

The shortage of student places in developing countries, especially those offered by the public sector, has prompted these organisations to step up and respond to this actual demand. This was demonstrated by the study of Atchoarena and Esquieu.<sup>750</sup> If comparing supply with demand in Tanzania, VET enrolments are still low. For instance, the number of young entrants into the labour market was about 800,000 in 2000, but only 40,000–50,000 of them were annually registered as VET trainees.<sup>751</sup> Unfortunately, since then the enrolment rate of VET has not significantly improved, as was exemplified by VETA statistics. In 2006 VETA's basic and short courses produced 52,000 annually, of whom 28% were female students.<sup>752</sup> According to Nkirina, the number of Tanzanian VET graduates was 100,000 in 2008<sup>753</sup>.

The labour market situation is challenging for young people in Tanzania. Kalimasi linked this situation to the supply-driven myth, in which jobs are assumed to be waiting for the graduates. The truth is, in the current Tanzanian job climate, most workplaces need to be created by the graduates themselves.<sup>754</sup> Thus, many young Tanzanians, even those with education, have difficulties finding employment. Also, the future of Tanzanian youth looks grim because the economic growth from the mid-1990s has not produced a decline in unemployment in Tanzania.<sup>755</sup> Conversely, opportunities for waged employment declined over the 1990s.<sup>756</sup> Many young Tanzanians with formal education have little hope of finding productive work in the formal sector.<sup>757</sup> This sector can offer only 10,000–30,000 new jobs annually.<sup>758</sup> Consequently, the clear majority of young entrants into the labour market each year will find employment in the informal sector of the Tanzanian economy.<sup>759</sup> The number of Tanzanian youth leaving primary school with no or little professional

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<sup>748</sup> In 1999, based on VETA's stocktaking 470 training institutions were registered in Tanzania (VETA/GTZ 2000, 10).

<sup>749</sup> VETA 2015

<sup>750</sup> Atchoarena & Esquieu 2002, 21–29

<sup>751</sup> GTZ/VETA 2000, 5; ILO 2004, 36

<sup>752</sup> AEO 2008, 582

<sup>753</sup> Nkirina 2010, 155

<sup>754</sup> Kalimasi 2015, 118

<sup>755</sup> Chambua 2004, 81

<sup>756</sup> Al-Samarrai & Bennell 2003, 42

<sup>757</sup> Al-Samarrai & Bennell 2003, 44–46; Nkirina 2010, 161

<sup>758</sup> GTZ/VETA 2000, 10–11; World Development Report 2007, 13.

<sup>759</sup> ILO 2004, 36; Oketch 2007, 227; World Development Report 2007, 13

skills is estimated at 500,000, minimum. Thus, the self-employment rate has typically been very high, and is still growing in the country. This rate was 75% in 1991,<sup>760</sup> and in the future 93% of all school leavers either living in African urban or rural areas, including Tanzania, are projected to be employed to the informal sector and micro-enterprise economy.<sup>761</sup>

Next, let us review some more examples that illustrate the growing need for VET in the Mwanza Region, the environment of this research, and the location of my evaluation experiment, on the grounds of statistics. The population of Mwanza Region has grown fast. The population census carried out in 1988, the year after MHCC's official inauguration, showed that the number of inhabitants in the Mwanza Region reached almost two million people. Of these, 250,000 lived in Mwanza city centre and of them more than 25% were estimated to be unemployed.<sup>762</sup> Based on the population census made in 2012 the figure was almost three million inhabitants — with an average household size of 5.7 persons.<sup>763</sup>

If looking at the year 1987 — when the intake of the first MHCC students took place — Mwanza Region was already in dire need of VET. What is more, if we observe the number of all VET centres located in Mwanza Region during the 2001 data generation, the number has risen rapidly to 38 institutions, from the previous year's 25.<sup>764</sup> Of these, four were owned by VETA and ten by missions, providing 2,250 study places<sup>765</sup> out of the total number of 4,041 VET graduates in Mwanza Region that year. In the same area, the total number of primary school leavers was 41,870, and out of that, just 4,000 were selected to continue with secondary education. This meant that 82% of the primary school leavers might end up in the streets as jobless youth. In 2009, the number of VET centres in Mwanza Region had dropped to 29, making the situation even more challenging for these school leavers.<sup>766</sup>

Private VET providers have played a key role in the VET sector of Mwanza as well. In 1987, apart from the government-owned National Vocational Training Centre Mwanza, the supply of VET in the whole Mwanza Region was on the shoulders of two private, church-owned centres. They were MHCC, and Kalwande

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<sup>760</sup> GTZ/VETA 2000, 10–11

<sup>761</sup> ILO 2005b; Palmer 2007b, 398

<sup>762</sup> General Report 2003a; MHCC1

<sup>763</sup> General Report 2003a; 2012 Population and Housing Census 2012 2, 9

<sup>764</sup> VETA 2000, 47–49

<sup>765</sup> TI2nd9, M, 9, 36, 72; TI2nd10, M, 20–22, 50, 70, 72

<sup>766</sup> VETA 2004; Vocational training centres in Mwanza (Mwanza 2009)

Church Service and Training Centre owned by the Roman Catholic Mission.<sup>767</sup> This finding was in conflict with the Evaluation Report commissioned by the Finnish MFA, which erroneously stated that there was only a single VET centre in Mwanza Region at the time.<sup>768</sup> Another example, from 1995, reveals how important the role of private VET providers were in Mwanza. Of eight existing VET centres at that time, only three were in active operation in Mwanza district, including MHCC; the other five VET centres were compelled to close their doors due to financial problems.<sup>769</sup>

#### 4.2.1 NGOs as the background organisations of the VET case

Traditionally, development aid from NGOs has been channelled through a development project.<sup>770</sup> A typical case was the VET case of this research, the evaluation experiment at Mwanza Home Craft Centre (MHCC). This private “full registered”<sup>771</sup> VET institution, in Swahili known as “Chuo cha Maarifa ya Nyumbani – Mwanza” (Figure 14), was established in cooperation with the Finnish and Tanzanian NGOs, Fida and FPCT, and was principally funded by the Finnish MFA between 1986 and 1996.<sup>772</sup>

In fact, a development project, which MHCC remains, is still today the most typical mechanism used by NGOs to deploy Finnish development aid. This was indicated, for example, by Kontinen and Koponen. In accordance with these findings were results from Morra Imas and Rist which logically indicated that most evaluations of NGOs were understandably tied to a project-type evaluation, in 2009.<sup>773</sup>

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<sup>767</sup> MHCC23; MHCC25; TI2nd6, M, 111–112; TI2nd12, M, 2, 51

<sup>768</sup> MHCC17, 2

<sup>769</sup> MHCC38, 6

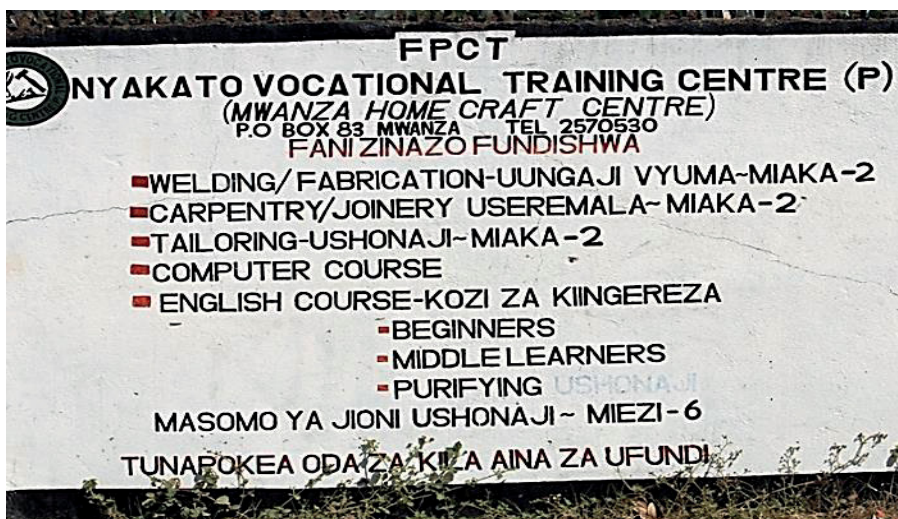
<sup>770</sup> see e.g., Feinstein & Beck 2006, 536; Patton 2005 in Mathison 2005, 116

<sup>771</sup> MHCC15. VETA is authorised to give first a preliminary registration, and then a full registration to a VET centre. A period for the full registration varies from three to five years. Then afterwards the full registration can be revised (TI2nd9, M, 560–565).

<sup>772</sup> Subsequently in 2003, referring to the name of MHCC, the staff of MHCC would have liked to change the name of the centre for Nyakato Vocational Training Centre (Jinega 2.3.2004) or for Mwanza Vocational Training Centre (Chuo cha Ufundi Mwanza) (MHCC43). At that time the Tanzanian VET officials had not yet approved this change. Therefore, throughout this report I devoted to use acronyms MHCC when referring to this centre, although in 2015 Nyakato Vocational Training Centre is the official name of this VET institute (NVTC 2014).

<sup>773</sup> Kontinen 2006, 26; Koponen 2009, 42; Morra Imas & Rist 2009, 108, 517, 519; see also Biggs & Smith 2003





**Figure 14.** The advertisement of MHCC readable on its surrounding wall (Pylvänäinen 2006)

NGOs providing aid for developing countries are generally not classified as official development assistance.<sup>774</sup> However, these voluntary agencies and associations, like churches and church-based organisations, have provided key services (e.g., education, health) for the poor in the poorest countries long before the Marshall Plan.<sup>775</sup> The history of foreign aid (some 70 years) is officially dated from that point.<sup>776</sup> Overall, the role of NGOs in the development sector has increased since the 1980s.<sup>777</sup>

<sup>774</sup> Sasaki 2006, 57; 2008, 4. See more about official development assistance in footnote 1.

<sup>775</sup> After the Second World War, in 1947, the US Foreign Minister G. C. Marshall proposed to direct massive aid towards the economic reconstruction of Europe, the US recovery programme, the Marshall Plan, to generate opportunities for American business and prohibit the spread of communism. With their improved living conditions recipients had to become less receptive to communist propaganda. This was a “prototype” for development co-operation and an appropriate analogy for development aid, the solution for the “underdevelopment” of new nation-states, known by different names: backward, underdeveloped, poor, less developed, developing, traditional countries in the South or Third World, with featuring loans and massive resource allocation to 19 European countries. Again, the history of development aid dates to the Point Four Programme launched by the US President H. S. Truman. His policy was to aid economically underdeveloped areas to develop their resources and raise their living standards. (Breuning 2003, 229–230; Chirot 1981, 261–262; Degnbol-Martinussen & Engberg-Pedersen 2003, 7–8; Hettne 1990, 46; King & McGrath 2004, 18; Martinussen 2004, 9, 34; Pankaj 2005, 116; Pronk 2001, 611; So 1990, 17.) As suggested by Bauer (1981, 87 in Hudson 2013) “the Third World is the creation of foreign aid: without foreign aid there is no Third World”.

<sup>776</sup> Artto 2005; Kontinen 2007; Riddell 2007, 24–25; Sasaki 2006, 63–64

<sup>777</sup> Koponen 2009, 41; Mitlin, Hickey & Bebbington 2007; Mpamila 2001, 2; Myllylä 2001, 150

These days NGOs are delivering more public services than ever before with government grants and purchase-of-service contracts with the New Public Management reform movement.<sup>778</sup> At present NGOs play a significant role as actors of development aid.<sup>779</sup> They are important players in service provision (health services, education, water and sanitation, relief and welfare in refugee and emergency situations); provision of support services (professional training, provision of supplies in a management consultancy); policy advocacy (promoting public awareness to change policies); fundraising; development promotion (filling the gaps in human needs discovered by the state, direct improvements in the living standards of the poorest); and empowerment of local communication (functional “conscientisation”).<sup>780</sup>

NGOs have been very influential in the African context especially in the fields of primary health care and education. This view was recently introduced by the Finnish scholar Peltola concerning the Finnish faith-based organisations operating in Africa. Additionally, he argued that effectiveness of these organisations was based on familiarity with local culture and language, on long relationships, as well as on a good compliance with high moral principles and ethics in their activities.<sup>781</sup>

When referring to the concept of a project, I cite Dale, to whom a project is “a planned intervention for achieving one or more objectives, encompassing a set of interrelated activities that are undertaken during a delimited period of time, using specific human, financial and physical resources.”<sup>782</sup> In addition, a project needs an organisation in order to be functional. Aply, projects are not the actual source of development: far greater forces are in question.<sup>783</sup> Some scholars therefore prefer to

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<sup>778</sup> Gugerty 2008, 105; Smith 2010, 129–130. The importance of NGOs can be exemplified by the presence of more than 4,000 European NGOs working primarily in the developing world in the end of 1990s (Paterson, Brochmann, Evensmo, Lambert-Madore, Bohwasi & Parakrama 1998, 20). Again, the proportion of official development assistance channelled through NGOs in the OECD countries has concurrently increased, although the total official development assistance has decreased in the last few years (Koch, Dreher, Nunnenkamp & Thiele 2009, 902; Rugumamu 2005, 91–92). Similarly, in Tanzania NGOs’ number is increasing, a case in point was the registration of 25 NGOs between the years 1986–90. In the early 1990s the number of registered NGOs raised to 604, while being more than 8,000 in this East-African country in 2000. (Lange, Wallevik & Kiondo 2000, 6; Mercer 1999 in Levine 2002, 1043.) To Reuben the equal figures in Tanzania were as follows: 41 registered NGOs in 1990, while by 2000 the number of NGOs passed 10,000 (Reuben 2002 in Hearn 2007, 1096).

<sup>779</sup> Agg 2006; Brown & Kalegaonkar 2002; Koch, Dreher, Nunnenkamp & Thiele 2009, 914; Mitlin, Hickey & Bebbington 2007

<sup>780</sup> Mpamila 2001, 2–3

<sup>781</sup> Peltola 2011, 186

<sup>782</sup> Dale 2004, 59

<sup>783</sup> Fowler 1996, 59

shift from speaking about projects to speaking more about organisations. Based on this perspective, projects are how partnerships between organisations can bring together various interests and preoccupations to address issues and affect desired change. Therefore, a development intervention, as defined by the OECD-DAC, is: “Any activity, project, programme, strategy, policy, theme, sector, instrument, modality, institutional performance, etc., aimed to promote development.”<sup>784</sup> Clearly this is only one part of the broader processes of change and one among many factors contributing to development.<sup>785</sup>

To Koponen an “intervention is part and parcel of development, and development is an exercise which is thoroughly interventionist.”<sup>786</sup> Interventions are thus always part of the flow or chain of events located within the wider outline of activities of the state and of the parties interested in operating in civil society.<sup>787</sup> In this research, the terms “project” and “intervention” are used interchangeably when referring to the VET project of MHCC. We turn now to the VET case at MHCC, its Finnish and Tanzanian partner NGOs (Fida and FPCT), as well as the Tanzanian VET provider, MHCC itself.

*The Finnish NGO.* Fida belongs to the worldwide Pentecostal movement, a subset of Christianity with over 177 million adherents all over the world.<sup>788</sup> The main partners of Fida are principally churches and parishes, which could be said to be the world’s largest and oldest NGOs. These faith-based organisations are well-known for a long history and tradition of humanitarian work, as well as for encouragement of their vast and easily mobilised membership to do voluntary work. Moreover, these churches are unique local actors in the sense that they are independent of external partners.<sup>789</sup> At the national level, Fida was formed by 140 individual members as well as the collective of Finnish Pentecostal churches (181 as of the end of 2013),<sup>790</sup> for a grand total of 45,935 members in 2018.<sup>791</sup>

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<sup>784</sup> OECD-DAC 2010

<sup>785</sup> Arsalo 1999; 2005, 101; Marsden & Oakley 1990, 10–11

<sup>786</sup> Koponen 2004, 5

<sup>787</sup> see e.g., Fowler 1996

<sup>788</sup> Mandryck 2010, 3

<sup>789</sup> Fida 2008, 12

<sup>790</sup> Fida 2014a, 32

<sup>791</sup> Seurakuntaopas 2018, 37

At present, missionary and religious organisations continue to play a vital role in Finnish development practices.<sup>792</sup> This is evidenced by the fact that Fida<sup>793</sup> — the background organisation for the evaluation experiment of this research, the VET case at MHCC — has been among the largest Finnish NGOs and one of the first “partnership organisations.”<sup>794</sup> They have been funded under the multi-year programme support, today called “programme-based support,”<sup>795</sup> by Finland’s MFA working in the field of development aid.<sup>796</sup> Besides the MFA of Finland, Fida’s development activities have also been funded by the EU.<sup>797</sup> Fida also self-finances through fundraising campaigns, newsletters, testamentary legacies, donations, child sponsorship payments and sales in Fida second hand stores across Finland.<sup>798</sup>

Fida’s development activities are composed of three elements. They are development cooperation (i.e., programmes under the framework agreement with the Finnish MFA and one programme with the European Union), humanitarian aid, as well as child sponsorship schemes.<sup>799</sup> Fida’s development cooperation programme

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<sup>792</sup> Salonen & Rekola 2005, 7

<sup>793</sup> “Finnish Free Foreign Mission 70 years ~ Manifold Missions” provides an overview of the missionary work undertaken by this faith-based organisation. For instance, 450 missionaries in 41 countries worked under this organisation in 1997. (Hilpinen 1997.) The Finnish Free Foreign Mission (FFFM), the Finnish NGO and the mission organisation of Finnish Pentecostal Churches, was established in 1927 (Ahonen 1994, 178; Hakola 2004, 7; Hämäläinen 2005, 8, 312; Luoto 2007, 10; see also Fida 2014b). FFFM started its operation in Tanzania by sending Mrs Sylvi Mömmö to the country, that time known as Tanganyika, in 1934 (Ahonen 1994, 223–224; Helimäki 1984, 1; Kuosmanen 1989, 31; Manninen 1983). Moreover, to the history of the Finnish Pentecostal Church can be accessed in the book written by Ahonen (1994) and Ruohomäki (2013). FFFM founded its own international relief and development aid department in 1972 (cf. to Helimäki 2004, 19; Hilpinen 1997, 14–15, 135) the year was 1974), called the Development Aid of the Mission, in the Finnish language, “Lähetysten Kehitysapu (LKA)” (Kuosmanen 1989, 39). In the year 1974 This faith-based organisation was among these first Finnish NGOs receiving funding from the state (Ahonen 1994, 371; Helimäki 2004, 19; Kivikangas 1989, 84; Kuosmanen 1989, 39; Salo 2007, 87). The history of LKA can be found in the book edited by Silvast (2004). Later in 2001, the whole organisation, FFFM, including also its development cooperation activities, LKA, was renamed Fida International (Fida) (Hakola 2004, 7; Hämäläinen 2007, 75).

<sup>794</sup> The Finnish MFA supports NGOs through five channels: 1. annual grants to individual projects of the Finnish NGOs; 2. 3-year grants to partnership programmes of Finnish partnership organisations; 3. small grants to local NGOs operating in developing countries, administrated by three sector-based foundations located in Finland; 4. grants to local NGOs in developing countries, administrated by Finnish embassies; and 5. grants to international NGOs (INGOs). Partnership organisations are typically large and quite well-established. (e.g., Kontinen 2007, 64; MFA 2008/1, 18; 2013.)

<sup>795</sup> MFA 2017/3a

<sup>796</sup> Hämäläinen 2005, 8, 312

<sup>797</sup> Fida 2016, 34–35

<sup>798</sup> Fida 2010b, 12; 2016, 34–35

<sup>799</sup> Fida 2010b, 12–13; 2011a, 8; Hämäläinen 2007, 79

aims at poverty alleviation and is in accordance with the development policies of the Finnish government and of the European Union, the United Nations Agenda by 2030 and country specific Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers.<sup>800</sup> Moreover, Fida considers the Paris Declaration, the targets for NGOs set by Accra Agenda for Action, and the Istanbul Principles.<sup>801</sup> Otherwise, Fida's development programme and policies follow themes such as peace building, culture, gender, HIV/AIDS, people with disabilities, and the environment as well as climate change, as was evaluated in 2012.<sup>802</sup> In its strategy for the years 2013–2019, Fida is aiming at strengthening capacity of its partners to empower vulnerable groups and their communities in their societies through churches and Christian communities, by means of development cooperation.<sup>803</sup>

Nevertheless, Fida has not remained segregated in its religious sphere.<sup>804</sup> Rather it has been actively involved in a range of networks. Typical secular partners of Fida have included Fingo; the European NGO Confederation for relief and development; Daystar University in Kenya; the Humanitarian Aid Department of the European Commission; the World Food Programme; the Food and Agriculture Organisation; and Voluntary Organisations in Cooperation in Emergencies.<sup>805</sup>

Specifically, the year 2003 can be mentioned as a cornerstone in Fida's history, when the NGO signed the Partnership Agreement Scheme with the Finnish MFA.<sup>806</sup> This framework agreement ensured Fida, along with other 10 Finnish NGOs, some flexibility and independence in allocating funds given by the Finnish government from one project to another.<sup>807</sup> Five other signing NGOs were regarded as religious or faith-based organisations.<sup>808</sup>

Fida is generally known for its organisational growth and expansion, as well as wide-ranging development work focussing on the poorest of the poor and various

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<sup>800</sup> Fida 2011a, 7; 2011b, 8, 12–14

<sup>801</sup> MFA 2017/3a, 36

<sup>802</sup> Fida 2010a, 2010b, 12; 2011a, 31–35; 2011b, 10; 2012c

<sup>803</sup> MFA 2017/3a, 12

<sup>804</sup> Typical religious partner organisations for Fida are the Finnish Evangelical Alliance; the Finnish Mission Council; the Mission Aviation Fellowship; the Wycliff Bible Translators; Christian Organisations in Relief and Development; the Pentecostal European Fellowship; the Pentecostal European Mission; and the World Assemblies of God Fellowship (Fida 2011a, 9).

<sup>805</sup> Fida 2009, 53; 2011a, 9; 2011c, 23; Fingo 2019; Salo 2007, 95–103

<sup>806</sup> Hämäläinen 2007, 81; Salo 2007, 94

<sup>807</sup> MFA 2002/6, 4

<sup>808</sup> MFA 2008/1, 21

other marginalised groups.<sup>809</sup> For instance, in 2004 Fida implemented 50 development cooperation projects and programmes in 25 countries, while in 2015 some 63 programmes were carried out in 28 countries.<sup>810</sup> In 2015 the Finnish MFA funded Fida activities in 24 countries.<sup>811</sup> Due to Finland's MFA budget cuts in 2015–2016, the number of Fida's staff, projects and countries reduced.<sup>812</sup>

Fida was evaluated in 2016–2017 among six other Finnish civil society organisations operating under the Finnish MFA's programme-based support.<sup>813</sup> This evaluation provided data confirming that Fida has offered good value for development funding by keeping costs low. Fida has funded its partners directly from Finland. The evaluators observed that Fida is resource leveraging, has long-term commitment and appreciation, and possesses staff both first-party and among its partners who are very motivated. All these elements have positively contributed to Fida's achievements.<sup>814</sup>

*The Tanzanian NGO, FPCT.* FPCT has operated throughout the United Republic of Tanzania, with strong local networks of more than 120 Tanzanian churches and about 350,000 members. As the Tanzanian host organisation for MHCC, FPCT<sup>815</sup> also has a range of international partnerships, particularly with the Nordic countries including Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden.<sup>816</sup> Accordingly, FPCT's main Nordic partner NGOs have been and are still Fida and the Swedish Pentecostal Mission Relief and Development Cooperation Agency, PMU InterLife.<sup>817</sup> FPCT has

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<sup>809</sup> Saarinen 2006, 7

<sup>810</sup> Fida 2014a, 17; 2014c; 2016, 3; Hakola 2004, 7

<sup>811</sup> MFA 2017/3a, 37

<sup>812</sup> MFA 2017/3a, 13

<sup>813</sup> MFA 2017/3a, 36

<sup>814</sup> MFA 2017/3a, 13

<sup>815</sup> FPCT, the Tanzanian faith-based NGO, which originated from the work done by Swedish missionaries in 1932, known as the Swedish Free Mission (SFM), has remarkably enlarged since those days and has undergone several changes – from its names up to its structures. The SFM changed its name to the Pentecostal Churches Social Association of Tanzania immediately after Tanzania's independence in 1961 and delegated its responsibilities to the Trustees of this association. (Helimäki 1984, 1; Manninen 1983.) At that time, this Tanzanian faith-based organisation was registered under the Ministry of Home Affairs of Tanzania (Helimäki 1984, 1; Kivikangas & Helimäki 1984, 2). In 1986 the organisation adopted a new name, the Pentecostal Churches Association in Tanzania, which was changed to the current FPCT in 2000 (FPCT 2009b).

<sup>816</sup> Fida 2012a, 8; Järvinen 2007, 17; Manninen 1983

<sup>817</sup> Swedish Pentecostal churches began the Swedish Pentecostal Mission Relief and Development Cooperation Agency, (in Swedish "Pingstmissions Utvecklingsarbete", PMU InterLife), at the beginning of the 20th century to manage international development work funded by the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida). In 2008 this NGO was one of Sweden's

channelled its services through several departments.<sup>818</sup> They have covered 150 social projects (e.g., schools and hospitals; youth centres<sup>819</sup>) and over 230 pre-schools.<sup>820</sup> Through its social development work FPCT tends to provide special social welfare and community activities (i.e., relief services, education, health programmes, orphanage care, services for destitute and handicapped persons, and services for victims of catastrophes) as well as facilities (viz. fair distribution of facilities in geographical as well as in gender terms) together with the Tanzanian Government. FPCT has strong involvement in Tanzanian civil society and its current local issues, like climate change, pollution and environmental harm. In this regard, FPCT, as an umbrella organisation of churches, programmes and projects, has been and is likely to be a remarkable agent in their communities it is involved in, as are most churches.<sup>821</sup> As an illustration of this impact, it is worth mentioning that FPCT may be the first faith-based organisation in Africa to have a disability policy.<sup>822</sup>

## 4.2.2 Foundation

MHCC, the evaluation target of this research, was founded in 1987 as a development cooperation project to provide VET services for Tanzania's youth. Moreover, the centre was established to promote self-employment among the poorest Tanzanian young people by filling an unemployment gap resulting from the public sector's downsizing.<sup>823</sup> Initially, Tanzanian authorities such as the Mwanza Regional Commissioner and the Mwanza Region's District Commissioner played a key role in the establishment of MHCC. In 1981 they requested that the Finnish Free Foreign Mission provide training for craftsmanship in Mwanza Region.<sup>824</sup> These local leaders

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largest civil society movements including around 84,000 members in 477 local churches. (PMU InterLife 2014.)

<sup>818</sup> These departments are: Health, Education, Mass Media, Literature, Children and Youth, Missions and Evangelism, Theology, as well as Women and Social Welfare. Indeed, FPCT considered it very important to determine its future direction and objectives in the new millennium. In 2002 the organisation drafted a 10-year-long strategic visionary plan for 2003–2013 aiming at strengthening its holistic ministry for having better impacts on its members both spiritually, socially and economically. (FPCT 2002.)

<sup>819</sup> see e.g., Fida 2012a

<sup>820</sup> Fida 2012b, 5

<sup>821</sup> Fida 2016, 29; Järvinen 2007, 17, 28–29

<sup>822</sup> Fida 2012b, 28

<sup>823</sup> MHCC15; MHCC32; MHCC44

<sup>824</sup> MHCC17, 27

had previously been students of a Finnish woman, the late Sylvi Mömmö (MA), in the 1950s,<sup>825</sup> when she worked as an inspector and a principal of government-owned boys' schools in Tanzania.<sup>826</sup> On this ground, it was understandable that these local leaders asked for assistance from the support organisation of Mrs Mömmö, arising out of their friendship.<sup>827</sup> In fact, the Commissioner asked the mission to establish both a home craft training centre and "an agriculture centre"<sup>828</sup> in the area. In 1982, the late Mrs Tyyne Manninen, the late Mrs Maija-Liisa Kauppinen, and Anna-Liisa Antturi (all Finnish missionaries), relayed the wishes expressed by the District Commissioner of Mwanza District to the Finnish Free Foreign Mission.<sup>829</sup> Years later, this mission organisation fulfilled the first wish of the Commissioner by opening the VET project of MHCC.<sup>830</sup>

Six targets were set for MHCC to be achieved. First, with the establishment of MHCC, the Finnish Free Foreign Mission set about increasing the level of economic self-sufficiency for the target population by increasing the level of home and handicraft skills as well as utilisation of local materials. Second, this plan involved teaching and training the youth primarily at the centre. Third, after this training graduates would be encouraged to return to their home villages and areas to practice as well as to develop their skills, particularly by teaching their families. Fourth, the plan included building of facilities for teaching and training of different home skills, such as child and health care, but also home crafts as well as handicrafts. Fifth, the plan provided accommodation for 48 students and teachers as well as the construction of a multipurpose hall for different community functions.<sup>831</sup>

The whole planning of the VET project at MHCC was a cooperative venture, undertaken in tight cooperation with local officials. Thus, the project's local partners, together with the project staff, worked closely with the Ministry of Education located in Dar es Salaam. Moreover, negotiations and discussions were carried out on the local level with officials based in Mwanza, who gave their approval and support to

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<sup>825</sup> More about Mrs Sylvi Mömmö is readable in Kunnas (1982), Ruohomäki (2013, 247) and Tillander (2007, 28–29).

<sup>826</sup> Helimäki 1984, 1; Manninen 1983; Tillander 2007, 29

<sup>827</sup> Helimäki 1984, 1; MHCC25

<sup>828</sup> This project, called the Mwalujo Agriculture Training Centre, was proposed to be implemented by the Finnish Free Foreign Mission in Kwimba District to offer agriculture training (MHCC17, 9–12).

<sup>829</sup> see also Ruohomäki 2013, 248

<sup>830</sup> Helimäki 1984, 1; MHCC14

<sup>831</sup> Kivikangas & Helimäki 1984, 1–2; MHCC14; MHCC24



the project. Likewise, the local party members at the suburb, city and district levels were also very positively interested in the project.<sup>832</sup>

On January 17<sup>th</sup>, 1983, after the planning phase of MHCC, the Mwanza Municipal Council finally acknowledged an application for the erection of a Social Centre (as it was called at the time). Based on the decision made by the Mwanza Municipal Council, the centre was to foster the socio-economic development of Mwanza Municipality.<sup>833</sup> In 1984, the local authorities of the municipality of Mwanza assisted representatives of partner NGOs to obtain a 2.9-hectare-size plot, and an additional plot later in 1986 in the Nyakato area. Eventually, in September 1984, the construction of the centre started on the initiative of the aforementioned local leaders and the Finnish missionaries.<sup>834</sup>

At first, the VET centre was planned to be built from local materials. However, it was later decided to bring prefabricated houses from Finland due to the lack of materials caused by the challenging local economic situation in Tanzania.<sup>835</sup> Thus, these prefabricated building units were produced in Finland by Makrotalo and shipped first to Dar es Salaam, transported about 1,200 kilometres by road from Mwanza.<sup>836</sup> The overall situation of that time in Tanzania can be illustrated by an assessment given by the evaluation team in 1988. These evaluators were sent from Finland to Mwanza by the Finnish MFA, where they highlighted the prefabricated houses as a very expensive solution, which produced few local development impacts. Given the severe shortage of building materials in Tanzania at the time, other alternatives were simply not available.<sup>837</sup> This analysis of low-grade local impacts of the building process seems to conflict with the findings of the local Tanzanian officers. These officers stated that based on project reports of MHCC, the impacts of the construction of the VET centre were significant, including 40 local workers, who were active and participated in the building process. These authorities provided a convincing argument — all the builders had learned the building process from A to Z, from foundation works to the finishing touches of painting.<sup>838</sup>

The economic situation and problems with transport of goods in Tanzania continued to severely impede the construction of MHCC. With these delays the

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<sup>832</sup> MHCC14; MHCC23; MHCC24

<sup>833</sup> MHCC23

<sup>834</sup> Helimäki 1984, 1; MHCC14, 1

<sup>835</sup> Helimäki 1984, 1; Kivikangas & Helimäki 1984, 2

<sup>836</sup> Kivikangas & Helimäki 1984; MHCC14, 2, 5; MHCC17, 27; MHCC30

<sup>837</sup> MHCC17, 3, 31

<sup>838</sup> MHCC29, 1

building of the centre had to be stopped between May 15<sup>th</sup>, 1986 and October 16<sup>th</sup>, 1986.<sup>839</sup> In fact, the transport of prefabricated building units from Dar es Salaam to Mwanza, from the harbour to the project site, took one year due to the extremely slow pace of transport of goods on the Dar es Salaam–Mwanza railway line. Transport had been further aggravated by the poor condition of the roads between these two cities, and generally by the low quality of transport equipment available for hire. Arising from these local conditions, indeed, the last containers carrying building materials arrived at Nyakato in January 1989.<sup>840</sup>

Eventually, the highly-expected opening of MHCC took place on February 2, 1987. The inauguration of the centre occurred after the use of 7.2 million Finnish Marks for the construction of 17 different buildings.<sup>841</sup> After admission tests and interviews held earlier in September 1986, the first 26 students started their 2-year-long studies under eight Finnish and Tanzanian supervisors, as well as the Finnish Principal, Mrs Eeva-Liisa Nikkilä.<sup>842</sup> The centre offered three lines of courses:<sup>843</sup> the handicraft programme (later called tailoring and weaving), the home economics programme (cookery), and wood working programme (later called carpentry and joinery).<sup>844</sup>

MHCC was registered in March 1989. In that way, it entered the official registry of VET centres in Tanzania. Moreover, this registration defined the level of VET education at MHCC (i.e., National Trade Test Grade III); the minimum admission requirement (viz. Standard Seven); trades offered (viz. carpentry and joinery; tailoring and dress-making together with textile and weaving; cookery, and later also welding and fabrication); the length of the programme (i.e., two years); as well as the number of trainees (viz. 32 annually). Furthermore, this full registration guaranteed MHCC the same status — though not the funding — which government-owned VET centres had.<sup>845</sup>

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<sup>839</sup> MHCC29, 1–2

<sup>840</sup> MHCC1; MHCC14, 5; MHCC29, 1

<sup>841</sup> Kivikangas & Helimäki 1984; MHCC1; MHCC14, 2; MHCC17, 27; MHCC30

<sup>842</sup> Mrs Nikkilä worked as the first Principal of MHCC till the end of the year 1988. Her place was taken by Mr Esko Postareff in 1989 (MHCC3). The last Finnish Principal of MHCC was Mr Arto Pylvänäinen between the years 1991–1995. Mr Pylvänäinen was replaced by Mr Ruben Jinega between January and December 1995, and before by Mr Christopher Mayunga from June to August 1993 and later, since January 1996 to June 2015. (MHCC11; MHCC36, 3; MHCC38, 1; MHCC39, 1.)

<sup>843</sup> MHCC3; MHCC4; MHCC5; MHCC6; MHCC8; MHCC9; MHCC10; MHCC29; MHCC30, 1–2; MHCC34; MHCC35; MHCC37; MHCC39; MHCC41

<sup>844</sup> MHCC17, 27–29

<sup>845</sup> MHCC15; MHCC17, 2; MHCC32, 3; MHCC44; VETA 2003/04, 13, 50

### 4.2.3 Objectives

Originally, MHCC was founded by keeping in mind two objectives. The first goal was to increase the level of economic self-sufficiency for the target population by educating around 36 16-year-old plus primary school leavers from rural villages every second year, with a focus on increasing their level of home and handicraft skills and the utilisation of local materials through training. This target was later reformulated, so that since 1994 the annual intake has been 30–36 students (Figure 15).<sup>846</sup> Based on the addition made in 1989 to the project report, the second target to be met was to implement this development cooperation project with local funds. All maintenance costs were then intended to be covered with tuition fees collected and product sales made in Tanzania, if these activities should prove to be financially sustainable.<sup>847</sup>



**Figure 15.** MHCC graduates of the third course in 1992 (Pylvänäinen 1992)

In the beginning, the VET studies provided at MHCC were planned to be offered for all Tanzanians between 16–25 years of age, regardless of their religion, tribe or sex. The minimum criterion for students' admission was primary education, Standard Seven.<sup>848</sup> The Tanzanian education system represents a seven-four-two-three pattern. After passing a 7-year-long primary school, from Standard One to Standard Seven, and an examination administered by the Ministry of Education and

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<sup>846</sup> MHCC17, 6, 13; MHCC24; MHCC27, 1

<sup>847</sup> Kivikangas & Helimäki 1984, 2; MHCC32, 5

<sup>848</sup> MHCC15; MHCC25; MHCC27; MHCC28; MHCC30; MHCC48

Vocational Training<sup>849</sup>, students can choose either lower secondary schooling or basic VET in a post-primary training institution.<sup>850</sup> After completing Standard Seven, primary school leavers are awarded with the Primary School Leaving Certificate. Secondary education covers two sequential cycles, a 4-year-long ordinary level (O-level) secondary education, also called junior secondary schooling, and 2-year-long advanced level (A-level) senior secondary education. This cycle begins with Form I and ends after 4 years with Form IV. The second cycle continues from Form V to Form VI.<sup>851</sup><sup>852</sup> At the end of the first cycle the student enters the National Form IV Examination and after the second cycle, the National Form VI Examination.<sup>853</sup> After completing their 4-year-long lower or 2-year-long higher secondary education the students can continue their studies also in VET institutions.<sup>854</sup>

Other entry requirements for MHCC were adequate age (i.e., 16–25 yrs), good health, and a pass of the admission test and interview.<sup>855</sup> The 2-year-long basic VET courses at MHCC were due to culminate with the National Trade Test Grade III. It could be done either in tailoring and dress-making, textile and weaving, or carpentry and joinery, depending on each student's department. Herewith the students would be qualified to work as self-employed persons or as trained craftsmen or craftswomen in firms or companies owned by others.<sup>856</sup> A 2-year handicraft training offered both theory and practice in sewing, weaving, dressmaking, tailoring, and interior decorating, while a 2-year home economics programme comprised theoretical and practical works in making nutritional and economic foods, baking, as well as by learning basic skills of home gardening. The course in woodwork focussed especially on making wood utensils and furniture needed at home made with hand tools and teaching the basic skills of carpentry and joinery.<sup>857</sup> Aside from these initial plans, plans to launch educational opportunities for shoemaking and for welding and fabrication were also mentioned in the evaluation report of the Finnish MFA. The department of welding and fabrication was finally launched in September 1989.<sup>858</sup>

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<sup>849</sup> AEO 2008, 582

<sup>850</sup> Dar 2000, 365

<sup>851</sup> Form Six (VI) means a 6-year-long secondary schooling, known as senior secondary schooling as well (Al-Samarrai & Bennell 2003, 34).

<sup>852</sup> Al-Samarrai & Bennell 2003, 34

<sup>853</sup> Athumani & Ngowi 1999, 7–9

<sup>854</sup> Dar 2000, 365

<sup>855</sup> MHCC15; MHCC25; MHCC27; MHCC28; MHCC30; MHCC48

<sup>856</sup> MHCC15; MHCC25; MHCC27; MHCC28; MHCC30; MHCC48

<sup>857</sup> MHCC14, 1–2; MHCC15; MHCC17, 13

<sup>858</sup> Kivikangas & Helimäki 1988, 3; MHCC14, 1–2; MHCC15; MHCC17, 2, 13; MHCC32, 1

The National Trade Test system warrants further clarification. The students were permitted to sit the examinations of Trade Tests after submitting their applications through vocational training centres. Trade Tests include both theoretical and practical components and were designed not only to measure occupational skills competence but also knowledge regarding the trade. To be awarded the certificate, the candidate must pass both examination components. The classes of performance are either pass or fail. The Trade Test includes three levels, from Grade III to Grade I. The Trade Test Grade III was typically done after the 2<sup>nd</sup> year of full-time studies or after 1-year of full-time training plus the 2<sup>nd</sup> year of in-plant training. During in-plant training the student will attend evening classes, whereas the Grade II test can be done after the 3<sup>rd</sup> year of in-plant training. For the most demanding Trade Test, Grade I, it is possible to enter after the 4<sup>th</sup> year of in-plant training.<sup>859</sup>

Returning to MHCC and its departments, during the first intake three departments were in operation: tailoring and weaving, carpentry and joinery, as well as cookery. Unfortunately, in those days, the students of the cookery department were unable to do the National Trade Test, simply due to a missing Trade Test.<sup>860</sup> In addition, female cooks especially had difficulties getting employment after their cookery studies in 1988. The reason for this challenge was the attitudes of the local community.<sup>861</sup> On the grounds of the difficulties met by these cooks, the Tanzanian people recommended as early as 1988 to limit the VET cookery programme to one year.<sup>862</sup> Likewise, the evaluation team of Finland's MFA recommended a new formulation of objectives for the cookery programme in the very same year.<sup>863</sup> Arising from these many challenges, the MHCC committee decided to terminate the cookery department, primarily due to the lack of National Trade Tests in 1989.<sup>864</sup>

#### 4.2.4 Teaching and curriculum

During the first intakes, each training programme at MHCC included a 1-year long period of basic studies and a one-year long specialisation. In fact, during the 36-weeks of basic studies, also called a rotation period, every student studied general

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<sup>859</sup> Ogondiek 2005, 13; VETA 2009

<sup>860</sup> MHCC17, 29; MHCC32, 3; Uotila 1989, 2.

<sup>861</sup> MHCC17, 31

<sup>862</sup> Kivikangas & Helimäki 1988, 4; MHCC30

<sup>863</sup> MHCC17, 231

<sup>864</sup> MHCC31; MHCC32, 3

subjects and became familiar with the subjects of all three programmes both in theory and practice. After the first year, the students selected one of these available programmes and specialised in the programme during their practical and theoretical lessons.<sup>865</sup> Later, the duration of the rotation period was shortened to 12 weeks, and eventually, at the beginning of 1993, applicants were permitted to apply straight to the department of their interest, which dealt the deathblow to the rotation system used at MHCC.<sup>866</sup>

MHCC had no standard, coherent, systematic curriculum for the training and educational programmes at its beginning. It followed that instructors produced their own teaching materials without the guidance of any standard curriculum. This system was strongly criticised by the Finnish MFA's evaluation team in 1989.<sup>867</sup> After that the VET centre at MHCC began to follow the curriculum and general instructions given for teaching by the local VET authorities and later by VETA. More information about VETA can be found in Chapter 4.2.8. The staff of MHCC saw necessary to make some modifications to this curriculum on the grounds of different length of studies between government-owned VET centres and MHCC, for instance, in the 1980s, most basic training courses at VET centres in Tanzania lasted only nine months instead of MHCC's 2-year-long studies.<sup>868</sup>

In 1987, MHCC's academic year consisted of three terms of 12 weeks (a total of 36 weeks), which expanded to 38 credits in 1993.<sup>869</sup> In the centre's curriculum, the number of weekly hours was 35 (= 1 credit). These hours included ten hours of general subjects, five hours of theoretical subjects of each special programme (i.e., department) and 20 hours of practice. The general subjects included the lessons such as Mathematics, English, Swahili, Science, Technical Drawing, Bible Studies, Health Education, Business Studies, and Craftsmanship.<sup>870</sup> Apart from campus studies, the students gained a 3–4-week-long work experience in local companies and enterprises.<sup>871</sup>

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<sup>865</sup> MHCC7, 1; MHCC17, 13; MHCC30, 3

<sup>866</sup> MHCC8

<sup>867</sup> MHCC17, 15

<sup>868</sup> Athumani 1996; MHCC20, 1; MHCC44

<sup>869</sup> MHCC30; MHCC36, 1

<sup>870</sup> MHCC12; MHCC44; MHCC48

<sup>871</sup> MHCC6, 1; MHCC8



**Figure 16.** MHCC scholarship grantees, two best succeeded graduates of each department, in 1995 (Pylvänäinen 1995)

Apart from the field training, MHCC clearly intended to encourage its trainees through a variety of means (Figure 16). MHCC graduates were assisted with supplemental tools to ease their way and return into their home villages<sup>872</sup> and to be able to practice and develop their skills there, as well as simultaneously to strengthen their communities when teaching their family members, peers and neighbours craftsmanship. For instance, tailors were supplied with sewing machines while those who underwent woodwork training were provided with a hand saw, a plane, a hammer, a chisel, etc. In their conclusions made in 1988, the Finnish MFA's evaluation team was firmly convinced that the provision of tools was a fair means of strengthening, encouraging, and further motivating the trainees to pursue their career self-reliantly.<sup>873</sup>

Over the years since its establishment, MHCC has expanded its VET provision with new courses. For instance, since 1998 the tailoring department has organised a basic, 6-month evening course, which runs twice a year. Similarly, the welding and fabrication department began an evening course for students aiming at the National Trade Test Grade II. Moreover, since 2004 the VET centre has provided a 3-month-long basic computer course, 4 times a year, and a basic English course that has lasted

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<sup>872</sup> MHCC31, 1. For instance, in 1995 MHCC granted scholarships to the best succeeded students of each department by covering a half of their next year's school fees, and to the second-best ones a quarter of their next year's school fees with funds given by Saara Ketomäki (Figure 16). Similarly, the best graduates of the whole group were rewarded with tool boxes.

<sup>873</sup> MHCC17, 13–14

3 months. MHCC has also offered a 6-month-long secretarial course, twice a year, and since 2005, a basic, 6-month course on motor vehicle mechanics.<sup>874</sup> By this report's writing in 2019, new departments including motor vehicle, electricity, as well as hotel management and tourism were established at MHCC.<sup>875</sup>

#### 4.2.5 Trainees and trainers

The main target group of MHCC has been Tanzanian primary school leavers, especially those students who have been unable to continue their studies in Secondary Schools. It was generally known and supported by the conclusions made in the evaluation report of the Finnish MFA in 1988, that less than 10% of Tanzanian graduates of Standard Seven would have any opportunity to continue their studies or become employed. Arising from this situation, all efforts to offer training possibilities for young people have, quite understandably, been warmly welcomed in the Lake Zone.<sup>876</sup>

Since the first intake of students in 1987, the annual enrolment rate within each MHCC department has been 12 students. This meant that 315 students were enrolled at MHCC by 1999. Of these, 260 graduates have entered the National Trade Test Grade III and 71.5% (n = 186) of them passed successfully, as seen in Table 10.<sup>877</sup>

The school mode of MHCC changed again at the beginning of 1994. Since that intake, students switched from a boarding school model to a day school model. This arrangement was made to reduce expenses of food supplies and personnel costs, for students were responsible for hiring their accommodation and preparing their breakfasts as well as dinners themselves.<sup>878</sup> As expected this change resulted in significantly decreased enrolment rates of this VET centre, partly due to transport difficulties, partly due to accommodation problems. The number of applicants at MHCC decreased from 411 in 1993, to 69 students in 2004, as Table 10 reveals.<sup>879</sup> Since then, MHCC trainees have mainly come to study from the neighbourhood of

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<sup>874</sup> MHCC16; MHCC46

<sup>875</sup> NVTC 2014. Nowadays MHCC is called Nyakato Vocational Training Centre (NVTC 2014).

<sup>876</sup> MHCC17, 30

<sup>877</sup> MHCC44

<sup>878</sup> MHCC36, 5

<sup>879</sup> MHCC9, 1



the school area, namely the urban areas of Mwanza, not from rural areas, which contrasted with the original objective set for MHCC's VET.<sup>880</sup>

As Table 10 shows, the number of dropouts was quite high at MHCC. These figures parallel with other training institutions in Tanzania, as studies made by Bastien and Wedgwood substantiated. One reason for dropouts might be a low level of training. This is illustrated by Galabwa, Chikira, Omari, Mutarubukwa, and Ogonziek who have studied the quality of VET in Tanzania. Chikira's study on graduates of vocational training centres at workplaces revealed that 49% were incompetent at their trades, whereas Omari observed general effectiveness of these training institutions. He concluded that there was no promise to the student to get a workplace after graduating. Some explanations for these figures were given by Galabwa who proposed that in public vocational training centres 56% of teachers were underqualified.<sup>881</sup>

A further clarification on the poor Trade Test performance of the students of MHCC is given. In this connection, let us deal with the doctoral thesis of Mutarubukwa on congruence of VET in Tanzanian vocational training institutions with the Trade Test system in producing the intended learning outcomes. He tried to determine the causes behind poor performance of trainees in these tests and poor performance of the testing system itself. The study was conducted in 45 vocational centres in six Tanzanian regions with a sample of 549 participants (instructors, principals and VET officers). The following reasons were identified: poor utilisation of training facilities, insufficient training, underqualified instructors and officers, few instructors in these centres, ambiguous test questions, as well as the medium of instruction not being mastered by trainees as well instructors. Based on his findings, he recommended, for instance, to restructure the Tanzanian VET system, to offer stable funding for VET centres, and to upgrade teacher training of VET by organising education and training with higher vocational qualifications.<sup>882</sup> We turn now to the staff of MHCC.

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<sup>880</sup> MHCC36, 5; MHCC38, 6; MHCC48

<sup>881</sup> Bastien 2008; Chikira 1991; Galabwa 1991; Mutarubukwa 2006; Ogonziek 2005; Omari 1997; Wedgwood 2007

<sup>882</sup> Mutarubukwa 2006

**Table 10.** The statistics of MHCC students from 1988 to 2004

THE NUMBERS OF ENROLLED AND GRADUATED MHCC STUDENTS WITH THEIR TRADE TEST RESULTS					
Year of graduation	Number of applicants	Enrolled students (female ones)	Selected male students	Graduated students (female graduates)	Trade Test Grade III all participants/passed (%)
1988 <sup>883</sup>	108	26 (10)	16	24 (10)	18/14 <sup>884</sup> (77.78%) ♦
1990 <sup>885</sup>	200	32 <sup>886</sup> (15)	17	27 (11)	27/21 <sup>887</sup> (77.78%)
1992 <sup>888</sup>	150	36 (10)	26	31 (8)	30/21 <sup>889</sup> (70.00%)
1994 <sup>890</sup> ●	411	38 (15)	23	29 (11)	23/16 <sup>891</sup> (69.57%)
1995 <sup>892</sup>	126	31 (9)	22	22 (3)	18/13 <sup>893</sup> (72.22%)
1996 <sup>894</sup>	120	35 (11)	24	18 (7)	16/9 <sup>895</sup> (56.25%)
1997 <sup>896</sup>	126	36 (14) ▲ ▲	22	30 (9)	25/20 (80.00%)
1998 <sup>897</sup>	110	42 (20)	22	29 (10)	28/26 (92.86%)
1999 <sup>898</sup>	92	39 (18)	21	31 (11)	28/25 (89.29%)
2000 <sup>899</sup>	94	31 (13)	18	25 (9)	23/21 (91.30%)
2001 <sup>900</sup>	63	40(16)	24	28 (10)	28/24 (85.71%)
2002 <sup>901</sup>	66	48(22)	26	37 (14)	22/19 (86.37%)
2003	73	67(40)	27	42 (17)	30/30 (100.00%)
2004	69	57(30)	27	48 (29)	42/38 (90.48%)
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>1808</b>	<b>558 (243)</b>	<b>315</b>	<b>421 (159)</b>	<b>358/297 (82.96%)</b>

♦ = There was no Trade Test for six students of the cooking department (MHCC20), while other four failed from other departments (MHCC3).

In 2002, there were three departments operating at MHCC, and each employed two teachers. One of these teachers was nominated to be an academic master. In addition

<sup>883</sup> MHCC2; MHCC30; MHCC46

<sup>884</sup> MHCC3; MHCC20; MHCC31, 3; MHCC32, 3

<sup>885</sup> MHCC31; MHCC32

<sup>886</sup> MHCC17

<sup>887</sup> MHCC33; MHCC46

<sup>888</sup> MHCC33; MHCC34; MHCC41

<sup>889</sup> MHCC8; MHCC42

<sup>890</sup> MHCC34; MHCC35; MHCC36. ● = Since 1994 new students have been taken in annually.

<sup>891</sup> MHCC10

<sup>892</sup> MHCC10; MHCC36, 5; MHCC37

<sup>893</sup> MHCC11; MHCC38, 1b

<sup>894</sup> MHCC13; MHCC38; MHCC45

<sup>895</sup> MHCC39

<sup>896</sup> MHCC38; MHCC39, 1. ▲ ▲ = Since 1997 MHCC has solely been financed with Tanzanian funds.

<sup>897</sup> MHCC13; MHCC43; MHCC46

<sup>898</sup> MHCC43. The first female student graduated from the welding and fabrication department at MHCC in 1999.

<sup>899</sup> MHCC48

<sup>900</sup> MHCC48

<sup>901</sup> MHCC22

to the management and teaching staff, the centre has employed one cook, five guards, and one craftsman. The total number of Tanzanian staff, working at MHCC at the beginning of 2002, was 20, of whom 14 were permanent workers.<sup>902</sup> By 2004, the number of personnel had reached 24. Of these, 15 were permanent and 9 non-permanent, and 5 of them were female. In 2004 the mean-age of permanent staff was 37.05 years. Their ages ranged from 24 to 54 yrs. Interestingly, most of these staff members have worked many years at MHCC — two of them even since the centre’s inauguration. The average length of all workers’ employment was 7.5 years at the beginning of 2002, and slightly higher (7.9 years) among the teaching staff specifically.<sup>903</sup>

Staff training has been appreciated and well received at MHCC. The staff have endeavoured to follow contemporary requirements by developing their skills whenever possible. For this reason, they have undertaken further professional training to gain needed know-how during their years in operation. This supplementary education has been chiefly implemented as a result of charitable funds granted by a Finnish group called “Afrikan Hädänalaiset ry” [The Association for the Needy in Africa].<sup>904</sup> With their financial assistance one of MHCC’s teachers completed a 3-year-long education in Dar es Salaam, between 1991–1994. Another teacher received his vocational training in Iringa by studying a 2-year-long Technical Diploma Course between 1996–1998, while one carpentry and joinery teacher did his methodological studies at the Morogoro Vocational Teacher’s Training College (MVTTC)<sup>905</sup> in 1992.

Furthermore, the Vice Principal was trained in Kenya in leadership and management in 1994. The Accountant was educated in a computer course in 1996 in Mwanza and was awarded the Advanced Diploma in Accountancy, after completion of his studies at St. Augustine University of Tanzania in 2001–2003. In addition to these, three of MHCC’s personnel completed Trade Tests. One person passed Grade I while two others passed Grade II. This meant that, for instance in 1999, all teachers (except one) had completed Trade Test Grade II at the minimum.

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<sup>902</sup> TI2nd1a, M, 12–18

<sup>903</sup> MHCC51

<sup>904</sup> Afrikan Hädänalaiset ry. was formed by the Finnish voluntaries who committed to support MHCC staff in their training.

<sup>905</sup> The MVTTC is responsible for vocational teacher training, vocational training research and development as well as specialised training for VETA professional staff in Tanzania. The teacher training college is the only national provider of in-service training within pedagogical methods, production of teaching and learning materials and general subjects, for example, such as computer science. The training is funded by the VET Board through the levy. (Athumani 1996; Ziderman 2003.) More about MVTTC at <<http://www.mvttc.ac.tz/>>. Retrieved December 29, 2014.

In addition to the Finnish charitable funds received, the Tanzanian government set up funds for methodological teaching of four MHCC teachers at VETA Mwanza in 1998–1999.<sup>906</sup>

#### 4.2.6 Leadership and management

Financially, MHCC is an independent unit, which can use its funds only for running its VET activities. Operationally, MHCC is administered by a locally formed committee. MHCC functions under the Pentecostal Church of Mwanza that operates in a juridical sense under the Tanzanian NGO, FPCT.<sup>907</sup><sup>908</sup> A director of MHCC, referred to as the Principal, leads day-to-day activities at MHCC and is responsible for running the VET centre in cooperation with the board of directors of the local school committee.<sup>909</sup> This committee consisted of seven members, as required by the rules set by Pentecostal Churches Association of Tanzania. The school committee usually assembled once a month but have had at least four meetings annually. The members of this committee were appointed by the locally operated church of Mwanza after the proposition made by the committee members of the VET centre.<sup>910</sup> In 2006 four of these associates worked outside MHCC representing expertise in various fields, like engineering and economics, while three core staff members, the Principal, the Vice Principal and the Accountant, were members of the management group of MHCC.<sup>911</sup>

The primary task of the MHCC committee is to lead the centre. It nominates both the management group of the centre and its permanent workers.<sup>912</sup> This was illustrated by the quotation taken from an interview of a committee member, “... the task of the committee is to guide the work of the Mwanza Home Craft Centre ... make sure that the Home Craft is going well. As it means that to, to create different ideas, to have the vision, how Home Craft Centre can be so successive ... to guide

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<sup>906</sup> MHCC39, 2; MHCC46

<sup>907</sup> Furthermore, MHCC operated under the Education Department of FPCT, as do other VET centres, as well as pre-, primary and secondary schools owned by FPCT (2009a). Thus, the VET centres of FPCT functioned under the committee of the FPCT's Education Department; the Principal of MHCC also belonged to this committee (TI2nd13, M, 756–780, 852).

<sup>908</sup> Kivikangas & Helimäki 1984; MHCC21; MHCC26, 3; MHCC38; MHCC48; MHCC50

<sup>909</sup> MHCC38; TI2nd1a, M, 664

<sup>910</sup> MHCC3; MHCC21; MHCC50

<sup>911</sup> TI2nd1a, M, 505–516; TI2nd3, M, 451–463; TI2nd13, M, 25

<sup>912</sup> MHCC18; TI2nd1a, M, 683–687

the whole work there, to see that their work is going well.”<sup>913</sup> The board, also called the management group, consisted of persons working at MHCC. The following persons — the Principal, the Vice Principal (who also works as the academic master of the centre), and the Accountant — are responsible for the VET centre’s daily functions and form the management group along with representatives of each department, the supervisors (also called head department teachers) of tailoring, carpentry and joinery as well as of the welding and fabrication units, and the leader of the security guards.<sup>914</sup>

#### 4.2.7 Fiscal sustainability and cost-sharing

The Finnish Free Foreign Mission — and specifically Lähetyksen Kehitysapu (LKA [the Development Aid of the Mission]), now called Fida — was a primary financier of the VET centre from 1985 to 1996.<sup>915</sup> However, soon after the centre’s launch, the MFA of Finland granted support to LKA’s development cooperation work, as it did for 37 other Finnish NGOs in Tanzania during the years 1986 and 1988.<sup>916</sup> Accordingly, MHCC was predominantly funded by the Finnish government between the years 1986–1996. MHCC was due to be self-sufficient by 1996. Arising from the nature of development projects and their temporary external funding, the target of LKA (the Development Aid of the Mission) was to create and develop working conditions at MHCC so they could be financially self-sufficient by the end 1995.<sup>917</sup> This specific objective was mentioned in MHCC’s project report as early as 1988, and was accomplished in 1996, one year later than planned.<sup>918</sup>

Funding of the Finnish government and of Fida to MHCC terminated in 1996.<sup>919</sup> Since then MHCC has been self-financing and self-maintaining. This means that all its VET services have been provided without receiving any financial support either from Finland or from the Government of Tanzania.<sup>920</sup> This type of self-sufficiency in an education and training institution is very rare in the educational field of

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<sup>913</sup> TI2nd13, M, 76–79

<sup>914</sup> TI2nd1a, M, 524–526; TI2nd4, M, 419–422, 622

<sup>915</sup> Kivikangas & Helimäki 1984, 1-2; MHCC17, 2; VETA 2003/04, 13

<sup>916</sup> MHCC17

<sup>917</sup> Kivikangas & Helimäki 1988, 4; MHCC30, 5; MHCC31, 5

<sup>918</sup> MHCC39

<sup>919</sup> MHCC39

<sup>920</sup> MHCC48

development cooperation and generally in the field of education worldwide. This example illustrates that the process of sustainability, which means a continuation of the service delivery systems, or support structures for economic activities, has been, in all respects, remarkable.<sup>921</sup>



**Figure 17.** The cupboard designed and made at MHCC (Pylvänäinen 2006)

Indeed, MHCC has had several plans to carry out income-generating activities. In this way, it has covered its expenses throughout its history. In the beginning, these plans included suggestions received to open a shop, to buy a milling machine, to begin a cafeteria and a farm for cultivating and obtaining food supplies for trainees.<sup>922</sup> Thus, for instance, a cafeteria, Salama Café, was opened in 1989, at the same time as the fish filleting project.<sup>923</sup> However, both projects were closed after the end of the cookery department.<sup>924</sup> Indisputably, MHCC has had success with its income generating activities. In addition, the centre has actively participated in various marketing exhibitions (e.g., Saba Saba fair<sup>925</sup>).<sup>926</sup> Other typical income generating activities have included selling of products and services, for example,

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<sup>921</sup> see Riddell, Bebbington, Salokoski & Varis 1994, 136

<sup>922</sup> MHCC19; MHCC33, 1; MHCC49

<sup>923</sup> MHCC5

<sup>924</sup> MHCC40, 3; Uotila 1990, 11

<sup>925</sup> see Swantz 1986, 102. Saba (7.7.) is the establishment day of TANU-party celebrated on July 7th (Abdulla, Halme, Harjula & Pesari-Pajunen 2002, 210).

<sup>926</sup> MHCC8; MHCC33

sewing uniforms; making embroideries; weaving carpets; manufacturing furniture (e.g., doors, windows, beds, chairs, benches), brick machines, and desks; welding gates; building rafters, as well as repairing vehicles for various customers. In each of these examples, production and training were combined (Figures 17 and 18). Renting out facilities (i.e., houses), as well as a collection of school fees and parking fees have strengthened the fiscal sustainability of MHCC.<sup>927</sup>

The following figures illustrate the measures taken to improve MHCC's economy. For instance, in 1992, MHCC manufactured 150 woven carpets for a hotel situated in Serengeti National Park. In 1995, they manufactured 500 desks for the board of secondary schools in Mwanza area.<sup>928</sup> In 2000, a significant portion of total income (35.6%) was collected from housing rent, compared to 10.1% gathered from school fees in that year.<sup>929</sup> Indeed, the income generating activities of MHCC have expanded. This took place after the termination of financial support from the Finnish government in 1996. This expansion could be demonstrated, for example, by increases in orders of brick machines, school uniforms and beds. In fact, the brick machine has been an innovative creation developed in the metalwork department of MHCC to reduce expensive local building costs. By utilising new housing technology, as well as by using cement and local soil together when producing bricks, cost savings were achieved (Figure 18). With this new less-costly technique MHCC has attracted customers to come and buy these machines from as far away as neighbouring Kenya (footnote 1096).<sup>930</sup>

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<sup>927</sup> MHCC47; MHCC48; Ziderman 2003, 15

<sup>928</sup> MHCC11, 2; MHCC34, 3; MHCC38, 1

<sup>929</sup> Rutakyamirwa & CO 2001, 2

<sup>930</sup> TI3rd2, M



**Figure 18.** The brick machine designed and produced at MHCC (Pylvänäinen 2006)

MHCC also won a competition in response to an invitation for tenders and produced 500 uniforms between 2001–2004, and 325 uniforms in 2005, for VETA students. Apart from these uniforms were overalls sewed for all VETA workers and aprons made for students of the VETA institution in Mwanza. In their own view, the reasons MHCC won this competition was the centre’s trustworthiness, and the workers’ high quality of work, as well as their ability to follow timetables and make agreements. Furthermore, MHCC received an order to produce 50 bunk beds from Nyamahanga Teachers Training College (see footnote 1096).<sup>931</sup>

The articles and enterprises MHCC produced to generate income to subsidise the activities of the centre have been competitive and commercially-oriented. The centre has generated sufficient receipts to pay the salaries of workers and to receive funds for requisite maintenance of its buildings, machinery, water systems, electricity and investments with the assistance of this income. Orders were manufactured partially as student work during practical lessons but predominantly by the full-time employed craftsmen. Fundamentally, taken as a whole, all income-generation has demanded special commercial experience and expertise as well as constant innovativeness from the managers and teachers of the centre. Unquestionably, the leaders of MHCC have always had to keep in mind the potential risk that income generating activities might crowd out the main purpose of the centre, VET. This

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<sup>931</sup> TI3rd2, M; TI3rd3, F



worry paralleled explanations given by some VET officials participating in their thematic interviews.<sup>932</sup>

#### 4.2.8 Linkages and other networks

MHCC has close relationships with the Tanzanian Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) and its centres. Since its registration MHCC has continuously and closely cooperated with the Mwanza National Vocational Training Centre, currently called the Mwanza Regional Vocational Training and Service Centre (RVTSC). Officially owned by the Tanzanian government and operating since 1994 under VETA,<sup>933</sup> this autonomous government agency, was established with the VET Act (No 1/1994). This Act was passed to improve the provision of VET, training quality and cost-effectiveness, make changes in VET strategy and administration style through VETA so that skills needed for the development of key growth industries (e.g., resource-based manufacturing, mining, agriculture and tourism) could be developed.<sup>934</sup>

VETA has several responsibilities. First, they have a policy making role through its national board and regional boards. Second, its role is to regulate, by setting standards for, a number of trades. Third, VETA has a financing role when allocating funds to VET providers. Fourth, VETA provides services through teacher training, trade testing and counselling. Its role as a VET provider covers the operation of VET centres in Tanzania. Regarding private VET providers, such as MHCC, VETA has prepared supportive regulations. These regulations aim at improvement of the quality of private VET services in the country. Likewise, they focus on the protection of service users through quality and stability control and accreditation of private VET providers as well as follow-up of relevant courses offered on the grounds of labour market needs.<sup>935</sup>

However, VETA is challenged by its sometimes-conflicting roles. These roles, based on the Act, cover the responsibilities of training provider, of financier, and of VET regulator.<sup>936</sup> These conflicting roles were criticised by Ziderman, as well as

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<sup>932</sup> e.g., TI2nd6, M, 673–692

<sup>933</sup> VETA 2000, 48; 2003/04, 1.

<sup>934</sup> Athumani 1996; Bennell, Mukyanuzi, Kasogela, Mutashubirwa & Klim 2006, 73; Dar 2000, 371; Pfander & Gold 2000, 1

<sup>935</sup> Athumani 1996. More about VETA's roles and responsibilities (VETA 2014b).

<sup>936</sup> Ziderman 2003, 66

Bennell *et al.* One of the role-related criticisms was that VETA is considered an autonomous organisation that channels VET levies, but it has channelled them mainly into its own VETA institutions, when financial distribution should be based on competitive tendering procedures and clear performance criteria defined by employers and end users and created based on the county's human resource development priorities.<sup>937</sup> VETA coordinates, oversees, provides and ensures qualified as well as relevant vocational skills, to satisfy the labour market's basic and specialised demands of the formal and informal sectors in Tanzania.<sup>938</sup> This authority is financed by the VET levy.<sup>939</sup>

Regionally, MHCC has contacts with VETA's regional boards. They oversee training provision in the regions and prepares regional budgets for the approval by the board including training grants to the other training institutions.<sup>940</sup> In addition, these boards assess the socio-economic trends of respective regions; identify needs to develop regional policies for VET, state visions and priorities; advise the National VET Board on VET policies in the regions; as well as establish and maintain dialogue with the labour market parties to secure continuous communication on the needs of the Tanzanian labour market as well as provision of VET opportunities.<sup>941</sup>

Apart from VETA, MHCC has other partnerships as well. MHCC belongs to an association called the Christian Social Services Commission. It governs, for instance, all 67 church-owned, officially registered VET centres in Tanzania.<sup>942</sup> The driving force behind the establishment of this commission was reduced support from the Tanzanian Government to the social sector. With the decrease in governmental funding, the Tanzanian churches were no longer able to maintain a reasonable standard for their social services (e.g., hospitals, health centres, dispensaries, schools, social institutions etc.). Thus, this Christian association was founded as an ecumenical NGO by signing a memorandum of understanding for new cooperation between churches and the government in February 1992. Later, the Christian Social Services Commission was registered as a society with the Registrar of Societies in Tanzania in January 1993 and received its legal status in 1994.<sup>943</sup>

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<sup>937</sup> Bennell, Mukyuanuzi, Kasogela, Mutashubirwa & Klim 2006, 83–84

<sup>938</sup> VETA 2004

<sup>939</sup> Athumani 1996; Dar 2000, 371; Pfander & Gold 2000, 1

<sup>940</sup> Athumani 1996

<sup>941</sup> VETA 1999

<sup>942</sup> TI2nd12, M, 246–253

<sup>943</sup> the Christian Social Services Commission 2014

MHCC's municipal and local area linkages are strong. It can be stated that MHCC has always had strong relationships with the local municipality of Mwanza. This was demonstrated by the approval of using MHCC as a neutral, reliable place, when calculating voting results of local elections, as the following citation reveals.

... they just speak favourably of this place [MHCC], because some of them [MHCC's neighbours] they have got assistance from here [MHCC] ... Some of them store their property here, park their cars [one of income generating activities at MHCC, because the centre was proved to be the exceptionally safe and secure place in its quarter of the city]. Especially the workers of this place, some of them, have responded to and shared their [the neighbours'] concerns, especially by participating in funerals. They [MHCC staff] have not been out of touch with them. Therefore, they [the neighbours] appreciate these MHCC workers much. ... they presupposed that if you live in this, inside here [at MHCC], you are big persons, who have acquired knowledge in their lives. So, you can't care people who are outside there. But in practice what they have seen [at MHCC] it has differed from their thinking. They see caring people with humility, and yeah. Yeah, and even, even this year they [city officials] came to request a permission to hold their election [municipal one] here.<sup>944</sup>

In addition, MHCC works in cooperation with the local Pentecostal church. It is the main local partner of this development cooperation project. Additionally, MHCC cooperates closely with students and their extended families, the village and community. It also has good relationships with customers and with other stakeholders, such as firms, enterprises and tradesmen, as well as other vocational centres and NGOs.

MHCC is not only appreciated locally, but also in Finland. This was illustrated by the Service Centre for Development Cooperation (Kepa, today known as the Finnish Development NGOs – Fingo) in Finland. This umbrella organisation for 294<sup>945</sup> Finnish NGOs (as of 2019), organised the first “Partnership Prize [Kumppanuus-palkinto]” in 2004. It was a competition for the successful completion of Finnish development projects of NGOs. MHCC was chosen to be the first development project of Fida, representing “qualified development cooperation projects”<sup>946</sup> among six other NGO candidates.

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<sup>944</sup> TI2nd14, M, 671–682

<sup>945</sup> Fingo 2019

<sup>946</sup> Kepa 20.10.2004; Kuvaja 2004, 50

### 4.3 VET utilisation

In developing countries like in Tanzania, the level of education counts. It is a major determinant of an individual's lifestyle, career opportunities and life changes. Of course, there is no perfect correlation — some very rich people have never been educated, while some well-educated people have significant economic challenges. However, in sociological terms, education is attractive when it offers a prime mechanism for social mobility through links to employment and job status. In addition, in the political sphere education commands respect. Thus, education provides economic, social and political advantages to an individual.<sup>947</sup>

VET is targeted at learning and employment. Lehtisalo and Raivola differentiated education and formal education or training by saying that education is regarded as a pedagogical concept of interaction, but training as a political concept of division. This means that the outcomes of education have use value for its owner but not necessarily exchange value; while the outcomes of formal education, like VET training in this case — reports and marks — have exchange value, but not necessarily use value. In addition, training can improve a person's social status, and in this way, it has “image value.” These scholars clarified that teaching is only one method of education due to having relationship with learning as a concept, but no causality. Aptly, Lehtisalo and Raivola stated that not even qualified teaching can guarantee learning though it can give an effective chance of learning.<sup>948</sup>

VET has a variety of functions, purposes, roles or tasks. One of its prior functions has been an economic function. With its skills development, VET is primarily targeted at preparing young people to take part in the labour market, for it is easier to enter a specific occupational activity if the skills which industry or service providers need have already been learned. This skills development<sup>949</sup> is targeted to fulfil the economy's manpower requirements and reduce unemployment as well. In these ways, incomes can be generated, and poverty alleviated.<sup>950</sup> Apart of its economic function, VET has other functions including storing, socio-cultural, emancipatory, and selection functions. Through education, the students of VET are aimed to be fully integrated into the socio-economic life of their society.<sup>951</sup>

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<sup>947</sup> Gould 1993, 15, 17–18

<sup>948</sup> Lehtisalo & Raivola 1992, 26–29; 1999, 26–29; Raivola 2000, 190

<sup>949</sup> In this context skills development is narrowly equated with VET.

<sup>950</sup> Doerr, Fitzenberger, Kruppe, Paul & Strittmatter 2017; Foster 1987 in Watson 1994, 88; Middleton & Ziderman 1997, 6–7; Oketch 2007; Psacharopoulos 1997; Tsang 1999

<sup>951</sup> see Agrawal & Agrawal 2017, 246–247; ILO 2005b, 85

In addition, VET is also used as a part of the labour market policy for the unemployed. When referring to a “storing role” of VET, through this training young people can be taken off the streets. Furthermore, VET can be used as a buffer and a prevention tool for controlling the mass migration of young school graduates from rural to urban areas; as well as eradicating their mass unemployment and public dissatisfaction and the social cost caused by unemployment, which can increase illicit actions and insecurity in urbanised regions. VET is used as a remedy for youth unemployment, which takes place by equipping young people with employable skills, which can be later utilised for the needs of the labour market.<sup>952</sup>

To Nyerere, the main functions of education which have generally coloured the Tanzanian cultural context were socio-economic function, societal function and personal function. Socio-economic function included Education for Self-Reliance and nation building, which means living together, working together and developing society. Societal function means accomplishment of the political and socioeconomic goals set by the political leaders, achieving the nation’s political unity and socioeconomic progress, while personal function highlights education as a tool for pursuing individual dreams.<sup>953</sup> Referring to Tanzania, President Nyerere reminded people that

“our education must therefore inculcate a sense of commitment to the total community, and help the pupils to accept the values appropriate to our kind of future, not those appropriate to our colonial past. This means that the educational system of Tanzania must emphasize co operative endeavour, not individual advancement.”<sup>954</sup>  
“Schools must be communities — and communities which practice the precept of self-reliance. This means that all schools, but especially secondary schools and other forms of higher education, must contribute to their own upkeep, they must be economic communities as well as social and educational communities.”<sup>955</sup>  
“Furthermore, the Tanzanian school system required hard work to construct schools that included workshops and farmlands. The goal was to develop a proud, independent, and free citizenry which relies upon itself for its own development...”<sup>956</sup>

In his time Nyerere valued local knowledge and heritage, practical and manual work, linked education and work together as well as theoretical and practical knowledge.

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<sup>952</sup> see e.g., Foster 1987 in Watson 1994, 88; Middleton & Ziderman 1997, 6–7; Oketch 2007; Psacharopoulos 1997; Tsang 1999

<sup>953</sup> Murray 1992, 231–232

<sup>954</sup> Murray 1992, 231; Nyerere 1967, 273

<sup>955</sup> Murray 1992, 231; Nyerere 1967, 282–283

<sup>956</sup> Nyerere 1967, 290

He considered vocational skills to be beneficial and important. Nyerere created clear targets for the educational system through Education for Self-Reliance policy. To him, this educational philosophy can take place in an educational system if it can be restructured and reoriented to meet the new objectives by giving more appreciation to: indigenous knowledge; attitudes reflecting the interpreted African heritage more than the Western heritage; an inseparable combination of work and education in life, with concepts such as mass education and manpower development, where literacy and vocational skills are key words; and more focus on the rural sector than before. With them the Tanzanian people could effectively fight against disease, poverty, and ignorance.<sup>957</sup>

Hence, Education for Self-Reliance policy stressed productive work. He called especially for productive work to be included in the curriculum as an integral part to provide meaningful learning experience through integration of theory and practice. Thus, this policy tried to help students become self-confident, cooperative, and develop critical and inquiring minds.<sup>958</sup> Again, Nyerere stressed that the Tanzanian school system required hard work. To construct schools that included workshops and farmlands. The goal was to develop “a proud, independent, and free citizenry which relies upon itself for its own development...”<sup>959</sup>.

To Nyerere, individuals could become active community players and self-reliant with Education for Self-Reliance. This type of education, with an inseparable connection between education and work in life, can develop diverse competencies and abilities needed in the community. However, these qualifications need to fit well with the community’s needs and its future life. Likewise, these skills and knowledge should develop the society and enhance a person’s commitment to the whole community.<sup>960</sup>

After providing the framework for the evaluation experiment, the VET case at MHCC, in Chapter 4.2, we turn now to find answers to the research questions presented in Chapter 1.2.

First, in Chapter 4.3 we address the issues of VET utilisation by asking about its impacts: “What were the evaluation findings regarding VET utilisation?” Thereafter, in Chapter 4.4, we find answers to the following research questions: “What was the kind of process use of evaluation in the VET case? With what results?” And then, the answers are given to such research questions as: “How was evaluation used? How

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<sup>957</sup> Nyerere 1967; Rutayuga 2014

<sup>958</sup> Nyerere 1968; Rutayuga 2014, 78

<sup>959</sup> Nyerere 1968, 290

<sup>960</sup> Nyerere 1967; Rutayuga 2014

were impacts of the evaluation experiment carried out manifested at the personal, interpersonal and collective levels of the VET case? What changed?” Finally, the concept of impact itself is briefly introduced and assessed, before we chart more precisely the results of VET utilisation and VET impacts found in the evaluation experiment carried out in Tanzania.

#### 4.3.1 Results-based evaluation of VET impacts

Impact evaluations are typically conducted by using experimental designs, hard methodologies and external evaluators. VET impacts have commonly been observed by using an impact chain, in the form of inputs, outputs, outcomes, and impacts. In this chain a change has been understood as a linear phenomenon which could be captured by organising pre-and post-measurements, randomised experiments, or by using treatment and control groups. For instance, Tsang has illustrated this chain by saying that VET inputs are trainees, instructors’ time, training materials, equipment and physical facilities, indirect and direct resources devoted to these inputs. To him, outputs include the effects on the trainees (e.g., cognitive and non-cognitive skills required at workplaces) and benefits to them, for instance, pecuniary benefits, such as better earnings, improved probabilities of getting a first job or more permanent job; as well as non-pecuniary benefits, such as better job-satisfaction and wider occupation alternatives. Importantly, Tsang also sees outputs as benefits to and effects on the provider of training and to the society. He views that enterprises can benefit as well, from lower turnover rates, decreased downtime, diminished input costs and increased workers’ productive capacity in a job, while the society can get a boost from VET and have an increase in profit-making and higher taxable earnings.<sup>961</sup>

As a qualitative evaluation researcher, with my chosen standpoint, I took the approach of “a people-oriented management system for development results,” which utilised people’s own analysis of outcomes. This approach was recommended by an OECD paper titled “Measuring Empowerment? Ask Them.” This alternative has been used successfully, for instance, in results-based management.<sup>962</sup> By means of adopting this flexible approach I tended to capture the local context and the human story, which were the primary goals of qualitative research, rather than “generalisability.” I reached this conclusion without having any baseline study or

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<sup>961</sup> Tsang 1999, 33

<sup>962</sup> MFA 2017/2, 52; Sida 2010:1, 15–16, 18

possibility to make any comparison with the same type of “cases.” For this reason, my evaluation on VET impacts took place using the ex-post, participatory impact evaluation, because my aim was not only to predict consequences, but also to verify lasting and significant changes in multiple stakeholders’ lives brought about by this development intervention several years after the termination of its development funding.<sup>963</sup> So, I approached change as a dynamic, ongoing phenomenon which can be investigated within the case. Hence, by using the qualitative approach when evaluating experienced changes (or impacts), I used the “life history method.”

In this research an impact was classified as a positive, negative, intended, unintended, expected or unexpected change, or changes, or sets of changes, contributed to by VET. In addition, the impacts of VET were analysed through internal and external impact evaluations. In my case, the former students and their teachers evaluated education in internal impact evaluation, while some parents of these graduates, representatives of working life and industry (i.e., employers), as well as some administrators or officials of the VET sector were used as external evaluators.<sup>964</sup> The coding scheme of the questionnaires, written stories and thematic interviews emerged deductively from pre-existing questions and themes. I utilised the principles of qualitative content analysis when charting VET utilisation and its impacts as well as creating my own coding system and frame. One of the impact definitions used in education and borrowed for this research was made by Kivinen and Silvennoinen, when applying their “loose enough” model of goodness of education (Figure 19).<sup>965</sup>

Due to the looseness of the impact model chosen, I did not aim at conceptualising predetermined categories by fitting the former students’ experiences or changes experienced into standardised categories. The overall category which I used I simply named as second-hand impacts of VET, according to Kivinen and Silvennoinen. It illustrated exchange and use values of VET education outside MHCC’s learning environment after completion of these VET studies, as well as practical applications and outcomes derived from utilisation of the obtained VET in the lives of graduates and their extended families as well as communities, or groups after completion of formal VET studies. These long-term, exchange and use values of education (e.g., employment) go beyond the control of trainers and trainees, for other institutions and organisations also played key roles in this process. Regarding the first-hand impacts of education, that is, changes derived from on-going activities taking place

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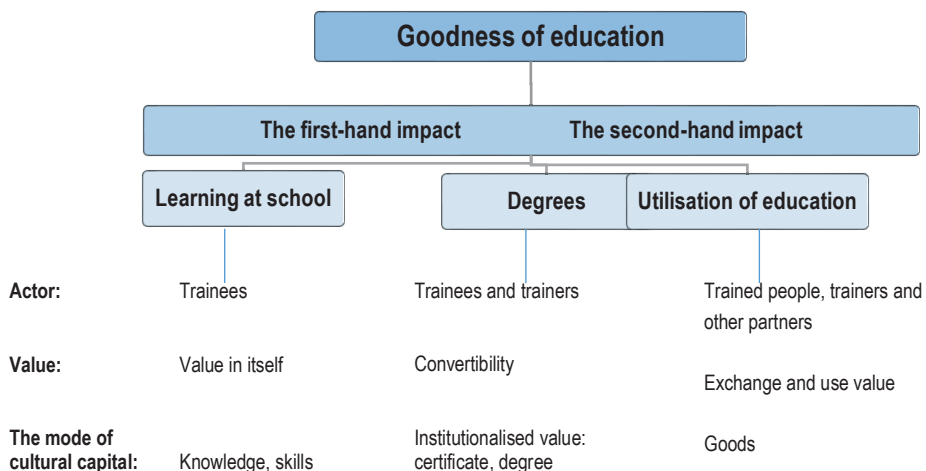
<sup>963</sup> Cracknell 2000, 74–75, 241–242; Roche 2002, 18

<sup>964</sup> Stockmann 1997

<sup>965</sup> Kivinen & Silvennoinen 2000



at MHCC, in which trainees themselves are key actors who cooperate with their trainers when gaining degrees, these immediate effects of VET and the by-products derived from learning (e.g., knowledge, skills, attitudes, manners and habits) were not touched upon. Similarly, a degree with an awarded certificate was omitted, although it was seen as an essential “climax” of a student’s successful learning process. (Figure 19.)<sup>966</sup>



**Figure 19.** Positive impacts of education found by Kivinen and Silvennoinen<sup>967</sup>

Finally, only one aspect — socio-economic changes derived from utilisation of VET education — was chosen for further investigation from the large category of second-hand impacts of education. The yellow color in Table 11 below highlights the key focus, socio-economic impacts of VET education, used in the coding framework created for VET impacts in this research.

To be more precise, work, income and assets, were chosen for a closer examination and were recognisable at various levels, such as individual, interpersonal and collective levels. In data analysis, I utilised pattern matching when evaluating socio-economic impacts experienced as a result of VET at MHCC. After naming the coding categories I listed categories and assigned each category relevant to my case settings. Thereafter, I marked the translated materials, including such databases as questionnaires, written stories, the first and second thematic interviews, with the coding categories by using abbreviations, as indicated in Table 11.

<sup>966</sup> Kivinen & Silvennoinen 2000

<sup>967</sup> Kivinen & Silvennoinen 2000, 62

**Table 11.** The coding categories with abbreviations used in the analyses of VET impacts

IMPACTS	Positive (+)	Negative (-)
<b>1st hand impacts: By-products during the VET process: Learning (L)</b>		
<b>2nd hand impacts: utilisation of education (UE), end-products after the VET</b> - status and respect (S&R): honour, power, role model, self-confidence, self-esteem, self-acceptance - trade (T): expertise, profession, craftsmanship, field, vocation, certificate, degree - vocational development (D): creativity, further studies - cultural aspects (C): traditions, habits, manners - social consequences (SC): networks, relationships, politics, assemblies  - socio-economic (SE) — income, property: work (W): employment, job, business, self-employment; income (I): money, wages, salary; assets (A): property, equipment, devices; material/immaterial assistance (M/I A) - level of utilisation: in individual life (a person, (P)) in interpersonal life (e.g., an extended family (EF)) in the collective life (e.g., a community, society, association, group (C))		

After coding, I reread each case and checked all its codes. In the final coding phase, the story of each student was considered as one case, which received a certain impact code only once, if mentioned at least once in the writing. Despite multiple mentions of a certain topic in each story, that topic was coded once at most. For example, if, during her story, a former student from the tailoring department of MHCC mentioned five different times that she got a job after graduating from VET, then during the coding process this student was handled as one case and was coded to the work-category (W) at maximum only once. The coding segment used was a written story, interview, or questionnaire.

When reporting these impacts of education, I decided to make use of authentic examples when typifying the results. Apart from the authentic, original case type, an integrated case could be used (the most common type, covering features which were typical of most or all cases), as could a widest type case, which included features logically linked across cases, though not strictly represented in any individual case. This authentic way of typifying meant that the answer of a graduate which was the most illustrative, was chosen as the example. The authentic story allowed the voice of the person in question to be heard in her or his authentic cultural environment, as the type.<sup>968</sup> It was crucial for this cultural sphere to be considered in this development research in which power questions were emphasised. Patterns between cases with differing real-life explanations were looked for.

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<sup>968</sup> see Eskola & Suoranta 1999, 183

Returning to the research data and its analysis in the VET case at MHCC, two patterns in the categories of employed or self-employed persons were found — productive employment (positive changes) and unproductive employment (negative changes).<sup>969</sup> The data revealed that the employment was unable to guarantee either proper income or a sufficient standard of living for MHCC graduates in some cases. In consequence, the following types were used when classifying the socio-economic impacts of VET utilisation at MHCC at personal, extended family and community levels, and when referring to the type of employment and its payoffs. The unemployed and those former students continuing their studies further were excluded for fitting into these categories.

1. Employed:

- a. productive employment
- b. unproductive employment

2. Self-employed:

- a. productive employment
- b. unproductive employment

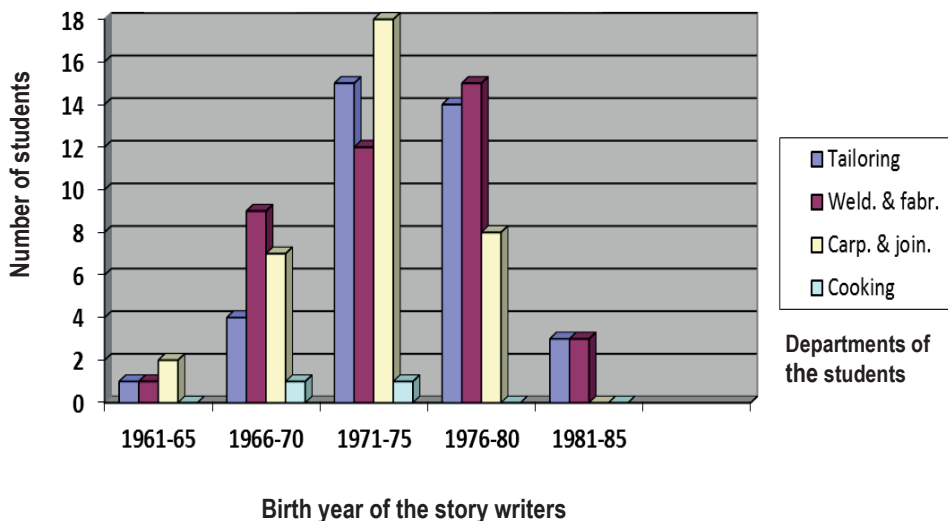
Before revealing the main research results, a profile of the research participants involved in this evaluation experiment is introduced on the grounds of the research methods used. First, an overview of these former students, who responded to the questionnaires and wrote their stories, is presented.

*Gender and age division, as well as family relationships, of the story writers.* The number of questionnaire respondents and of story writers, who fulfilled the selection criteria set for the research, decreased from 118 to 113. The reasons for this decline were

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<sup>969</sup> Self-employment to Grierson (2001, 1) is “practice of owning and operating a small enterprise as a means of livelihood; working for one’s own account, often in the ‘informal sector’”. It covers such activities as artisans, craft and other manufacturers, to shopkeepers, and so on, but excludes such illicit activities as drug trafficking, smuggling, tax evasion and prostitution, prohibited by law. In Africa, to Naude and Halange (2000) the term ‘entrepreneurship’ is generally used to mean ‘self-employment’ (in ILO 2005a, v). The “informal sector” term originated from the research based in Ghana (Hart 1969, 1970, 1973 in Palmer 2007b, 400). To labour statisticians in their 15th International Conference’s Resolution in 1993 the informal sector consists of a group of household enterprises, which produce goods and services, not constituted as separate legal entities, independently of the households or household members that own them. There are no complete sets of accounts available, which would permit a clear distinction of the production activities of the enterprises from the other activities of the owners or flows of income and capital between enterprises and owners remain hardly identifiable. Such enterprises can either be own-account enterprises (self-employment) or enterprises of informal employers (continuous employment of 1 or up to 10 workers). The former definition is commonly used in related studies in Tanzania, (e.g., the Informal Sector Survey for Tanzania (1991) and the Dar es Salaam Informal Sector Survey (1995) in GTZ/VETA 2000, 10).

revealed earlier (see Table 1). The response rate was 42.75%, of whom 33.9% were female writers, as shown in Table 1. Most of these 113 writers were born between 1971 and 1975, as Figure 20 presents. Their ages ranged from 17 to 40 yrs at the end of 2001 when the data was collected, with a mean of 26.4 yrs.



**Figure 20.** MHCC story writers categorised according to their birth year and department

(\*N = 114, with one missing data among welding and fabrication students.)

Of the 113 graduates, 48.2% were married and 43.0% had children. Their number of children averaged 2.1 and varied from one to four among both female and male graduates. Of female graduates 38.5% were married or had been married, and 46.2% had children. Their average number of children was 2.1, while the number of children for married or widowed male graduates was 1.7. The mean number of children was 0.87 among these ladies and 0.88 among men, if the whole sample was considered. The number of children in the childhood family of these story writers averaged 6.8 (N = 32).

*Religion and tribe of the story writers.* In terms of the religious affiliation of the 115 questionnaire respondents, 8 were Muslims, one ignored the question, and the largest proportion of the remaining 106 were Protestants, as well as 33 Catholics, and 25 members of FPCT, that is the local background NGO of MHCC. When having a closer look at their ethnic background, of 114 respondents (one ignored the question) 42 were Sukumas, 14 Nyamwezis, 11 Hayas, 8 Kerewes, 7 Luos and 7 Has,

while the remaining 25 represented such tribes as Nyakusas, Hehes, Nyaturus, Kuryas, Jitas, or Sumbwas.

*Educational background of the story writers.* The basic education completion age of graduate respondents varied from 13 to 20 years. The mode was 15 years, and the median 16, even though 54.9% of respondents were older than 16 years at the time of completing their primary school, and thus were overaged in their higher grades. The average age of MHCC graduates from 1988–2000 was 20.7 yrs. To be able to draw a comparison between MHCC and other Tanzanian VET centres, the findings of the tracer survey conducted in 2002 in Tanzania is offered next for the reader. In 2002, after my fieldwork period in Tanzania, Bennell *et al.* carried out this tracer survey on artisan training and employment outcomes by asking “Where are they now?” among 234 VETA graduates, who completed their VET in three sets, 1995, 1997, or 2000, at two Tanzanian VETA centres: Chang’ombe Regional Vocational Training and Service Centre (RVTSC) in Dar es Salaam, and Iringa RVTSC. The graduates (64% male and 36% female) represented trades such as carpentry and joinery, computing and secretarial, fitting and turning, plumbing and tailoring.<sup>970</sup> As stated above, the average age of MHCC graduates for 1988–2000 was 20.7 yrs. This proved to be much lower than the corresponding figures of Chang’ombe RVTSC graduate, where VET male graduates were an average of 25 yrs old and females 26 yrs old in 1995, and as well as those of Iringa RVTSC, where they were 24 yrs and 22 yrs respectively in 1997.<sup>971</sup>

Junior secondary education, which covers Form One to Form Four studies in Tanzania, was attended by 27.4% (N = 31) of the graduates (N = 113) before starting their studies at MHCC. Two of these were women. One woman completed the 4-year-long teacher education and the other one dropped out after 2 years. From these 31 graduates, 20 graduated from the secondary education and 11 dropped out during the junior secondary studies. The most general reason mentioned for dropping out of secondary education was the lack of money. The VETA tracer study showed that at RVTSC in Dar es Salaam nearly 60% of graduates in 2000 had studied Form Four before studying VET, while most VET students taken in Iringa RVTSC were primary school leavers, for whom the VETA centres were primarily targeted.<sup>972</sup>

The first intake of MHCC took place in February 1987 and the first students completed their 2-year-long VET at MHCC in November 1988. Students’ intakes occurred in years 1987–1993 every second year, while since 1994 new entrants were

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<sup>970</sup> Bennell, Mukyanuzi, Kasogela, Mutashubirwa & Klim 2006, 73–75

<sup>971</sup> Bennell, Mukyanuzi, Kasogela, Mutashubirwa & Klim 2006, 84

<sup>972</sup> Bennell, Mukyanuzi, Kasogela, Mutashubirwa & Klim 2006, 82

accepted annually. In 1995 MHCC was changed from a boarding school to a day school, and at the end of 1996 its funding from the Finnish government terminated and the last Finnish workers returned home. This meant that 40% of the story writers lived in the dormitory and 55.7% of them studied during foreign funding, as the percentages of sum frequencies establish in Table 12. The number of graduates engaged in this evaluation experiment are clarified in Table 12 based on their fields and years of completion, including the participants from almost every class year, except the intakes of tailors in 1996 and of carpenters in 2000.

**Table 12.** The trade division of MHCC graduates and story writers from 1988 to 2000

DEPARTMENTS OF GRADUATED STUDENTS OF MHCC							
Year of completion of MHCC	Cooking (f) (female)	Tailoring (f) (female)	Carpentry & Joinery (f) (female)	Welding & Fabrication (f) (female)	(f)	SFR	%SFR
1988	2 (2)	4 (3)	4	-**	10	10	8.7
1990	-***	1 (1)	1	6	8	18	15.7
1992	-***	4 (3)	8	2	14	32	27.8
1994	-***	8 (8)	3	3	14	46	40.0
1995	-***	1 (1)	5	6	12	58	50.4
1996	-***	0 (0)	2	4	6	64	55.7
1997	-***	7 (7)	6	6	19	83	72.2
1998	-***	2 (2)	4	5	11	94	81.2
1999	-***	5 (5)	1	6 (1)	12	106	92.9
2000	-***	5 (5)	0	3 (1)	8	114	99.1
(f)	2 (2)	37 (35)	1 * 35 (0)	41 (2)	1 * 115 (39)	115	100

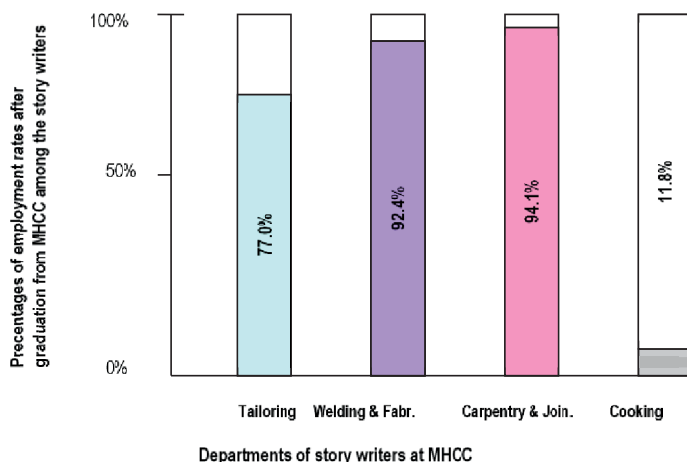
\*One student of the carpentry and joinery department graduated in 1989, as an exception.

\*\*The Welding and Fabrication Department was launched in 1989.

\*\*\*The Cooking Department was closed in 1988 after the graduation of the first students.

*Activity profiles of the story writers: waged employment, self-employment, unemployment, or further education.* As Figure 21 reveals, 96.5% of the graduates had gained work experience from their own fields after their graduation from MHCC, except three tailors and one carpenter.

Figure 21 summarises and clarifies the working years of the graduates of four MHCC departments since their graduation to the date of story writing. The count of the employment rates was based on each graduate's working or studying years beginning from the graduation, excluding such periods as giving birth, being ill or doing national service.



**Figure 21.** The employment rates of MHCC story writers counted from their graduation to the end of 2001 and illustrated according to their trades

The overall effectiveness of VET at producing results in which formally gained vocational skills can be properly utilised was compared when observing training-related employment. This means that a person trained to be a tailor was working as a tailor.<sup>973</sup> More detailed activity profiles of MHCC graduates are demonstrated in Table 13. At the time of data gathering most former students who had studied in the tailoring department worked as tailors (N = 25), and two of them as tailoring teachers. However, six persons out of 37 had changed their fields, working then as a cook, a hair dresser, a business woman, a guard, a housekeeper and an assistant nurse. Six females out of 37 graduates described themselves as unemployed.

Regarding the welding and fabrication department, of its 41 graduates 33 worked as welders at the time of inquiry. Of them, two worked as teachers of welding and fabrication and one as a shipbuilding supervisor. Three MHCC welding and fabrication graduates were continuing their studies, two of them motor vehicle mechanics in VET institutions, and one in a secondary school. Two persons worked part-time as welders, part-time as carpenters or businessmen. These four who had changed their fields worked as a camera technician, a tailor, a security guard and a carpenter/farmer, respectively, at the time when the research was carried out. In addition, one of the 41 welding and fabrication graduates was unemployed.

<sup>973</sup> see e.g., Bennell, Mukyanuzi, Kasogela, Mutashubirwa & Klim 2006, 79

**Table 13.** Activity profiles of MHCC story writers according to their trades in 2001

ACTIVITY PROFILE OF MHCC STORY WRITERS					
TRADE	Waged employment	Self-employment	Unemployment	Further education	TOTAL
Tailoring	18.9% (N = 7)	64.9% (N = 24)	16.2% (N = 6)	0% (N = 0)	100% (N = 37)
Carpentry and joinery	28.6% (N = 10)	65.7% (N = 23)	2.85% (N = 1)	2.85% (N = 1)	100% (N = 35)
Welding and fabrication	36.6% (N = 15)	51.2% (N = 21)	2.4% (N = 1)	9.8% (N = 4)	100% (N = 41)
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>28.3% (N = 32)</b>	<b>60.2% (N = 68)</b>	<b>7.1% (N = 8)</b>	<b>4.4% (N = 5)</b>	<b>100% (N = 113)</b>

Considering the carpentry and joinery department of MHCC, 31 of its 35 graduates worked as carpenters. Of these 31, one was a carpentry and joinery teacher, two carpentry supervisors and two either workers in carpentry business or building. Of four ex-carpenters, one continued his studies in secondary school, one worked as a fisherman, while the other as a gardener. One ex-carpenter was unemployed.

Of two cooks, one was unemployed, and another got her income from agriculture. To sum up, 85.1% of MHCC story writers had been employed, self-employed or had been studying since their graduation (excluding those giving birth, doing national service or being ill). When referring to their working years of all 113 graduates, 88.2% of them were plying the same trade which they studied at MHCC.

The aforementioned VETA tracer survey on two Tanzanian VETA centres indicated that of the 1995–1997 VET graduates, 44% worked in training-related employment in 2002. Of the graduates from the year 2000, 22% worked in training-related employment in 2002. The survey revealed that the training-related employment rate was highest among carpenters and tailors.<sup>974</sup> When comparing with MHCC, MHCC's figures indicate much higher training-related employment rates among its graduates than for the VETA centres covered in the tracer study. Indeed, the evaluation experiment carried out at MHCC demonstrated that 67.6% of graduates from MHCC's tailoring program (trained between 1988–2000) worked in training-related employment in 2001. The percentage of MHCC carpenter graduates working in their trade was 75.6%, and the percentage of metalworkers was 91.2%, all having studied between the years 1989–2000. Some reasons for this could be the higher number of Trade Tests passed at MHCC and the higher self-employment rate, with higher earnings, at MHCC than among the VETA tracer study participants.

<sup>974</sup> Bennell, Mukyanuzi, Kasogela, Mutashubirwa & Klim 2006, 79–80



The VETA tracer survey results revealed that only 30% of the graduates were in waged employment. These numbers were highest in urban areas and lowest among such graduates as carpenters, joiners and tailors. The reasons for the low rate of waged employment given by the employers included the deterioration of the quality of VET in the 1990s due to the training period being reduced from a 4-year-long course to a 1-year-long one, the lower levels of Trade Tests (from Grade I to Grade III), and more intense competition among the artisans owing to the increase in the number of better-qualified graduates of technical colleges and higher education institutions. About 50% of the 1995 Chang'ombe and 1997 Iringa graduates were self-employed, while in 2000 the rates were 23% and 46% respectively. The majority of those self-employed were carpenters living in rural areas. Moreover, the tracer survey established that in 2002, 10–15% of the 1995–1997 VET graduates, and 20% of the 2002 graduates, were unemployed. The unemployment rate was highest among female dominated trades such as tailoring, computing and secretarial. Regarding the Trade Test, only 40% of the 1995–1997 graduates had passed Grade III, and just 10% had passed Grade I, by 2002.<sup>975</sup>

In terms of MHCC, in 2001 the total figure of waged employment among evaluation participants was 28.3%. The rate of self-employment was 60.2%, while total unemployment was 7.1%. Of 113 MHCC graduates 4.4% continued their studies further. At MHCC, 71.5% of graduates who studied between the years 1988–2000 passed the Trade Test Grade III (excluding the cooks, for whom no Trade Test was available during their graduation in 1988).

*Interviewees.* From the pool of 97 MHCC graduates 11 were asked to join in the first thematic interviews (TI1sts), including four women and seven men. They all approved the request. The interviewees ranged in age from 21 to 40 yrs, with a median age of 29 yrs. Four lived in rural areas, eight were married and six had children (range 1–4, a mean of 2.1 children). They all originated from families having a mean of 10 siblings, varying from four to 34 siblings. Five of their mothers were housewives, while five mothers were self-employed (i.e., two farmers, two craftswomen, one with a small business) and one was employed as a typist. Of their fathers, three were farmers while two worked as teachers. The rest of the fathers represented such occupational groups as pastors, health officers, tailors, managers, herders, and businessmen.

All four female interviewees had studied in the tailoring department. Four of the seven men had studied welding and fabrication, while the three other men were graduates of the carpentry and joinery department. Of these 11 graduates, two

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<sup>975</sup> Bennell, Mukyanuzi, Kasogela, Mutashubirwa & Klim 2006, 75–80

interviewees had completed secondary education in addition to VET, while three others had dropped out of secondary school after their second or the third year of studies. Of these interviewees, one female graduate had two VET certificates, two men had completed a higher level than Trade Test Grade III, and one woman had graduated from teacher's college. Ten of the interviewees had finalised their MHCC studies except one, who dropped out because of illness. At the time of evaluation, six of the interviewees were in waged employment and five were self-employed.

At the time of data gathering, three of the graduates from the tailoring department worked as tailors (N = 4), and one as a cook. One of these four was working as a tailoring teacher. Two of these four interviewees were employed and lived in the city, while two others were self-employed. One of those self-employed was living in a rural area. Five of the seven interviewees who had studied welding and fabrication were employed. Three of these five worked as welders, including one welding and fabrication teacher, and one shipbuilding supervisor. Two of the seven interviewed were self-employed, and one of these two worked part-time as a welder, part-time as a carpenter/farmer, while the other had changed fields and was now a camera technician. Three of the carpentry and joinery graduates interviewed worked as carpenters. All of them were involved in either a carpentry business or the building sector. One of these three had waged employment, but two others living in rural areas were self-employed.

To sum up, 96.9% of the 11 interviewed graduates had been employed or self-employed or had been students since their graduation from MHCC, excluding any time of giving birth, doing national service or being ill. Of their working years, 95.5% had plied the same trade as they studied at MHCC.

Next, we move on to research results. In this report, the respondents' quotations were translated into English throughout by the researcher, while the original Swahili quotations are retained in the researcher's database. By doing so, the transparency and credibility of the qualitative data analysis was increased.

*Individual socio-economic VET impacts.* Characteristically, graduation from VET, and thereafter the employment gained are supposed to lead an automatic rise in these individuals' standards of living. Unfortunately, employment itself did not guarantee proper income or a sufficient standard of living, as the following examples and stories from Tanzania indicated. Interestingly, many of the MHCC graduates, although they were self-employed, expressed that they had no work, indicating that while they may have clients, they did not have an employer who paid them a salary.

Based on the patterns used in data analysis of the qualitative content analysis, such sub-categories as employed (productive/unproductive employment) and self-

employed (productive/unproductive employment) were used when classifying the socio-economic second-hand impacts of VET. This utilisation of education of MHCC at the personal level referred to the person's earnings and standard of living. It followed that the impacts experienced from VET at MHCC on graduates' employment could be either productive or unproductive. Hence, the graduates of MHCC were classified on the grounds of their current employment under four sub-categories, being either employed or self-employed, and having either productive or unproductive employment — excluding those unemployed due to the lack of a job. Therefore, all graduates were categorised at the time of data generation based on their employment state, which varied from employment to unemployment, while those continuing their studies were excluded.

The first case 1a below draws on the male graduates who studied welding and fabrication at MHCC. Some passages from his story reveal that after changing workplaces he managed to earn enough income to cover his living costs.

*Case 1a. The employed person having productive employment.*

The course which I studied was shipbuilding and ship design. Well, I began with ship design, in which I was awarded with the Grade II certificate. And have used it. I got it here [a company] in [a year]. I studied here almost for eight months. Then I received the certificate. Yeah.

In [a year] or [a year] I left the place, because a government [as an owner] did not pay enough money for.... The amount of money was not enough for me. I decided to leave. Then, [a name of company] employed me. Yeah. I worked there almost for one year. Then, neither that place wasn't good for me, so I decided, oh, let me leave it for a while. So, I began to run my own business.

And, and then in [a year] when [a name of a director] took over here [the company], so most of the workers who had the same Grade as I have, had walked out of this place.... So, [the names of the leaders], who were the previous designers here, they took over this place. So, the founder [of this company] and the other person, they hit, they caught me. Then, I decided to come back to this place to continue and work under [the name of the director]. So, it was eight years, eight years ago.

Rents for houses are very high...at February 2001, I paid, I paid him [a landlord] 11 months' rent. It was 8,000 per month per room. I have two rooms. I paid 16,000 Tsh times 11. Then, I continued working here, it was a good start for making good money, more and more money. I used this money for buying a sewing machine, I bought my own video equipment, so ....<sup>976</sup>

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<sup>976</sup> The next abbreviations (II1st4, W&F, M, 6–9, 48–57, 1045, 1047–1049, 1051–1052) refer to the first thematic interviews (II1sts) carried out among 11 MHCC graduates. This person, chosen from the group of those ones who studied at MHCC, participated in the first round of data generation by

The next case 1b below includes features from which I categorised the male graduate's employment as being unproductive. Despite having regular work, the reasons for dissatisfaction were typically either small payments, or delays in paying the employee's salary. In practice, many graduates dreamed of wage paid employment, however, the reality, unfortunately, forced them to leave their jobs, as the next example describes.

*Case 1b. The employed person having unproductive employment.*

After my graduation from MHCC I got a lot of benefit. After leaving MHCC one factory [a name of a factory] employed me for three months in order to fix their things as a carpenter. After that because of not getting a good salary one rich person in a town of [a name of a town] employed me for two months. Then, I joined with my friend, who had his own workshop, to make all kind of woodwork, but we couldn't afford to purchase tools. After these all, I decided to stop working and to stay at home after failing in our attempt to buy the tools. And later I joined with [the name of the factory] on [a date], I become like a craftsman, manufacturing all kind of woodwork, as a supervisor for carpenters. I was three years from [the date] — to date, to date.

All in all, the salary is not good. So, I want to leave this work. I haven't received the salary for three months, received no payment. Now, here [the name of the factory] I am the main carpentry supervisor. I am dissatisfied with the payment, because until this minute when I am writing this story, my 3-months' salary is unpaid, I have not yet received my salary. So, they [the name of the factory] sometimes give us [a name of products] ought to be sold to compensate for our unpaid salaries — this is "the salary". All in all, I am dissatisfied with my payments and I have made plans for leaving.

Thanks a lot for MHCC, for now I can enjoy fruits of my studies. And many thanks for the centre's founders and those for running the centre, in this way I have reached my present step. MHCC has helped me a lot. I have taken this step forward as the fruit reaped of MHCC efforts. ... These studies have contributed to build up this reputation of mine which I have as a worker at present. And even my employer he respects me for these studies provided at MHCC and for my work.<sup>977</sup>

The opportunities to gain employed work in Tanzania varied a lot among the former students of MHCC. Admittedly, big differences were found between those living in

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writing his story (WS) and by filling up the questionnaire (Q). This person received number four (no 4) after numeration of these first thematic interviews of 11 participants with consecutive numbers from 1 to 11. This male (M) interviewee in question had studied welding and fabrication (W&F) at MHCC. His sayings were transcribed and readable on the lines 6–9, 48–57, 1045, 1047–1049 and 1051–1052 in this certain thematic interview.

<sup>977</sup> WS110, C&J, M

urban and rural areas. Indeed, in a country like Tanzania, the informal sector<sup>978</sup> is wide. The growing number of young people coincides with rising youth unemployment rates, particularly in developing countries. Hence, the only real option for their employment and survival is the informal sector and self-employment in this present situation.<sup>979</sup> Understandably, without job opportunities, many of MHCC's former students have ended up employing themselves. The following case is a common success story with sufficient compensation received from the carpenter's self-employment.

*Case 2a. The self-employed person having productive employment.*

In the beginning of 2001, I opened my own place [a name of a firm], my own carpentry workshop. Before coming to MHCC I had worked with missionaries, as I said before. I worked only indoors doing the washing and washing up as well as cleaning. But after MHCC studies now I am a self-employed carpenter. I am a shining example for people there in [a name of a hotel]. This is the big tourist hotel. I work with cooperation with this hotel by producing furniture, all wardrobes for their hotel rooms. The hotel awarded me the contract to make the hotel reception and hotel-casino as well as all carpentry services, which they need there. Also, for a hotelier, there, I made all furniture for his room. I could afford my own house and a house for my mother in a village. I am a self-employed carpenter, and I have employed craftsmen, four, to assist me in my work.<sup>980</sup>

Undeniably, the heavy workload with which Tanzanian workers often struggle to cope with, did not guarantee the work's economic productivity, as the following case 2b regrettably illustrates. Indeed, the real economic impact of work is dependent on the context and environment of the worker. For instance, if self-employment is not carried out through official contracts, the worker can be at risk of being seriously oppressed by more powerful customers in a cultural context where power distances are large and power hierarchy clear. Power distances were discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3.2 (footnotes 583–584).

*Case 2b. The self-employed person having unproductive employment.*

I did carpentry work as a self-employed person. Then, I received an order from a government: to produce 240 desks. These desks were ordered by [a title and name of a person], but there were problems with the leader who placed the order for the desks. In three weeks, we, 6 persons and my apprentices, we produced these 240 desks. We

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<sup>978</sup> see more about the informal sector (IS) in footnote 969

<sup>979</sup> see e.g., AEO 2008; Palmer 2007b, 398; World Youth Report 2003, 59

<sup>980</sup> WS90, C&J, M

managed to produce them with two planes and two saws. Therefore, we worked in shifts, some cut boards, one nailed and another planed. In this way we progressed.

Having good luck, we produced 240 desks from morning till midnight in three weeks, and then we finalised. But unluckily to date our work is still unpaid. So, all the money, 700,000 [Tsh], which we used for buying all the boards, we lost, and? They delivered them (i.e., the desks) to schools, to schools they delivered them. They all are in the schools of [a name of a place]. Therefore, [the title of the person] he wakened us to realise .... for, [the name of the person], he told that he saw all these desks. And really, this project continues in that district [a name of a district]. Now the leaders of [the name of the place], the money which they, instead of us, got they apportioned between them and “ate” them. Consequently, we have not been paid to date. You see. Thus, first, doing that project was a hard work. And since then, it was the year of [the year mentioned], yes, this means that, I have been afraid of doing work. Let us see when [the title of the person] will appear. Now, to get 700,000 [Tsh], no, even to get 1,000 [Tsh] will be problematic. Yeah.<sup>981</sup>

Despite having jobs, whether employed or self-employed, the living environments — cities, towns, villages — had impact on the living costs of the graduates. In the VET case at MHCC, when charting their economic situations, any ready-made income categories were not given during the data generation. Hence, the graduates defined their personal economic situation literally. These replies are summarised in Table 14.

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<sup>981</sup> TI1st11, C&J, M, 2476–2498

**Table 14.** Self-evaluation of MHCC graduates and story writers of their economic situation

MHCC GRADUATES' ECONOMIC SITUATION								
LEVEL OF SATISFACTION								
DEPARTMENT	Very bad ---	Bad, but not very bad --	Bad -	Average -+	Good +	Moderately good ++	Very good +++	NA
Tailoring (n=37)	3	1	7	5	13	5	0	3
Welding and fabrication (n=41)	4	1	8	15	4	5	0	4
Carpentry and joinery (n=35)	3	0	6	5	4	13	0	4
<b>TOTAL (N=113)</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>11</b>

Meanings of symbols used in Table 14 above: NA = data missing

--- = very bad, very abject, very low, very small, very difficult, at very bottom

-- = bad, but not very bad

- = not good, bad, difficult

-+ = moderate, average, not very good and not very bad, neither bad nor good

+ = good, satisfying, not bad

++ = like 85% satisfying, moderately good, not bad not very good, not very good, not very satisfying

+++ = very good

As seen in Table 14, most of the former students of MHCC were at least moderately satisfied with their economic situation. Some passages below written by the graduates deepen our understanding about their economic situation at that time.

My life before joining MHCC, owing to my payments at that time, it wasn't good. I couldn't earn my living. But after providing VET skills, getting my craftsmanship, my living conditions changed a lot and my incomes increased.<sup>982</sup>

Referring to a question of my economic situation from that viewpoint it is neither very good nor very bad, because our country's current economy is not good. It is a thing that has also an impact on us who work, who work as carpenters. It is difficult, because people they say that they don't have money. Thus, it also affects us. Our economic situation is difficult, because there are very few customers. Despite difficult circumstances, however, we make the effort so that we get money from a project. That helps me and my relatives. As I already explained my parents are farmers, herdspersons, and are dependent on me. This means that I can support them only with a small amount of money because of the former reasons. Finally, my economic situation is moderate due to the current economic situation.<sup>983</sup>

<sup>982</sup> WS68, W&F, M

<sup>983</sup> WS109, C&J, M

... my education gained at MHCC has been of use a lot in my life. With my craftsmanship and by making ladies' and children's clothing for various types of events or significant occasions, I have earned my livelihood. Therefore, I have no problems at all. I have a very good phase in my life; thus, I feel very good at present. It means that my economic life is under my control and very well in my hand. I am prepared everything, or I am independent, dependent on my own tailoring business only. Reasons given for feeling good: I have a good vocation in [a name of a town]. Every person likes it. And even I "harvest" more as I am working just at my home. I meet every visiting customer at my home. If you sew for one person, s/he leaves and will come with five more [customers]. So, the good craftsman's reputation was conducive to this. Really, it is great, because they enjoy it. I have won their confidence while assisting them in various ways with my skills.<sup>984</sup>

Taking into consideration three professions trained at MHCC (viz. tailors, carpenters and welders), between these groups there were large variations in their seasonal economic situations. Tailors might have the most seasonal differences in their incomes, as compared to carpenters or welders. This was exemplified by the following citation made by the tailor.

My economic situation is good during holidays, during seasons when you meet customers who bring their fabrics [to a tailor/dressmaker] to have them sewn. During Christmas season, Easter time and on the seventh of June (the event called Saba Saba<sup>985</sup> in Swahili), during those days you make a large amount of money.<sup>986</sup>

The elements which may have impact on earnings are the expertise gained with the assistance of further education, for example, with the completion of Trade Test Grade II or I, as well as with having long work experience. Despite having work, typically the reasons for dissatisfaction were either small payments or delays in the payment of employee's salary.

One specific, indirect indicator was used to provide more information about the standard of living of the graduates of MHCC, as seen in Table 15. This measurement illustrated the density of cell phones or of telephones lines among the graduates studied.

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<sup>984</sup> WS23, T, F

<sup>985</sup> The establishment day of TANU-party celebrated on July 7th (Abdulla, Halme, Harjula & Pesari-Pajunen 2002, 210).

<sup>986</sup> WS36, T, F



**Table 15.** The telephone density among MHCC graduates at the end of the year 2001

<b>TELEPHONE DENSITY (INCLUDING MOBILE PHONES AND TELEPHONE LINES) AMONG THE GRADUATES OF MHCC</b>				
<b>Department of MHCC</b>	<b>Female (f)</b>	<b>Male (f)</b>	<b>TOTAL (f)</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Cooking*</b>	0 (2)	0	<b>0 (2)</b>	<b>0 %</b>
<b>Tailoring</b>	10 (35)	1 (2)	<b>11 (37)</b>	<b>9.6%</b>
<b>Carpentry and joinery</b>	0	13 (35)	<b>13 (35)</b>	<b>11.3%</b>
<b>Welding and fabrication</b>	1 (2)	17 (39)	<b>18 (41)</b>	<b>15.6%</b>
<b>TOTAL (f)</b>	<b>11 (39)</b>	<b>31 (76)</b>	<b>42 (115)</b>	<b>36.5% (100%)</b>

One very interesting cultural feature in Tanzania that reflects your socio-economic situation is having a spouse. Because of the Tanzanian cultural code of conduct, it is understandable that male graduates of MHCC regarded getting a spouse as a type of asset or property (read more about bride prices in Chapter 5.2.1). This is demonstrated by the following quotations expressed by some male MHCC graduates, who clearly identified VET having had direct positive impacts on their family formulations.

... after graduation, thanks to this education, I got a wife and family, therefore I feel good. For in the present world a life without VET, without a little VET knowledge at least, it's a life of sheer misery. It means that this modern world is the world of expertise. We understand that those who don't have VET, they have the real sufferings. No matter what the circumstances are VET is a tool that you do not lose until you'll die.<sup>987</sup>

After my graduation from MHCC I began my independent life. I am self-supporting in a field which I learned. I did that work in a factory for eight years. During those eight years I could get a fiancée in [a year], have lived nice life with my wife. In [a year] we had our first child. His name is [a name of a son]. After having our son, we continued our good life. I did work at [a name of a factory]. I could afford to purchase real estate, a piece of arable land for cultivation, a field for banana growing with its equipment, worth 20. 000 000 Shillings with a house in the same place.<sup>988</sup>

Some other socio-economic impacts can be observed through assets. Some welders, as described below, have received sufficient financial success with VET to acquire such properties as cattle, household goods, furniture, machines, and earned enough money to purchase material for buildings.

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<sup>987</sup> WS6, T, M

<sup>988</sup> WS41, W&F, M

After my MHCC graduation, I give as examples of my success made such as 1. Now I can depend on myself. 2. I can afford to live in the town and make my living, to pay all cost of living, food, clothing. 3. I could afford to buy furniture and household goods such as cupboard, sofa, bed and bedclothes, radio and other small domestic goods. I bought a welding machine. I have assisted my younger sibling by paying contribution to nursery school tuition fees, in [a name of a place]. Therefore, I have made money for all things and all family activities by using this vocational business since MHCC. After finishing my studies here at MHCC, the community around me they see that I have got improvement in my life, for I am doing my own business for a community without anybody's disturbance and giving training for those my fellow craftsmen in designing different items; training old men — modernising their outdated craftsmanship — the community to become modern. I advise my young fellows to study at VET centres, not to miss it, for expertise does not become invalid.<sup>989</sup>

As an example of success met after MHCC studies: now I live in the town; I can afford the rent on my own. I could buy household items such as sofa, radio, TV, cupboard, bed, mattress, other small household utensils. I have bought livestock, cows. Now I have eight. I could afford to have four trips of stones been carried for house building. I have made money for all these things through this vocational business of mine after having finished MHCC.<sup>990</sup>

*Interpersonal socio-economic VET impacts.* VET at MHCC did not only have impact on the lives of the graduated students, but also on the lives of the members of their extended families. One male graduate revealed that about 20% of his monthly salary was donated to his parents as a token of his gratitude, without it feeling like it was any burden.<sup>991</sup> The next writer, who worked successfully in his carpentry and joinery field, expressed how typical it was to take care of other family members — a case in point was his mother. Likewise, it was natural to assist members of the extended family in various ways, for example, by building shelters or purchasing other equipment.

[The work] enabled me to purchase my own house and a house to my mother in a village<sup>992</sup>.

I feel very good. I have even assisted my parents in many things. I built them a house<sup>993</sup>. (See e.g., Figure 22.)

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<sup>989</sup> WS57, W&F, M

<sup>990</sup> WS58, W&F, M

<sup>991</sup> TT1st5, W&F, M, 2017–2046

<sup>992</sup> WS90, C&J, M

<sup>993</sup> WS 100, C&J, M



**Figure 22.** The furniture made at MHCC (Pylvänäinen 2006)

Next, the growing length of socio-economic impact chains derived from VET was clearly demonstrated. For instance, many Tanzanians valued education highly. For that reason, but also with their own education provided, many of MHCC's former students have given financial assistance to their siblings or other relatives for their further education and training.

The family around me are thankful for my education. Consequently, to date I have sponsored them. Let us take some examples. The first one, is that I assist my dead sister's two children by paying their tuition fees, I am among these persons who have supported them. I give different kind of assistance to my relatives.<sup>994</sup>

For example, just now my younger siblings are studying at the secondary school, accordingly, I pay their tuition fees, bus fares, for they need bus transportation when they go to school and I give different kind of assistance.<sup>995</sup>

My extended family's situation is good, for I have assisted them a lot with my skills acquired at MHCC. I do my tailoring business, make money for my family and give funds to cover their different needs. I sponsor my close family during periods when they need my help. In addition, since my graduation from MHCC I have been able to assist my elder sister. She is the very person who cared me and funded my education there at MHCC. I have helped her by teaching this education which I got in the VET centre to her. And to date when I am writing this paper she has been and is a good tailor. Therefore, when I have got many sewing from customers, I usually ask her to help me. Especially, with the twelfth month approaching very many customers are usually coming. Therefore, VET has helped my close family a lot.<sup>996</sup>

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<sup>994</sup> WS41, W&F, M

<sup>995</sup> WS88, C&J, M

<sup>996</sup> WS12, T, F

*Collective socio-economic VET impacts.* When turning back to socio-economic impacts of VET discovered at the collective level, it was apparent that many graduates with formal VET gained at MHCC have established private, informal VET courses or taken to serving Tanzanian youngsters with apprenticeship training in all three vocational fields: tailoring, welding and fabrication, and carpentry and joinery. The impact chains (which could even be described as impact nets) of VET were visible, as presented below, in the Tanzanian societies and environments, even for reaching other neighbours or community members where graduates had settled down.

The benefits which I got. i. I can help brothers and community in welding, metal fabrication, with the work which I studied. When I was employed by one company [a name of a company], although I was paid a salary, although a very small one, it helped me and the family to solve problems. ii. I have taught more than 50 people during years, the period from 1995 till 2001. They have learned welding.<sup>997</sup>

He was trained to be a welder there [at MHCC]. And he has a lot of impact on this area, even on the centre of the town. Many Indians they wait for him. They ask: come, come, come, come, because they know, they have seen his work. It is fine, very nice, and very good. Even he is one these who made these sketches here in a church, for the church's roof. And he did it very well. Everybody appreciates him because of his good work which he does. And he is one who, who has been trained there [at MHCC]. Yeah. I think people when they see someone who have been trained there and their work, then, see the very good work done [at MHCC].<sup>998</sup> (See e.g., Figure 23.)

... wedding clothing, veils and hats as well as other different items, that I have, they are other benefits that my family and church got. They usually get them at very cheap prices. I have sewn uniforms for their choirs, weddings, decorating their halls, and so on for the different churches. Many things that I learned in the centre have brought a very great benefit to me.<sup>999</sup>

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<sup>997</sup> WS62, W&F, M

<sup>998</sup> TI2nd13, M, 259–272

<sup>999</sup> WS16, T, F



**Figure 23.** The rafters made at MHCC (Pylvänäinen 2006)

Also, I have assisted in teaching orphans. I have taught craftsmanship of how sewing cloths. And some of them they have passed their examination. I taught students who finished the primary education at that time, when they needed my teaching. Therefore, my studies at MHCC have helped my whole community, my close family, neighbours and others as well. I have supported in sewing wedding clothing for church members at good price and even in sewing school uniforms and so on.<sup>1000</sup>

#### 4.3.2 Summary

As demonstrated above, what VET obtained in Tanzanian society is valuable and appropriate. Particularly poor families and their communities received a lot of benefit from VET. It seems to be a significant and vital tool for contributing not only to the socio-economic situations of the extended families but also to the local communities of graduates. These impacts were bound together in some way, forming far-reaching impact chains and impact nets.

In conclusion, several socio-economic impacts of VET at MHCC are presented and summarised in Table 16. Answers are given to research question 1.2: “What were the evaluation findings from the VET utilisation?” As Table 16 demonstrates, these socio-economic impacts were recognisable at all impact levels, namely individual, interpersonal and collective, in the lives of the multiple VET stakeholders of MHCC. Next, we consider evaluation utilisation and the use of the evaluation process. We

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<sup>1000</sup> WS12, T, F

examine answers to the research questions, as asked in Chapter 1.2: “What was the kind of process use of evaluation in the VET case? With what results?” “How was evaluation used? How were impacts of the evaluation experiment carried out manifested at the personal, interpersonal and collective levels of the VET case? What changed?”

**Table 16.** The summary of socio-economic impacts of VET at MHCC

SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF VET			
LEVEL OF IMPACT			
SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACT INDICATORS	INDIVIDUAL: the former student	INTERPERSONAL: the extended family of the former student	COLLECTIVE: within the community or organisation which the former student is involved in
ASSETS (material)	Spouse (bride price)	Donations (school fees, transportation fares, remuneration of medical treatment etc.)	Donations
PROPERTY (material)	Furniture, devices, machines, goods, equipment, cattle	Purchasing other equipment	
REAL ESTATE (material)	House, farm, field, plot	Building or purchasing shelters (house)	
VOLUNTARY WORK (material/immaterial)		VET training: informal private VET courses, informal “apprenticeship training” Sewing, services	VET training: informal private VET courses, informal “apprenticeship training”, services Sewing: uniforms and wedding cloths

We turn now to a consideration of how evaluation utilisation and especially the process use of evaluation in the evaluation experiment, at MHCC in Tanzania, was utilised as an essential source for improving evaluation impacts.

## 4.4 Evaluation utilisation for evaluation impacts

The learning aspect of the process use as well as its possibilities to offer chances for real participation have been expressed. Among these scholars are, for instance, Dahler-Larsen; Forss *et al.*; Johnson; Patton; Saunders; Suzuki; as well as Preskill *et al.*<sup>1001</sup> To these scholars, the key question in the process use, when based on social constructivist learning, participatory and collaborative evaluation approaches to process use, is in which ways individuals learn about the evaluand, evaluation

<sup>1001</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009, 312, 320; Forss, Cracknell & Samset 1994; Johnson 1998, 94; Patton 2008, 108; Preskill, Zukerman & Matthews 2003, 423–424; Saunders 2012; Suzuki 2000, 99–100

practice, and from their engagement in an evaluation. To them, process use is the action in which “individuals construct knowledge and develop a shared reality through collaboration with others.”<sup>1002</sup> It means that in this construction of new knowledge the context of the situation and participants’ past experiences are interpreted and integrated.<sup>1003</sup>

Next, one evaluation process used in the VET case at MHCC is clarified. This process use of evaluation, the empowerment evaluation seminar and workshop held at MHCC, took place during the evaluation experiment at MHCC in 2006.

#### 4.4.1 Evaluation as utilisation, participation and learning: process-based evaluation impacts

*Process use demonstrated by the case of empowerment evaluation.* As Patton stressed, the first step in evaluation utilisation is to figure out who the primary intended users of the evaluations are. Indeed, MHCC staff and its committee members initially made the request for further development of their VET services through evaluation. Therefore, it was natural in this VET case that they wanted to be heard and had a central role in its reflection processes. Hence, Patton’s instructions were followed, and the stakeholders were involved in the evaluation processes at MHCC. Secondly, Patton emphasised that examples of the process use include creating a shared understanding between members of the programme team about the programme’s goals or a change in programme delivery due to the clarification of the programme’s underlying theory.<sup>1004</sup> In my case at MHCC, this shared understanding was gained by following three traditional phases of empowerment evaluation. They were development of the mission and vision of MHCC, stock-taking, and development of MHCC’s future.

First, the mission of MHCC needed updating. As a reminder, both the mission and vision set earlier for MHCC were readable in English on posters which were hanging on the wall of the classroom of MHCC during this new session, around which 21 workshop participants were gathered. The mission of MHCC was stated as follows:

At MHCC VET studies are provided for the Tanzanian youth equally during 2-year-long basic VET course (16–25 yrs) regardless of their religion, tribe or sex so that

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<sup>1002</sup> Preskill, Zuckerman & Matthews 2003, 424

<sup>1003</sup> Preskill, Zuckerman & Matthews 2003, 424

<sup>1004</sup> Patton 1997, 100

they are eligible to take the National Trade Test Grade III and become employed or self-employed workers after their graduation.

At the beginning of the empowerment evaluation workshop, MHCC staff members were asked to focus again on cooperation. Thereafter, the first task was given, which was the reformulation of the mission and vision through needed updates. Thus, all participants were asked to discuss in pairs for two minutes about why MHCC exists. Thereafter they were encouraged to make changes if needed to reformulate the mission. In response to the work received from the pairs, and the general discussion, the mission of MHCC was reformulated as follows:

At MHCC VET studies are provided for the Tanzanians equally during 2-year-long basic VET course regardless of their religion, tribe or sex so that they are eligible to take the National Examination (VETA) and become employed or self-employed workers after their graduation.

No reason was found to limit the highest entry age of applicants. This is the outcome of a lively discussion, for indeed, many students of MHCC had been enrolled who were older than the 25-year cut off. Likewise, the changes in terms of the National Examinations were considered in the reformulation of the mission of MHCC.

The empowerment evaluation process continued by sharing ideas of the original vision set for MHCC. This task was done in the same pairs as before. The original vision was formulated as follows:

MHCC will be the valued, known across the country, self-sufficient and the best VET centre in Mwanza.

After many fruitful comments, the final version of a more ambitious vision for MHCC was arrived at:

MHCC will be the valued, known across the country, self-sufficient and the best VET centre in Lake Zone.

This minor alteration made to the vision was based on the regions of VETA. It categorised MHCC as belonging to Lake Zone, one of nine Tanzanian VET regions (zones) divided by VETA. The Lake Zone is comprised of Mwanza Region as well as two other regions, Kagera and Mara, which are visible in the map of Tanzania, as presented in Figure 6.

After the first step, the next step, taking stock, was begun. In this step, where MHCC presently stands was defined. The first part of taking stock included the listing of 10 current key activities, crucial to the functioning of MHCC. Before the



listing of these activities, all the empowerment evaluation participants were placed in five subgroups by the facilitators. Group 1 consisted of four committee members. Four management group members represented Group 2, while five teachers formed Group 3. Six craft persons formed Group 4, and four guards and one cook were placed in Group 5. After the groups were formed, papers were distributed to each group with their group number and the following instruction: “List the 10 most significant, current key activities, crucial to the functioning of the programme. Keep in mind its vision.” Then, after this group work and all participants of the five groups gathered together. The key activities of MHCC as identified by each of these teams were summarised one by one and written on the blackboard by the facilitator of each group. Thus, as the result of this group gathering a list involving 20 activities was generated. This process was assisted by the English teacher, who wrote down the common list both in English and Swahili on the poster. This record was based on the common negotiation and suggestions made by the workshop participants and facilitators.



**Figure 24.** The empowerment evaluation process of MHCC in 2006 (Pylvänäinen 2006)

Thereafter, the 10 most important activities for meriting evaluation of MHCC at that time were prioritised and determined based on the generated list of 20 activities created by the five groups. This took place by voting with five red dot stickers. Each workshop participant was asked to place these dots given by the facilitator on the activity which they wanted specifically to focus on either by distributing these

stickers either across five different activities or placing them all on one activity (Figure 24). All dots were then counted, and the number of given dots marked.<sup>1005</sup>

On the grounds of dots given, a prioritised activity list was formed below, meriting evaluation at that time.

2. Advertisement (matangazo)	11
4. Qualified products (bidhaa bora)	9
3. Planning (mipango)	11
Skilled trainers (wakufunzi wenye ujuzi)	1
Income generating activities (vitegea uchumi)	3
8. Production (uzalishaji)	5
6. Equipment (vitendea kazi)	6
10. Cooperation (ushirikiano)	5
Training (mafunzo)	4
9. Skilled crafters (mafundi wenye ujuzi)	5
Commitment (kujitoa kwa moyo ->kujituma)	4
Staff training (mafunzo kwa wafanyakazi)	4
Monitoring (ufuatiliaji)->evaluation (tathmini)	4
1. Administration (uongozi)	14
Rewarding system (utoaji fuzo)	3
5. Marketing (ufomo wa masoko)	9
Selection criteria (vigezo vya kuchagua wanafunzi kujiunga)	0
7. Finance management (usimamizi wa fedha)	6
Human resource management (usimamizi wa raslimali – watu)	1

In the next phase, each participant rated how well they are doing in each activity at MHCC on a scale of one to ten. The number ten being the highest level (strong) and one the lowest (weak, which required a substantial amount of development). Thereafter, each participant was handed a form with the number of the participant and the following columns: the number of activities, a ranking scale and reasons for giving a certain ranking and clarification of strengths or weaknesses lying behind the given ranking of the activity in question. After writing their ratings on the piece of paper, all participants were asked to come and record their ratings on a poster.<sup>1006</sup> Based on these ratings, a matrix was produced, as Figure 25 shows.

After ranking, the key part of empowerment evaluation took place: dialogue. The facilitator went through each activity by asking the highest and lowest results given in each participant’s ranking, as well as reasons for the given figures. In this

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<sup>1005</sup> see e.g., Fetterman 2001, 25

<sup>1006</sup> see e.g., Fetterman 2001, 28

discussion, not only were very sensitive issues raised, which needed to be improved upon, but the strengths of MHCC were also clarified.

ACTIVITIES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1. ADMINISTRATION	5	7	8	10	10	10	10	9	6	10	8	7	10	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
2. ADVERTISEMENT	3	4	7	10	2	10	6	9	3	7	8	4	2	9	7	6	4	6	10	1	3
3. PLANNING	7	7	9	7	6	8	10	10	6	8	9	7	5	9	8	7	8	7	7	4	1
4. QUALITY PRODUCTS	5	6	10	7	1	7	9	7	7	10	6	8	6	9	7	5	6	8	2	7	8
5. MARKETING	5	5	10	10	1	4	4	10	2	7	6	4	3	10	5	7	8	5	5	3	4
6. EQUIPMENTS	4	5	10	2	1	1	3	9	5	2	5	4	6	4	5	7	7	4	6	6	9
7. FINANCE MANAGEM.	8	8	9	3	10	5	5	5	8	5	8	8	10	9	10	10	7	8	4	8	3
8. PRODUCTION	7	5	10	7	4	6	2	6	6	4	7	5	7	6	8	5	10	8	8	5	10
9. SKILLED CRAFTERS	6	6	7	3	4	7	8	9	6	5	6	6	7	2	5	6	6	5	2	7	1
10. COOPERATION	2	7	6	4	2	3	9	6	5	3	5	9	7	10	6	6	8	5	2	6	2

Figure 25. The matrix of 21 MHCC personnel on 10 the most prioritised MHCC activities with rates 1–10 (Pylvänäinen 2006)

The last step taken focussed on planning MHCC’s future. The 21 workshop participants were placed in the same five groups as at the beginning of the workshop, and they were given the next task: goal setting for the VET centre. The following questions were posed: “Where do you want to go?” Then, strategies were to be developed by asking: “How can we reach the goal?” Finally, a means of documentation (measurement metrics) was selected to monitor progress toward the goals set by asking: “How do we monitor the progress towards the goal prioritised?” Then, three activities among ten of the most highly prioritised activities from the list were chosen by the facilitator for further examination. This selection was applied to three illustrations: the activity of the first rank, administration; the activity ranked in the middle of the list, viz. production; and last, the lowest ranked activity, equipment. Development and planning of these activities were given as a demonstration and training to employ empowerment evaluation as a tool.

As the outcome of group works a matrix was made on the blackboard. Then, Group 1 came and wrote their goal set, strategies made and measurement metrics for the activity of administration. Their exact wording of the goal is as follows: “the improved communication among staff members, customers, partners, related institutions and other stakeholders nationwide in year 2010.” Their strategies planned included work plans, hierarchy improvement, communication, workshops, and exchange of ideas when visiting these other places. The members wanted to

document the progress made through monitoring tools, reports, and customer feedback.

The management group members set the goal for administration. Their goal was “to strengthen leadership.” Their possible strategies included “doing team work;” “to get teaching in leadership;” and “working with openness and by sharing.” The progress towards the goal made, as they put it, could be charted based on “regular meetings (to report and inform each other);” “follow-ups of the work quality;” and “shared responsibilities.” All participants were then given a chance to exchange their ideas concerning the future planning of administration of MHCC. After this demonstration, the group discussed a lot and decided to use job descriptions as evidence.

The next activity, selected from the list as an example, was equipment. Group 2 set the goal for undertaking this task. They formulated it in the following way: “to improve working tools on the grounds of the market needs.” They decided that more training, and tools as well, were needed. Their strategies were “to get training on working tools” and to get “enough tools.” Evidence for keeping track of progress towards the goal was possible if “the assistance is got from them who are concerned” and “possible loans and assistance are received.”

The third activity selected for future development was production. The crafters, as the members of the Group 4, wrote their goal, strategies and documentation for the topic of production on the board as follows: “to work more effortlessly and with a new speed” as well as “to do works appreciated in the market.” They linked marketing and economics strongly to production and named two strategies to be followed which have impact on production. These strategies were “to find markets” and “to improve economy.” To them the progress made in production could be documented by monitoring “financial reports” and “the number of new products created by us at MHCC per year.”

We turn now to a consideration of what evaluation impacts have been identified in the evaluation experiment at MHCC. In this analysis, the first, second and third thematic interviews, group interview, as well as feedback questionnaires were used as data sources and qualitative content analysis as a method. The coding category for the content analysis was designed by utilising the findings of Amo and Cousins, Kirkhart, as well as Mark and Henry,<sup>1007</sup> as Table 8 showed. It summarised the types and levels of evaluation impacts and the coding framework employed in this research.

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<sup>1007</sup> Amo & Cousins 2007; Kirkhart 2000, 7; 2005; 2011, 74–75; Mark & Henry 2004, 41

## 4.4.2 Evaluation impacts: What changed?

Under the following sub-headings, the main levels and types of evaluation impacts recognised are tackled. These findings are derived from the evaluation experiment at MHCC and based on this analysis of the research question, as follows: How were impacts of the evaluation experiment carried out manifested at the personal, interpersonal and collective levels of the lives of evaluation participants?

### 4.4.2.1 Individual evaluation impacts

Characteristically, individual evaluation impacts took place within a single evaluation participant. These impacts originated either from using evaluation findings and/or processes. In this research, these impacts were observed from the viewpoints of various multi-stakeholders of the VET case. These persons, from whose perspectives these impacts were dealt with, represented such participant groups as MHCC graduates, staff and committee members, the parents and employers of the graduates, as well as the VET officials. Let us examine these individual evaluation impacts more closely. We begin by focussing on cognitive evaluation impacts which were greatly contributed to by evaluation utilisation.

*Cognitive evaluation impacts.* Some of the former students of MHCC, as quoted below, expressed that through evaluation they have gained “mwanga.”<sup>1008</sup> This happened as a result of being involved in the evaluation experiment, the evaluation process, which took place at MHCC. To clarify, to those who used this Swahili word “mwanga”, this expression illustrated enlightenment while being engaged in evaluation and knowledge gained via learning in evaluation. Therefore, evaluation was viewed by these former students as a means of assisting them in the process of learning to learn. Furthermore, evaluation use assisted them making cognitive changes, including adopting new ways to think, such as thinking in the evaluative way. One of the graduates explained that he has received this “light,” referring to learning and awareness-raising regarding evaluation, while another graduate stated the evaluation produced an increase in her energy level and striving.

Thanks to this research. Firstly, through it I received light, “mwanga”. The second point is that I could learn very much about this research and I think how we’ll continue applying this [the evaluation].<sup>1009</sup>

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<sup>1008</sup> The Swahili term “Mwanga” means light (Abdulla, Halme, Harjula & Pesari-Pajunen 2002, 175).

<sup>1009</sup> GI3, M

... I received light, “mwanga”. I have more energy and I put more effort into these matters which I know.<sup>1010</sup>

In terms of the MHCC staff and committee members, they generally valued the evaluation knowledge gained. A number of things resulted from this evaluation, including improved evaluation capacity and increased knowledge acquisition about a person’s own doings and achievements, as revealed in the next sentences.

Value of this evaluation, it is, is really important. ... it makes you to realise clearly what you have achieved and what you have failed to achieve ...reveals your failures and successes. The evaluation encourages as well. ... It works, it can call forth an interest ... Then with the evaluation, so you might discover that what you are doing is ineffective. Then you must sit down and think it over again. But if you continue without evaluating you can find yourself going awry, not knowing that you have failed somewhere or that you have made mistakes somewhere, yeah.<sup>1011</sup>

Again, evaluation could be an effective tool for reflection as well as for development and improvement of the activities provided that it is used for this purpose, and that it is used appropriately. Hence, one of MHCC’s male workers expressed this reflective role of evaluation research to himself and the organisation as follows:

... a mirror to me and NVTC [MHCC].<sup>1012</sup>

These staff and committee representatives understood while holding the first seminar and workshop at MHCC that evaluation could be used as a tool for adaptation and development of practices at the VET centre. They realised also along with the evaluation conducted that evaluation played a vital role in the improvement of VET activities and development of the VET institution as well. The evaluation experiment established that awareness and knowledge about evaluation issues and concepts can be increased while evaluating. In addition, individual cognitive changes were gained through evaluative training and evaluation practices conducted in cooperation with evaluation stakeholders and the facilitator. Through evaluation, a greater reactivity was gained in such issues as working conditions and challenges met in the environment, as the second and third quotations below indicate.

... to get knowledge, guidance given by the facilitators encouraged me. Regarding my work, I learnt how I could be innovative, cooperative and be demand-driven. How to give a ranking [refers to the empowerment evaluation seminar and workshop and

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<sup>1010</sup> GI10, F

<sup>1011</sup> TI2nd14, M, 1023–1031

<sup>1012</sup> TI3rd2, M. NVTC [MHCC] = Nyakato Vocational Training Centre (NVTC 2014).

its cooperation] with groups such as the committee, board, management, instructors (walimu), craftsmen (mafundi). Congratulations!<sup>1013</sup>

This seminar was important to me. I learned new things which I did not know earlier. For instance, [the evaluation] can contribute to various matters, such as development, which can be promoted. Really, this seminar has helped me much to realise my chance got to develop the centre. And what is unique, it will assist me to do work, to work harder in my job — to keep in my mind the goal set and its achievement at the level that the centre would become the best centre in Lake Zone.<sup>1014</sup>

The results of the evaluation seminar for me ... first, I began to realise our shortages which we had and then, what should be done to fill these gaps.<sup>1015</sup>

To evaluate, it is good to evaluate. To check what is wrong and to adjust, hmmm ... And also, after an evaluation to think and realise what is going on or to find a solution to it, you see.<sup>1016</sup>

Two of those staff working at MHCC found that positive cognitive changes had taken place with these evaluation processes in which they had been able to participate. Both teachers became more enlightened and more conscious than they had been earlier of the visible and direct results that their behaviour and teaching can generate and produce. One of the instructors mentioned that he became more aware of the quality of his teaching and the identifiable consequences of his teaching proficiency. Furthermore, he gained a better understanding of his own central position as a role model for the students at MHCC.

Both teachers involved in evaluation comprehended that learning results were dependent on their teaching style, responsibilities and duties carried out, as well as the teaching methods used. Moreover, both perceived cognitively that such changes as to apply better didactic approaches, to have a clear teaching schedule and to have adequate preparedness for teaching sessions, were needed, as the teacher expresses in the second citation below.

I became more aware of my work. I realised that I need to take my teaching very seriously, for its outcomes are visible outside, for example, the negative results of my teaching. If I taught well I would build good future prospects for students' lives. I understood that I should be well-prepared and study more as well as know what I am going to teach. I realised that my personal behaviour is very important.<sup>1017</sup>

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<sup>1013</sup> FQ2, F

<sup>1014</sup> FQ13, M

<sup>1015</sup> FQ14, M

<sup>1016</sup> TI2nd3, M, 660–662

<sup>1017</sup> TI3rd1, M

It [the seminar and workshop] helped me to understand how to improve, how to do your work in a reliable way and how to be energetic as well as search different methods of organising the most effective [named a VET subject] lessons.<sup>1018</sup>

*Behavioural evaluation impacts.* When referring to behavioural evaluation impacts taken place at the individual level, then individual changes in a person's practices, actions and behaviour, as well in utilisation of evaluation skills were noticed. As a result of active and personal participation in evaluation processes, the evaluative mindset received a boost in these individuals.

One of the concrete actions which had its origin in MHCC's evaluation experiment was mentioned by one of MHCC's staff members. This was a self-evaluation carried out in the suburbs of Mwanza city with some employers of non-trained Tanzanian youngsters. This private "charting" concentrated on the actual needs of these young persons in their duties working in the informal sector. This concrete accomplishment was worded by the male teacher as follows:

So, I went to ... to do my own study, when I saw problems of unskilled, young boys in the private workshops, so called "Jua Kali" workshops. So, I went to interview six employers at Nyakato, Ilemela, Airport, National, etc. I asked why the number of unskilled boys is growing. The problem is money. They are so poor. Their measurement skills are poor, the quality of their work is poor, also principles of how to do work. And handling of tools, occupational safety and communication with customers are poor.<sup>1019</sup>

All in all, participation in evaluation processes of the evaluation experiment at MHCC, as seen in the quotations below, activated the employees of MHCC. Consequently, they made self-assessments, dealt more deeply with the quality of their work, followed up on it and observed its results, as well as made improvements in their behaviour where there was room to do so.

I understood that I should be well-prepared and study more in order to know what I am going to teach. I know that my personal behaviour is very important.<sup>1020</sup>

This [evaluation] helped me in my carpentry work to understand where I am, and to make greater efforts to adjust my working [woodworks] to be in line with the present market situation.<sup>1021</sup>

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<sup>1018</sup> FQ10, F

<sup>1019</sup> TI3rd1, M

<sup>1020</sup> TI3rd1, M

<sup>1021</sup> FQ11, M



The seminar which was organised was good in my opinion. It mobilised me and put more my effort into my teaching work.<sup>1022</sup>

.. a case in point is that we didn't keep our students' enrolment register. Again, we haven't been aware of its importance, that it is a very important thing to be kept. But during this evaluation I got a lesson. For example, if you are an outsider, maybe an external inspector, and you need some information from a student. ... And now I myself maybe I would try to advise the Academic Master that we should have, have special files for Trade Test results, special files for names of graduates and maybe special files for other information of the former students, because now we have met a challenge. It seems that we didn't take care of this issue. So, this is one of these advantages, which caused some changes, — of these challenges which need to be met here.<sup>1023</sup>

From my viewpoint this seminar meant a lot because it has helped me to do my work by setting goals and by searching methods for running my centre.<sup>1024</sup>

The evaluation at MHCC was a display of professional growth. Encouraging signs were identified. First, the staff clearly mentioned and identified how the evaluation helped to develop them. Second, they noticed a decrease in their work load with this experiment. This was confirmed by the management as well, when these persons stated that they “became more empowered” due to the evaluation. These workers felt that evaluation had given them a clearer mandate to make decisions, despite the truth that these persons already had full responsibility and official power to make decisions inside the organisation. These very same persons expressed the discovery of more inner strength to take a more powerful and committed stand on decisions taken from the results of evaluation. These evaluation outcomes helped direct MHCC towards the desired path set by the management. These research results strengthened the backbones of MHCC's leaders by assisting them to become stronger managers and stand firm over their decisions made in the VET centre.

One of MHCC's staff members explained these positive, concrete, behavioural results of evaluation which took place at the individual level among MHCC workers, as follows:

... they were very glad, then, very, very pleased as well. Almost all of them [MHCC staff members] with whom I discussed they enjoyed a lot. First, because these [the evaluation] questions posed generated development among them. Likewise, it [the evaluation] perhaps reduced my workload, because they realised that these findings made by the others [e.g., by the researcher] on some matters [referring to his own

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<sup>1022</sup> FQ12, M

<sup>1023</sup> TI2nd4, M, 1312–1322

<sup>1024</sup> FQ10, F

decisions] paralleled. So, there were many things which encouraged me somehow. You [referring to himself] felt yourself like you were renewed again.<sup>1025</sup>

*Affective evaluation impacts.* Many graduates described themselves as having become empowered, as they spoke about the affective evaluation impacts that had taken place in their individual lives as participants, especially as a consequence of being involved in these evaluation processes. The following quotations reveal strong positive affections and feelings resulting from evaluation involvement. The graduates of MHCC explained feelings such as happiness, freedom, and helpfulness, and linked these affections to evaluation processes and involvement in these evaluative operations. These following passages describe these graduates' desire and passion for using their evaluative and professional skills for the further progression and development of VET at MHCC.

I felt good as I could share many things which I had in my heart, which I did not know where I could share them... therefore, I felt fine after having a possibility to participate in sharing my ideas to them who have responsibilities for the centre and our centre's development.<sup>1026</sup>

The very same person continued by telling about her joyfulness and the situation that triggered it: the opportunity to present her thoughts with the group a second time, and to generate ideas which would be useful.

... this research made me happy, when they provided me an opportunity to share my thoughts which I had. These [thoughts] which could develop the centre by increasing those things which have decreased<sup>1027</sup>.

The other male graduate also felt strong emotions with his personal engagement in evaluation. He described how much it meant to him, during the evaluation, to introduce his workplace and job to his former VET instructors at MHCC, when they came and visited his workplace. Second, he mentioned that having his former instructors be involved caused him to feel deep affections. This engagement and experience of appreciation showed by MHCC made him feel emotionally free after getting the chance to openly express his views on VET at MHCC. He put his feelings into words in the following way:

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<sup>1025</sup> TI2nd1b, M, 48–52

<sup>1026</sup> TI1st1, T, F, 2525–2526, 2529–2531

<sup>1027</sup> GI10, F

I'm very, very happy. I don't know how to explain my happiness. But I am very happy for this. You should know this. And yesterday I spoke with my wife. I told her something what happened. What happened it was the first time in my life. Yeah, my teachers came to visit my job. And they wanted to know what I was doing. I am very happy for this. You see. So, therefore I can say that I am free. And I can be cooper... I can do anything to cooperate with you [the centre]. If you need me, I will be here for helping you in anything you... yeah, yeah, I can tell.<sup>1028</sup>

Skepticism towards the whole evaluation practice was expressed by one graduate who was involved in the evaluation processes of MHCC. He took a cynical view, as seen below, that the method used in evaluation utilisation might be inadequate or useless as a method to meet the targets set for evaluation.

I don't know much about your ideas. What do you want to do? ... but I am sure that there [at MHCC] are matters that need to be changed. Could they be changed by using this method [the evaluation]?<sup>1029</sup>

The staff of MHCC showed a very positive attitude towards the evaluation experiment conducted. Positive feelings such as happiness, satisfaction, encouragement, refreshment or enjoyment were recognised among MHCC workers and leaders. They explained that the affective evaluation impacts gained resulted from the evaluation experiment carried out. Based on the evaluation experiment, one of MHCC's leaders illustrated and characterised the benefit gained from evaluation with strong words "it broadened me. I became more."

Ok. We benefitted a lot. First, maybe I would say from my point of view that it broadened my mind. I became somehow more. So thus, I would like to do all these things now, but I should do an evaluation first. Then, I try to be your follower [referred to the researcher]. So, if you would succeed you got many things.<sup>1030</sup>

Again, another leader of MHCC provided clear evidence of how he thought that his work load reduced owing to evaluation. This welcomed change made him feel encouraged and refreshed, as presented earlier in footnote 1025.

A craftsman and a teacher both found affective impacts such as personal growth and empowerment, flexibility, transparency and firmness, as well as self-confidence for the future, all taken place due to participation in evaluation.

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<sup>1028</sup> TI1st4, W&F, M, 2030–2036

<sup>1029</sup> TI1st3, C&J, M, 2473–2474, 2503–2504

<sup>1030</sup> TI2nd1b, M, 9–14

As a craftsman, I could participate with my suggestions and with my needs as a craftsman. I could explain shortages such as current working tools and so on.<sup>1031</sup>

I agree the evaluation on 2<sup>nd</sup> January 2006, it brought forth an evaluative mind; how to be flexible, transparent — with determination.<sup>1032</sup>

One of the teachers continued that realising the exceptionally good level and quantity of theoretical teaching as well as practical training, the uncommonly large number of tools, equipment and practical teaching aids and the facilities which MHCC had, even being above the average levels of the surrounding VET centres, gave more courage and confidence.

NVTC [MHCC] is different than other centres due to its teaching and environment. We have more workshops/equipment: e.g., one sewing machine per student. The students get more practical training than in other centres.<sup>1033</sup>

Additionally, some individual attitude changes were detected with evaluation. Feelings such as professional growth and work appreciation, as well as morale-boosting were mentioned. Also, evaluation was seen and has operated as the motivator and energizer, which has led to work improvement and moral improvement — trustworthiness, as another teacher reported.

The seminar helped me to appreciate my work and to do my work with trustworthiness and energy for my centre.<sup>1034</sup>

The professional growth taken place was said to be a consequence of evaluation. For instance, evaluation developed the staff, who were very pleased and glad about it. Simultaneously, the work load of the management decreased after getting more strength from the results of evaluation. These positive outcomes reassured the management of MHCC and contributed positively to the creation of new promising feelings among them, as expressed earlier, see footnote 1025.

Another leader of MHCC also expressed his high appreciation towards evaluation. Again, he stressed its necessity and emphasised its importance.

Really it is, the evaluation is needed, is, is needed, not only needed, it's very important, because it will reveal you, where you come from, where you are and what you should

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<sup>1031</sup> FQ14, M

<sup>1032</sup> FQ3, F

<sup>1033</sup> FQ3, F; TI3rd3, F

<sup>1034</sup> FQ10, F

do in the future. This is very important. The evaluation is very important to be done ... but yearly.<sup>1035</sup>

One of the teachers observed that evaluation had boosted his morale. As a result of this he showed practically his considerable enthusiasm by using evaluations skills gained in the evaluation process by carrying out his own evaluation in private workshops, as the following quotation (used also earlier), reveals.

I got moral support to do my own study when I saw problems of unskilled young boys in the private workshops.<sup>1036</sup>

Understandably, despite the strong approval of evaluation among MHCC staff and committee members, naturally there was resistance as well. One opposing voice reached the ears of the researcher. This negative attitude was expressed by one MHCC worker directly to one of the leaders, not to the researcher herself, for this reason, no explanation for his resistance to evaluation was given.

I heard one negative feedback. ... I don't know his viewpoint, why he viewed so. But it was the only person who in our discussions was against this [the evaluation]. It was only one person.<sup>1037</sup>

#### 4.4.2.2 Interpersonal evaluation impacts

Interpersonal or group impacts represented evaluation impacts that took place in exchange between two or more persons involved in the evaluation of MHCC. In my categorisation, at least one of these participants should have been a representative of MHCC at the time of evaluation. Evaluation impacts such as relationships, networks, and partnerships were investigated at the interpersonal level. First, linkages are dealt with from the viewpoint of cognitive evaluation impacts.

*Cognitive evaluation impacts.* As the result of cooperation and sharing ideas and views, the participants of the seminars provided an explanation of how practical know-how was given and could be utilised. A case in point was a suggestion of how to provide capital for fulfilling the shortage of practical teaching equipment made by one of the seminar leaders and counselling given in evaluation from the researcher. This male teacher reported that,

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<sup>1035</sup> TI2nd2, M, 1056–1059

<sup>1036</sup> TI3rd1, M

<sup>1037</sup> TI2nd1b, 39–40

We got some ideas from [a name of a person] how we could solve our problem of lacking tools and equipment.<sup>1038</sup>

We got good counselling from you [referring to the researcher].<sup>1039</sup>

If observing the diffusion of evaluation into the surrounding community that originated from evaluation the other case in point was explained by one of the overseers of MHCC being involved in the evaluation process. He wanted to set targets for the future of his own and family life, as well as for the work of MHCC and the local NGO, FPCT.

It made me personally to understand that I ought to have plans; for instance, to have my own “mission and vision” for leading my family and for my work as the [possession mentioned] of the NVTC’s [MHCC] committee and as the coordinator of evangelisation and mission in our church FPCT as well.<sup>1040</sup>

*Behavioural evaluation impacts.* MHCC graduates expressed very clearly their high appreciation of all the respect accorded them by the researcher. The first reason was an exceptional opportunity offered to them to collaborate with MHCC staff, leaders and its committee members, for the future development of MHCC and its VET through evaluation. The second issue was treating all participants as equals. This offered to students possibilities for sharing and making their professional expertise known. In addition, the meeting with MHCC staff members was significant and important for MHCC graduates, especially when the representatives of MHCC remembered, identified them and even visited some of their homesteads personally.

... first this research has made me very happy, I did not expect that I could meet again the teacher who was our centre’s Principal. And he could even recognise me, even could come to visit my place where I am living.<sup>1041</sup>

Among MHCC staff members, an interest in further training, learning and knowing more about evaluation and its practical implementation was expressed. Some of the evaluation participants were emphatic that evaluation activities should go on, even if they asked the researcher to offer more assistance in this area in the future.

It would be great to us to get another chance to learn these things later again.<sup>1042</sup>

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<sup>1038</sup> FQ1, M

<sup>1039</sup> FQ14, M

<sup>1040</sup> FQ5, M

<sup>1041</sup> GI11, M

<sup>1042</sup> FQ5, M

I ask that time after time that it [an evaluation seminar] should be reorganised.<sup>1043</sup>

The seminar mattered a lot. Again, I recommend that this system should continue and needs to be done because it challenges to do better this work than has done before in our centre.<sup>1044</sup>

We request your assistance to deal with all these results which we went through. Let us begin immediately to fulfil them [needs]; of each person in her/his section or work.<sup>1045</sup>

I recommend that another seminar would be organised, and a longer period would be used so that we could discuss and go through all given opinions.<sup>1046</sup>

With evaluation, some participants were more engaged with each other than before the evaluation. A case in point was the participant who received a morale boost for collaboration from evaluation, as clarified in the following passage.

It [evaluation research] encouraged me to cooperate.<sup>1047</sup>

I went to interview six employers.<sup>1048</sup>

*Affective evaluation impacts.* In terms of affective evaluation impacts recognisable at the collective level, impacts such as preparedness to dialogue with externals was commonly noted. Those people involved in evaluation began to empathise with their co-partners. More emphasis was especially put on the perspectives and attitudes of these other participants, as well as the views of unemployed graduates.

Particularly, the former students and their parents appreciated attentiveness to their views and the value shown from the side of MHCC. The next accounts were recorded from the talks of two former student interviewees, and one answer was received from one of the parents participating in the group interview.

... to know that these who taught me they still care me. Therefore, I have been very pleased about noticing this thing, for I did not believe to meet them during my life time again. Therefore, I thank them a lot.<sup>1049</sup>

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<sup>1043</sup> FQ7, M

<sup>1044</sup> FQ8, M

<sup>1045</sup> FQ11, M

<sup>1046</sup> FQ13, M

<sup>1047</sup> TI3rd3, F

<sup>1048</sup> TI3rd1, M

<sup>1049</sup> GI3, M

... to give a chance to people and to their opinions. To see how they understand that what you are doing. Then you might have forgotten something. You may not know, what is needed or not needed, but it can be brought up.<sup>1050</sup>

I have rejoiced over this research ... I mean these acts when my children were met, when they [the researcher and the research assistant, group members] provided opportunities for discussion with them as well as with us, the parents as well. These things made us become very happy. This meant that in this centre you have loving hearts.<sup>1051</sup>

Evaluation also made the staff members of MHCC better prepared for dialogue with external stakeholders, like VETA, on quality assurance questions. This was demonstrated when VETA requested MHCC begin a follow-up process. A passage from one MHCC teacher, who pointed out the impact, is below quoted.

In 2004, VETA asked us to do follow-up of our students. Your research helped us, for we were prepared. After your research we got in our school an idea to implement a follow-up programme for our students. Finally, after this research we were encouraged to go and see some students who were working. Also, when we realised that some of our graduates did not have work, we began to improve our teaching.<sup>1052</sup>

*Social evaluation impacts.* Interpersonal social evaluation impacts, such as rebuilding relationships between the leadership of MHCC and its former students, were one of the results of the work performed by the mediator. The researcher assisted both partners in becoming reconnected with each other and to rebuild networks as well as to recreate relationships. Themes such as development of professional networks with former students and stronger relationships with their employers as well as an increased engagement in the field were set high on the future agenda of MHCC, when planning areas that ought to be strengthened. Due to this evaluation conducted at MHCC one of its leaders expressed these needs in the following way.

...from the second point of view, from the centre's viewpoint, first, it encouraged us, because you tried to discuss with so many students whose life situation we didn't know. But you have travelled around, and you have seen where they are, what they are doing. Now even VETA has advised us to make [for MHCC graduates' a follow-up]. From them [VETA] we got a piece of advice to do this kind of thing. Therefore, from this standpoint you helped us. This is one thing. The other is that with these students who graduated from here, it is like, you have connected us with them again.

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<sup>1050</sup> TI2nd14, M, 1036–1039

<sup>1051</sup> GI11, F

<sup>1052</sup> TI3rd1, M



It indicates that we care them. In other words, you have done, ... you have linked us with them again. It shows that we are people who care them.<sup>1053</sup>

Since the inauguration of MHCC up to the mid-1990s, students had had a compulsory two or three-month long field training period. This on-the-job training was conducted in local factories or workshops, which naturally resulted in close and intensive co-operative relationships between the employers and MHCC teaching staff. However, after the termination of foreign funds, some savings were needed to be made to ensure MHCC's survival. One of those changes was to bring students' practical training into MHCC's own workshops, which weakened the relationships and networks established with local employers operating in the surrounding environment. With this evaluation experiment, once again, the importance of closer relationships between employers and the teaching staff of MHCC showed up and in consequence, networking with workplaces has started afresh and intensified, as explained below.

Our teachers usually visit workshops outside MHCC to improve our quality. For example, from the carpentry department they, the teacher and the students, have made excursions, have gone to follow carpenters' work in a factory. Also, tailoring students visited with their teachers in a fabric shop in Ilemela.<sup>1054</sup>

To conclude, external relationships were strengthened and valued more than before at MHCC. One of these effective, new channels which was utilised in bringing MHCC's education to public attention and creating reputation for its VET was the media. MHCC and its branches of studies were advertised and presented on national Tanzanian television. After generating media interest on national TV, the VET centre has become better recognised country-wide and new customers were drawn in.

After the name change, we got one more change. It [MHCC] become known nationwide. For example, last year we got the reporter from TVT. They came here to do interviews by starting from the Principal, management and going to some students by asking how they felt their studies. We were exposed in TV. ... We get customers all over the country. We are famous throughout the country. It was the first time for us to have been shown in TV.<sup>1055</sup>

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<sup>1053</sup> TI2nd1b, M, 15-24

<sup>1054</sup> TI3rd1, M

<sup>1055</sup> TI3rd1, M

#### 4.4.2.3 Collective evaluation impacts

These collective evaluation impacts covered cognitive, behavioural, affective, social, economic and cultural impacts. They were derived from evaluation knowledge, skills, expertise, emotions, feelings, relationships, networks, as well as economic and cultural consequences. Again, they were created as a result of cooperation with and among evaluation participants. These collective impacts referred to such evaluation impacts which were *seen* in these operating partners engaged in evaluation as: a programme, an intervention, an institution, an organisation, or a policy evaluated.

*Cognitive evaluation impacts.* The evaluation process provided an important forum for discussion and debate. This opportunity was given not only to MHCC staff and its committee members, but also its former students, their parents and their employers as well as external VET officials. Let us get started by dealing with these cognitive evaluation impacts reflected at MHCC and its VET programme as a result of the evaluation experiment, as expressed by MHCC graduates or their parents. With the assistance of evaluation, the graduates of MHCC and their parents brought into awareness things which required modification. First, many evaluation participants of these groups stressed a need for opening new fields of training at MHCC. In fact, this topic was regularly brought up in meetings over the course of the evaluation experiment. After closing the cookery department in 1988, three departments have been operating: tailoring, welding and fabrication, and carpentry and joinery. All these departments were needed and wished to be continued at MHCC, as the graduates summarised, although many had pros and cons. Besides these current departments, training fields such as ship building, electrical installation, building, painting, cookery, catering, business skills, computer, driving, and motor vehicle mechanics, were mentioned as being necessary.

The tailoring field is still seen to offer self-employment prospects everywhere in Tanzania. By learning this trade, Tanzanian women can earn their living both in rural and urban areas. Tanzanian customs and habits favour, for example, the use of many types of uniforms. Regardless of very few full-time paid employment opportunities existing for tailors in Tanzania, and of the vast number of tailors in many towns, including those without education or certificates, which contribute to productive work in tailoring being more challenging in the future, it still offers good opportunities to go into business.

Male students who graduated from the carpentry and joinery department regarded their department as the best selection. Some reasons for this were given. Specifically, in their opinion, carpentry training offered the best start-up in business

in the rural areas having no electricity. To them it was the quickest and easiest way to go into business for the self-employed. Furthermore, the carpenters viewed that purchasing material (e.g., timber) needed in the wood industry was easier and less expensive in rural areas than in towns and city centres.

On the contrary, welding and fabrication training was most efficient in the urban areas in Tanzania. This business requires electricity which is unavailable in the country's rural areas. Thus, in some remote areas running this welding and fabrication business as a self-employed craftsman would become unreasonably expensive, if you had to put into operation a generator and transport all the material needed from towns. However, more work opportunities are available for welders in the Tanzanian job-hunting market than for tailoring or carpentry trades, due to more factories operating and offering employment opportunities, as the next interviewee expresses.

I knew that welding and fabrication was a very good ... to have this technical knowledge, because now... we are living in the different world ... people can learn even on the streets how to do work [referred to the carpentry]. But welding is different; if you start on the street and then you go on a company, on the street there is no welding machine such as a MIG-machine, they don't have... then you cannot operate with these machines, you see. I decided to take this course, because I knew that maybe later in the future this will be a good thing for me. And now, it has happened.<sup>1056</sup>

Second, the importance of dormitories for students' performance was stressed. The graduates of MHCC together with their parents living far away from the VET institution brought up the practical necessity of reopening the boarding system. This form of accommodation was mentioned to be a major requirement for those VET students recruited outside the Mwanza city centre. This form of student housing has been closed on economic grounds in 1995, as it was a financial burden, and was seen to weaken the VET centre's chance of survival and self-sufficiency. Precisely, nine of the 11 graduates engaged in the first thematic interview suggested that dormitories should have been reopened. Both female and male interviewees spoke on behalf of students moving to study VET from different regions of Tanzania to Nyakato, Mwanza. These former students and their parents' needs and desires for housing services being offered at MHCC again were supported by the VET officials as well. They argued that the current day school system did not favour students living outside Mwanza Region to apply to study at MHCC. Second, travel for female students was particularly problematic and time-consuming, for they had to wait longer to get

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<sup>1056</sup> TI1st4, W&F, M, 348–356

public transport. Moreover, living outside the centre narrowed their educational opportunities, because they had to be active in household services at their homes more than their male siblings. Accordingly, living in a boarding school would have offered the female students more time for studying than studying in a day school system. This might influence their educational performance as well.

There were some subjects which were especially emphasised in VET based on the evaluation. They were English and business training. For instance, all 11 graduates who entered the first thematic interviews stressed the growing importance of English in their line of business. All of them reckoned that the level of teaching in English has been insufficient at MHCC when comparing it with the needs of the labour market. They did not refer to the official syllabus or to set objectives but saw that more knowledge and language skills in English were required at that time in the labour market. These graduates recommended English teaching be increased at MHCC. Extra evening courses on English were suggested to be offered or the quality of English lessons could be improved. This last option was mentioned by the majority of graduates. In practice, the graduates requested more intensive concentration on teaching English while studying, both its general and professional vocabularies, so that they could practice this type of language used in their technical fields and professional domains.

The importance of Swahili was admitted as well, especially among those students whose backgrounds were in primary education. They emphasised the need for Swahili teaching and its role as a teaching language. Swahili was seen as crucial and necessary, specifically when teaching new, theoretical issues. In addition, more marketing skills and business studies were requested to be included in the study programme of MHCC. This was explained by all female graduates (N = 4) and one male graduate. Two of the former students recommended launching lessons regarding innovativeness as its own subject. Technical drawing was seen to be very important for metalworkers and carpenters, therefore, it was recommended to be increased. Similarly, more drawing studies were regarded important for tailors. Besides, more field trips and field training were needed and expected to be done.

End-of-training tests were also discussed with the former students. Generally, the students of MHCC have taken part in the national test, Trade Test Grade III in the final phase of their 2-year-long studies. Basing on the results of the first thematic interviews, all the male graduates (N = 4) who had worked with several industrial companies suggested that the Trade Test should be organised once a year instead of every second year, as this would improve their possibilities of entering more easily into the labour market. Another development idea was linked to the name of MHCC.

Some former students expressed in their interviews that the name of MHCC was confusing. Thus, the institution needed to be renamed. This topic is dealt with further in footnotes 1082–1086 and 1096–1098. Next, we consider collective cognitive evaluation impacts from the perspectives of MHCC staff. We look at how the evaluation process and use assisted MHCC personnel to find collectively shared meanings, understanding and priorities.

The evaluation data indicated that the quality of education provided at MHCC was reflected in the evaluation. Not only did the teaching staff put their fingers on the quality of teaching, but the management did as well. One of MHCC's trainers formulated this change by saying that due to evaluation,

We are, and the Principal is very rigorous in terms of teaching.<sup>1057</sup>

Likewise, the management of MHCC was said to be awakened by the evaluation experiment. They began putting more emphasis on better teaching quality at MHCC, especially methodological choices made in training, through participating in evaluation processes. A case in point was skills acquisition among the teaching staff of the VET programme. Specifically, attention was paid to the teaching methods used at MHCC by demanding their updating in the centre.

We realised that we need to change our teaching methods to respond to demands of the surrounding community<sup>1058</sup>.

Yet other areas needing further development were brought up in evaluation. Evaluation contributed to the increasing consciousness about the important role of the surrounding learning environment. Similarly, reactivity to the growing demands for working environment increased. It was especially noted that MHCC needed to become better known. Again, extra efforts were needed to solve shortages such as expertise and skills as well as of equipment and working tools at MHCC.

[The seminar] it helped ... the centre as well, to know its development and shortages in different sectors.<sup>1059</sup>

We realised many shortages in our different sections. And after realising this they can be corrected. For instance, these shortages are: how the centre could be advertised more effectively and how the centre could be made better known in Mwanza.<sup>1060</sup>

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<sup>1057</sup> TI3rd1, M

<sup>1058</sup> TI3rd1, M

<sup>1059</sup> FQ7, M

<sup>1060</sup> FQ16, M

We found some negative challenges. They helped us to see weak points in our administration and take steps to improve those weak areas, so that they could become strengths of our centre.<sup>1061</sup>

[The seminar] it was very good, for it assisted in checking shortages of capabilities, starting from a person (worker), together with the centre's departments, reaching also the leadership of our centre...<sup>1062</sup>

There is a lack of buildings, machines and tools as well as competent instructors (regulated by VETA).<sup>1063</sup>

Competition has become fiercer in tailoring. I'd like to start a 3-month-long short course in decorations and making batiks [a method of dyeing fabric].<sup>1064</sup>

A case in point from collective, cognitive evaluation impacts was common awakening, which took place among the staff. During the evaluation process, they began to understand that there was a free play of market forces among the private VET providers in the Tanzanian VET sector. It was realised likewise, that there was free competition among school leavers for these potential new VET entrants between VET centres in Lake Zone. This essential consequence derived from the evaluation — understanding the importance of, and the need for, quick reactivity to the conditions and situations occurring in their surroundings, for instance, when recruiting new VET students. One of the leaders illustrated this growing realisation by replying that the staff must manage more intensively in the face of competition from other VET organisers.

... we realised in this [evaluation] workshop that there are other [VET] centres. We did not regard them earlier as our competitors, but now we recognised that they are our competitors. Now we need to follow things which they are doing. So, if we went in this way we could try to overcome, well. Because if you want to conquer it you should monitor them [referred to the leaders of another VET centre], what they do. You can win them, but not if you do carelessly, then you will be eliminated. These are the things which I learned and which I need to follow as well.<sup>1065</sup>

As a result of the evaluation experiment, external VET and VETA officers provided valuable feedback on the quality of MHCC, as well as advice on its VET training. They encouraged MHCC's leadership to not concentrate on production at the

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<sup>1061</sup> FQ1, M

<sup>1062</sup> FQ8, M

<sup>1063</sup> TI3rd2, M

<sup>1064</sup> TI3rd3, F

<sup>1065</sup> TI2nd1b, M, 71–78

expense of deterioration in quality of training. In this connection it is worth mentioning that these external individuals commented positively on the innovativeness, commitment and competitiveness of MHCC. These VET providers clearly expressed their appreciation of the high quality of VET at MHCC, the exceptional work ethics, trustworthiness and innovativeness practised among MHCC staff, as the next quotation expresses.

Their strengths? I think it [MHCC] it is the stable institution, due to their role and in terms of quality. I think they have good quality of instructors. And their commitment, they show commitment ... And also, we use their welding department a lot, because they make these brick machines. ... they are very innovative compared to many centres ... they are more innovative than the other centres ... They are supposed to generate their own income for running their centre. Nobody is subsidising them. That is a reason.

When you combine business, production with training, there is a threat. If you concentrate more on a business side than [a side of training]. That tells us that you have forgotten, then you have concentrated on it at the expense of training. So, you need a strict balance... To be the self-sustaining centre, there are very rare cases, this one [MHCC] is a tremendous one.<sup>1066</sup>

I: Why have they [MHCC] managed to do that?<sup>1067</sup>

I think this is [because of] a plain commitment ... otherwise it is really difficult to manage to be self-sustaining. ... So, you put in place right facilities by which you could generate income, such as buildings, okay. They rent [houses] and they have the right people. ... Well, you have the right leadership. Their people are committed. Okay, and they take care about all these issues. This is the unique, this the unique, unique example. I think it [MHCC] is, it will be the prosperous centre and the model centre for new origins. We have very few centres like Home Craft, just to mention ... In terms of production potentials, I think it is ahead. Their doings are very ahead of many centres, many centres, yeah. And you see it is more innovative, innovative in terms of making tools and making other things.<sup>1068</sup>

They have developed their own approach ... they do it in the right way. ... I'm personally, I have been in contact with them and we are always in contact with them to see how we could copy their approach and try to impose it or use it in our areas... They have some difficulties, which are caused by their location.

They have an advantage. I mean the facilities and that they can prove to a customer that they can do a job according to the customer's specification. This is their advantage. They can do it in the right time [on schedule] ... So, they have a reputation; they are known. And they, I think that their products are sympathised all around.

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<sup>1066</sup> TI2nd9, M, 758–760, 764–767, 771–773, 778–780, 927

<sup>1067</sup> TI2nd9I, F, 928–929

<sup>1068</sup> TI2nd9, M, 930–931, 937–938, 944–946, 1132–1139

People are still interested in gaining their skills there... Welding is a hot cake in Mwanza. Any institution providing training in welding will always receive students.<sup>1069</sup> What I liked is the way of keeping up the place, their workshops, their surroundings and so on. There are very simple workshops and offices, but they are kept well. They concern it ... is good, is very good. Yeah. So, this shows you that the teachers know their jobs and like their jobs. ... So, if the teachers are committed to their work, you know, they'll take care of everything. That's why I am impressed. The quality of the training that they offer compared with those [the other centres] I know until now, it is quite competitive ... I think it [MHCC] is one of the best vocational training centres in Mwanza. Really.<sup>1070</sup>

Evaluation gave the committee members a new perspective on MHCC's future. They mentioned that with the help of the workshop they understood that every activity needed a vision and a certain strategy to be executed. Without any strategy put in place goals were incapable of being reached. Thus, it was necessary to follow certain steps for progress to be documented.<sup>1071</sup> As seen below, updates were provided, while evaluating, on the mission and vision of MHCC. These amendments took place due to the empowerment evaluation seminar and workshop held as well as through participation in constructive dialogue with its 21 stakeholders.

Again, in the workshop powerful arguments were raised against using the previous age limit (16–25 yrs) as an entry requirement, for in practice, many of the VET centre's students had been enrolled above the age limit anyway. This admission criterion was seen as invalid and worth reformulating, as illustrated by two committee members, and some teachers who gave feedback on the empowerment evaluation seminar and workshop.

Value or an impact of the workshop, empowerment evaluation, it was very positive and helpful to the centre. The impact was seen in the mission ... We got some changes in the centre's vision.<sup>1072</sup>

These teachings [evaluation seminars] which were given to us equipped us to realise our vision and mission. To have an official programme which makes us successful to reach our vision, encourage me. And I believe that we will begin immediately to practice these teachings in our doings. This benefits me and the church, to which our institution NVTC [MHCC] belongs.<sup>1073</sup>

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<sup>1069</sup> TI2nd6, M, 653–655, 657–670, 851–852, 884–886, 887–889

<sup>1070</sup> TI2nd12, M, 680–682, 687–693, 903–904

<sup>1071</sup> FQ5, M; FQ15, M

<sup>1072</sup> FQ1, M

<sup>1073</sup> FQ5, M



Thus, all in all, the evaluation process with its findings could be stated to support MHCC and its staff. It assisted in reflection regarding the centre and its activities through cognitive channels, by taking a longer future perspective in the development of MHCC than had been before as well as by including the perspectives of MHCC students into consideration more than they had earlier. MHCC personnel then applied the knowledge gathered and generated and made plans not based solely on the agenda set in the seminars and workshops, but also based on interaction, recommendations made, and the evaluation findings presented.

The evaluation awakened to do the work by keeping in mind a 3-year-long perspective and even a longer future perspective. I realised that it is good for the centre to have documented goals for three years.<sup>1074</sup>

In this research the thing which has made me happy, from my side, that is to see these results from the plan made when this centre was started. There are seen fruits and results in the Tanzanian society due to the work done in this centre ... people employ themselves; are employed after having been educated here ... To understand those challenges which NVTC [MHCC] faces; to see our clear direction of running NVTC [MHCC]; to reveal important needs of the centre; and to understand and discover our weaknesses and success which we have in our running.<sup>1075</sup>

Some areas in MHCC practices were also picked up as good examples of how future development of activities at MHCC could be granted if applying evaluation as a tool. The majority of executives shared the view that evaluation was important, as follows:

We have got a perfect compass for its [MHCC's] running.<sup>1076</sup>

Now at NVTC [MHCC] we went through the centre's every project. And we evaluated successful projects which made a profit to the centre. ... From my viewpoint the evaluation was important, because it awakened the centre's and the church's leadership as well, so that the centre or the church should have a new vision for the centre's running.<sup>1077</sup>

The new plans for the running of the VET programme at MHCC and for better understanding its context were made with the evaluation experiment. Furthermore, strengths and weaknesses of the centre and of its VET, as the example below demonstrates, were uncovered during evaluation and with evaluation as well. The

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<sup>1074</sup> FQ15, M

<sup>1075</sup> FQ4, M; GI19, M

<sup>1076</sup> FQ9, M

<sup>1077</sup> FQ15, M

aforesaid demands placed upon MHCC leaders were concretised during the evaluation process as the next interviewee reported.

It [the seminar] mattered much to us. We comprehended matters in which we had succeeded and sections where we had shortages. A case in point is teaching materials, which we don't have enough at all ....<sup>1078</sup>

All in all, the evaluation at MHCC was an eye-opener for those participating in it. Also, its process was used as an intervention or treatment, a tool for learning to learn. In the future, evaluation, if regarded as the intervention, could be used intentionally as well for assisting the programme's outcomes and strengthening the impacts of the VET programme.

*Behavioural evaluation impacts.* These impacts were identifiable as behavioural changes, concrete deeds or actions taken due to the evaluation conducted at MHCC, FPCT or other institutions, and organisations involved in the evaluation. They were targeted to be achieved at the operational level of the intervention or its environment.

Concrete changes were made at MHCC due to the evaluation experiment. The establishment of real-time follow-up systems for MHCC graduates and applicants was one of these very important and concrete actions taken. This lack was raised earlier by officers representing the Tanzanian VET authorities, VETA. This need was expressed clearly once again to the VET leaders of MHCC during the evaluation experiment, and this official requirement was fulfilled and implemented as a consequence of the evaluation process. Hence, MHCC teaching staff and its leaders openly rejoiced at this concrete change which took place in MHCC's follow-up practices due to the evaluation conducted. The next passages reveal how MHCC staff realised the necessity of keeping accurate records of its former students and its VET activities.

I learned that we must do it [the follow-up of former students], I mean to do it every year. Thus, maybe we try to write a letter to them [the former students] to those who are near and to visit there where they are, because also even on behalf of VETA they asked this from us. They [inspectors of VETA] can sometimes come. For instance, during inspections they can come and ask us to bring them (i.e., fails) of those students who graduated from here. Regarding what the situation was at that time, we should have said that we didn't know where they were, but now as the case is we can tell this information boldly.<sup>1079</sup>

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<sup>1078</sup> FQ13, M

<sup>1079</sup> TI2nd1b, M, 57–63

After your research we got at MHCC an idea to make a follow-up programme for our students. We keep closer eyes on [centres] outside, because there is a tight competition. We realised that we were unaware of, that we have been negligent in not keeping reports. Now we have concrete signs of this improvement. We have two files, for Trade Tests and applications. We started keeping records.<sup>1080</sup>

... they [the management] they found [shortages] without any hesitation. And they have begun to make various corrections, which were not made before, but which I see now.<sup>1081</sup>

The evaluation experiment also contributed to the alteration of the VET centre's name. The original name of Mwanza Home Craft Centre had led many applicants to make misinterpretations on the grounds due to assumptions regarding the name of the VET centre. The term "home craft" in the name Mwanza Home Craft Centre had contributed to the public reasonably assuming that the VET centre was offering home economics as its major focus. It was evaluation that gave widespread support to the need for changing MHCC's name. As a result, the name of the VET centre was changed from MHCC to NVTC, Nyakato Vocational Training Centre. In concrete terms, this change resulted in such practical implications as growth in student enrolment and a positive status change in perception by applicants. Consequently, NVTC [formerly MHCC] became regarded as one of the official VET centres, a provider of traditional VET programs with such subjects as tailoring, carpentry and welding.

There has been an increase in a number of our enrolled students after the name change of this school, from MHCC to NVTC. The status of our school enhanced by changing the name. The number of students has increased when they recognised that there was no question about home economics but vocational studies; this is a VET school.<sup>1082</sup>

Concrete results, as presented above and below, took place after MHCC achieved wider recognition through the TV presentation and as a result of higher appreciation owing to the reformed name. Along with the alteration made to MHCC's name, the national TV program raised public awareness by introducing the VET centre and its products. These activities received nation-wide publicity and had impact on the numbers of customers and marketing of MHCC products. Therefore, it was very

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<sup>1080</sup> TI3rd1, M

<sup>1081</sup> FQ8, M

<sup>1082</sup> TI3rd1, M

profitable for the centre that these products made at MHCC came forward, see footnote 1055.

Our neighbours, especially, VETA workers earlier they thought, they associated us [MHCC] with domestic work. But now after this school's name change they realised that we are fully engaged in vocational fields of technical centres.<sup>1083</sup>

The evaluation experiment influenced not only the study programmes but also students' learning facilities and the provision of their accommodation. Evaluation practices carried out at MHCC contributed to both educational content and lines of specialisation. They have been modified and new subjects and professional lines of studies as well as trades were established at MHCC. Besides, significant improvements were carried out to female and male students' living. Residential accommodation has been provided to those students coming from far away to carry on studies at MHCC.

Vocational fields increased: English, computer and secretarial courses, and motor vehicle department. This was the product of the discussion or interview.<sup>1084</sup>

In NVTC [MHCC] we have launched new courses. The number of sewing machines and tools has increased.<sup>1085</sup>

A hostel for boys and girls who come from afar.<sup>1086</sup>

Not only were new training fields or departments established, but what is more, the level of teaching has been brought into the central focus and public consciousness at MHCC. A case in point was that further methodological training was provided from VETA for instructors and teachers at MHCC due to evaluation.

All teachers have attended seminars on [teaching] methodologies, except one who was employed in this year, a computer teacher.<sup>1087</sup>

We started to improve our teaching. We have better teaching materials than earlier and have improved our planning.<sup>1088</sup>

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<sup>1083</sup> TI3rd1, M

<sup>1084</sup> TI3rd1, M

<sup>1085</sup> TI3rd3, F

<sup>1086</sup> TI3rd2, M

<sup>1087</sup> TI3rd2, M

<sup>1088</sup> TI3rd1, M

Apart from the previous examples, collaboration between the staff changed and became more developmentally oriented. Typical of this change was the staff meeting. Contrary to what might be expected, the focus and direction of meetings transferred drastically with the evaluation. Cooperation changed from a past to future orientation; from dealing with times gone by to concentrating on the future development of teaching and organisational culture.

We started our staff room meetings in August 2005. The form of meetings has changed. Our objective is to share ideas of how to develop our centre and this school, while in our earlier staff meetings we discussed about our weekly school activities and teaching responsibilities and we gave reports.<sup>1089</sup>

*Affective evaluation impacts.* These impacts covered feelings and attitudes of MHCC's multi-stakeholders caused by the evaluation experiment. The major alteration made in the centre's name did not only reflect in the feelings of internal stakeholders of the centre, but it increased the centre's appreciation and status among outsiders. These changes become concrete in many ways, such as in the numbers of student applicants and prestige. This renaming gave a boost to the centre's success, as the example below clearly clarifies. This was not only expressed among the external multi-stakeholders but also amid those people working and studying inside the institution itself, see footnote 1082.

Involvement in evaluation itself generated positive feelings, like confidence and motivation. In addition, if referring to the evaluation process itself, it was regarded as an open, honest confidence-building activity as well as reflection process. One employee of MHCC noted that this collaborative, open process together with co-workers was highly valued and motivating, as this quote shows.

It boosted my confidence when the participants exchanged their ideas and spoke frankly without hiding anything about weaknesses or strengths of each department.<sup>1090</sup>

*Social evaluation impacts.* Relationships were created and strengthened while evaluating. Further, ideas and information were exchanged inside the VET centre between different worker groups of MHCC by means of the evaluation experiment.

To exchange ideas with my co-workers as well.<sup>1091</sup>

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<sup>1089</sup> TI3rd1, M

<sup>1090</sup> FQ3, M

<sup>1091</sup> FQ11, M

From the centre's viewpoint, I saw that the centre's leaders they cooperated with all the workers. They can make our centre more known in Lake Zone.<sup>1092</sup>

The equality value between different working groups in the evaluation process was felt due to a provision of equal opportunities in evaluation. Close cooperation was clearly illustrated while evaluating. An example of this comes from a guard working at MHCC. He expressed that he had become empowered through equal participation. His comment below reveals the typical features of a situation taking place in societies having considerable gaps between the powerful and the powerless, as in Tanzania. Typically, superiors and subordinates regard each other from standpoints of existence of humans as unequal.<sup>1093</sup> Despite this prevailing situation, he wrote about his remarkable and exceptional experience gained, in a culture where power distances were regarded as large and power hierarchies as clear. He felt himself being an equal partner in the evaluation process, who was connected and brought to the same negotiation tables with previously unusual and unequal partners, the employers and the leadership.

The seminar mattered a lot, even to us, insignificant workers [guards]. The seminar denoted very much... even I thought that these kinds of seminars are only for persons being high on the ladders. I wondered how even I was a human being. And it [the seminar] was a method that connected us here in the centre.<sup>1094</sup>

Nevertheless, the evaluation findings showed that still more space to share new ideas would be needed at MHCC in the future, as the following member of the teaching staff emphasised.

The leadership does not give enough opportunities to share ideas.<sup>1095</sup>

*Economic evaluation impacts.* The first version of the vision for MHCC outlined that MHCC pursued the goal of being locally and regionally appreciated as well as a well-known VET centre. In the second seminar and workshop the objective was placed on developing nationwide recognition. Precisely, this updated grand vision included the aim for MHCC of being an appreciated and well-known VET institution in Tanzania. This vision was actualised in the nation-wide TV-programme produced about MHCC and its activities. This TV presentation was a very good advertisement

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<sup>1092</sup> FQ13, M

<sup>1093</sup> see Hofstede 1991

<sup>1094</sup> FQ17, M

<sup>1095</sup> TI3rd3, F

for MHCC to attract more numbers of prospective VET applicants to submit their applications for these VET studies.

Similarly, the broadcast offered an efficient channel through which MHCC could promote its products. Under these circumstances, the economy of MHCC received a strong boost, for the potential customer base of MHCC broadened as well as sales and marketing improved. These improvements could be enjoyed as fruits of the reformulated vision and one of the strategies set for advertisement, as the passage taken from one of the thematic interviews demonstrated in footnote 1055.

Some collective economic impacts reflected in the VET centre's economy were seen. They were assumed to be the consequence of widening the customer base and good production sales growing in popularity, as the next quotations revealed.

We obtained more orders especially in metalwork and tailoring (e.g., to manufacture school uniforms for the whole school, like VETA, overalls for all VETA workers and aprons for their students). There was an invitation to tenders. We won the bid by means of quality and ability to be on schedule. A cinveram [brick] machine is a very important article for us. For example, we got an order from Kenya. This machine cost 180, 000 Tsh and we made profit of 110, 000 Tsh per one. In these new machines we can utilise new, appropriate housing technologies to reduce costs. Because cement is very expensive this technological method used decreases costs when using cement and soil together. We got also an order from Nyamahanga Teachers Training College: it was 50 bunk beds.<sup>1096</sup>

Orders between 2001–2004, we got orders from VETA, because we are trustworthy and due to the quality of work. So, four “fundis”<sup>1097</sup> did 500 uniforms in one or one and a half months. In 2005 because the competition was very tight, and even tighter than before, we got the order of 325 school uniforms from VETA.<sup>1098</sup>

Likewise, the reformulation made to the centre's name has been reflected in a positive way in the VET centre's economy. This clarification of the centre's name, by changing the name from MHCC to NVTC, increased the number of potential VET students and their applications, which also contributed positively to the VET centre's economic climate, as seen in footnote 1082.

In opposition to these positive results presumed to originate from evaluation, however, one of the leaders reported one negative economic sign happening in the

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<sup>1096</sup> TI3rd1, M

<sup>1097</sup> “A person skilled in any art, craft, or profession, and so able to instruct others in it, a skilled workman, and one who has learnt his trade, a trained artisan or craftsman e.g. mason, carpenter, tailor, smith, washerman” (A Standard Swahili-English Dictionary 2000, 103).

<sup>1098</sup> TI3rd3, F

VET institution. It was presumed to derive from the increase made to the number of fields of study. To him, MHCC's expenditures increased.

... by adding VET options [vocational fields] we increased school expenditures rather than got more profits.<sup>1099</sup>

*Cultural evaluation impact.* Traditionally, in collectivist cultures like Tanzania, power distances are presumed to be wider than in individualistic cultures. Consistent with this cultural phenomenon were power gaps identified between the employer and employees at MHCC at the beginning of the evaluation experiment. The example presented before, see footnote 1094, described the situation clearly.

The form of the evaluation process organised at MHCC was culturally very exceptional, rare and special in the Tanzanian cultural context. First, this gathering brought workers of the VET centre to the same tables together with MHCC committee members and leadership to evaluate and work on the VET programme during seminar sessions. Second, the evaluation practiced enabled discussions between the workers, management, and former students of MHCC and some of their parents in the group interview to take place. This was unique too. In MHCC's evaluation process, close and equal multi-stakeholder cooperation became possible and real. This collaboration between different MHCC staff groups, its leadership and even former students over the course of the evaluation process went smoothly.

The evaluation experiment created deep affections due to its cultural abnormality when used as the power-broker. The evaluation process was very rewarding not only for the graduates (see footnote 1028) of MHCC but also the subordinates working at MHCC. The presence and involvement in evaluation dialogue and discussion in the same sessions with the persons having "higher" status and in which relationships are determined by their age and roles, was empowering for its participants. The "higher" persons of the case were, for instance, the representatives of MHCC committee members and its leaders, the so-called employers, and the teachers of MHCC. These "highers" were above the former students and the subordinates due to their positions and ages.

Obviously, and as anticipated, evaluation had influence on the power issues. The evaluation acted as signal, marking the beginning of a possible narrowing of the power gap between MHCC staff members, and between MHCC staff and its former students. The passage of one MHCC worker, presented in footnote 1094, illustrated how deeply he was affected by receiving an opportunity to be involved in evaluation.

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<sup>1099</sup> TI3rd2, M



Again, it was exceptional that the seminars and workshops and group interviews were arranged so that various voices were heard at the same time, not only by the researcher, but also by MHCC leadership as well as the committee. What was more, a real but rare possibility for free expression of all participants was organised through evaluation. And thereafter, more power was transferred to all involved in the evaluation processes, as the next passages (see also footnote 1026) demonstrate.

I saw that the centre's leaders they cooperated with their workers...<sup>1100</sup>

Finally, a very interesting cultural finding was made regarding time orientation. African time is typically said to be two-dimensional, including a long past and the present, generally looking back on bygone days. Therefore, I assumed that time, as continuity, would have been directed more at the perspective of the past rather than toward future goals. Conversely, however, the time orientation of staff-meetings changed due to evaluation. The quotation (footnote 1089) indicated how evaluation affected these staff-meetings.

This dramatic directional change that took place in the time scale of MHCC's staff meetings was undeniably impressive as an evaluation result. Really, their time-perspective changed, placing emphasis on the future-orientation. The evaluation experiment proved that the focus of the staff collaboration transferred with the evaluation; from past-oriented summaries given on VET activities to the future development of the centre. This evaluation finding was very surprising considering the prevailing cultural assumptions made in terms of Tanzanian time, as clarified in footnote 596.

### 4.4.3 Summary

The research results revealed that at MHCC the evaluation findings and the evaluation process itself worked together as begetters of visible and invisible, intended and unintended, immediate, delayed and long-term impacts at MHCC. Positive and negative cognitive (Co), behavioural (B), affective (A), social (S), economic (E) and cultural (Cu) evaluation impacts were noticeable at MHCC from utilisation of evaluation and its processes, as summarised in Table 17 below. These impacts were discovered and identifiable at the individual (IN), interpersonal (IP) and collective (CL) levels of the VET case.

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<sup>1100</sup> FQ12, M

Specifically, the economic and cultural evaluation impacts recognised at MHCC at the collective level, as highlighted in grey in Table 17, were new. This result was inconsistent with the results produced by Amo and Cousins as well as by Mark and Henry. In contrast to evaluation impacts typified by Amo and Cousins, in addition, I ended up labelling the fourth type of evaluation impact as a social one, instead of their “other.” To me, this “other” included social elements derived from the use of evaluation. The evaluation experiment was carried out with results that included evaluative know-how, the evaluative habit of mind, the evaluation appreciation, self-evaluation, follow-ups, cooperation and relationships with internals and externals, teaching and management procedures of MHCC and enhanced VET practices (Table 17). The evaluation experiment carried out at MHCC confirmed that in very few cases, precisely in two ones, were negative affection or attitudes such as skepticism towards evaluation expressed. All these negative evaluation impacts are illustrated with red writing in Table 17. Evaluation was not initially regarded as an effective tool for generating positive consequences for the development intervention at the individual, interpersonal or the collective level, but this changed.

Evaluation impacts originating from the evaluation experiment conducted at MHCC took place over a long period. Three phases could be identified in the overall period. The first evaluation cycle covered the first field trip between 2001 and 2002, in which evaluation impacts were primarily derived from the process use of evaluation. The second evaluation cycle lasted from the end of the first cycle in 2002 to the completion of the last field work period in 2006. The findings at that time suggested that evaluation impacts originated both from the use of evaluation results and from the evaluation process itself. The last phase was from 2006 to the date of the finalising this report. The impacts of this third phase began from evaluation findings and ended by publishing this research report. What is more, I hope that a new fourth cycle, a visible phase, will begin with the publishing of this research and give a new boost in enhancing MHCC’s evaluation practices and evaluation use among its multi-stakeholders.

Evaluation impacts were identifiable not only immediately during evaluation, but also at the end of evaluation cycles, and long after the completion of the evaluation conducted at MHCC. Immediate individual impacts and interpersonal end results were identifiable primarily at the end of the first and second evaluation cycles, while long-term collective impacts were found at the beginning and at the end of both the second and the third cycles of evaluation. For instance, individual evaluation impacts were recognisable at MHCC by the evaluation participants. These persons being engaged in evaluation processes identified (for the most part) cognitive and affective

impacts either immediately during the process or at the end of the evaluation cycle. Interpersonal evaluation impacts were reflected unarguably in the participants' relationships and cooperation styles. These primarily social evaluation impacts were noticeable during the time when the evaluation process itself was carried out. Collective evaluation impacts may have been noticed years after the evaluation process had taken place.

Table 17. The summary of evaluation impacts established in this research by using the qualitative content analysis

EVALUATION IMPACTS			
LEVELS OF EVALUATION IMPACTS			
TYPES OF EVALUATION IMPACTS	INDIVIDUAL (IN): Within one evaluation participant	INTERPERSONAL (IP): Between two or more evaluation participants	COLLECTIVE (CL): In a programme, institution, organisation or policies involved in evaluation
<b>COGNITIVE (Co): KNOW-HOW (Knowledge, skills, expertise)</b>	Evaluation as a tool for: adaptation, development, enlightenment ("mwanga"), evaluative thinking, identifying shortages and deficiencies, awareness raising of evaluation issues and concepts as well as cognitive changes. E.g., evaluation as a mirror or an energiser.	Evaluation capacity development.	Evaluation as a compass for MHCC's operations. An awakener to the competition between VET centres in Lake Zone. Reactivity to MHCC's surroundings. A tool for finding shared meanings, understanding and priorities, as well as plans, and for revealing strengths and weaknesses at MHCC. Development plans and recommendations for the VET programme and MHCC made regarding the level of teaching and methods used. More attention paid in the surrounding learning environment than before. Reactivity to the working environment increased (i.e., identification of the shortages of equipment and working tools, as well as skills).
<b>BEHAVIOURAL (B): ACTS (Action, doing, changes)</b>	Self-evaluation, quality checking, follow-up of the registers, adaptation to the environment by means of using new teaching methods or cooperative methods among the staff, development of the staff, decrease in the work load of the management.	Former students: increased involvement. Respect gained from the researcher when offering them an opportunity to collaborate and share their expertise with MHCC leaders as well as staff and committee members for future development of MHCC and its VET through evaluation. Staff: Gave a boost to cooperation. Willingness to learn more about evaluation and the request made of the researcher to offer more assistance in this area in the future.	The establishment of a follow-up system for graduated students of MHCC. The renaming of the VET centre from MHCC to NVTC: Student enrolment has grown after receiving the wider recognition as the VET centre. Diffusion of evaluation into the surrounding community his family and of his own life, as well as the work of MHCC and the local NGO, FPC1. Improved advertising (TV).
<b>AFFECTIVE (A): MIND (Motivation, attitudes, affection)</b>	"Made me happy to share my ideas"; "broadened me. I become more"; "to get evolution mind. How to be flexible; transparency and firmness"; personal growth and empowerment; self-confidence, professional growth and work appreciation, as well as valuation of evaluation; boosting moral, encouragement, "new blood". <i>Skepticism.</i>	More emphasis put on other participants' perspectives. Empathy. Better preparation got underway to a dialogue with external stakeholders.	The centre's renaming increased appreciation of the VET centre. Supported MHCC's independence and self-determination.  (continues)

Table 17 (continues)

<b>LEVELS OF EVALUATION IMPACTS</b>			
	<b>INDIVIDUAL (IN): within one evaluation participant</b>	<b>INTERPERSONAL (IP): between two or more evaluation participants</b>	<b>COLLECTIVE (CL): in a programme, institution, organisation or policies involved in evaluation</b>
<b>TYPES OF EVALUATION IMPACTS</b>  <b>SOCIAL (S): CONTACTS, RELATIONS (Relationships, networks, partnerships)</b>		Networking with workplaces has started afresh. Relationships established and valued more at MHCC.  Booster for networking and creation of relationships; stimulus for development of professional networks with graduates and stronger relations with their employers as well as increased engagement in the field were set high on the future agenda of MHCC regarding the area that should be strengthened.	Relationships valued, created and strengthened between different worker groups at MHCC. (Reformulation of the mission and vision and strategies). Reflection together with co-workers highly valued. Evaluation as the connector of unequal partners: employer and employees at MHCC as well as the VET staff and students.
<b>ECONOMIC (E): MONEY, POSSESSIONS (Financial influences, equipment, goods, property)</b>			Widening MHCC's customer base and increase in MHCC's production sells owing to growing in popularity.  <b>More expenditures with new departments.</b>
<b>CULTURAL (Cu): CULTURAL HABITS, MANNERS (Cultural changes, traditions)</b>			Focus in MHCC's staff collaboration changed from historical orientation to the future development of VET activities. Large power distances between multi-stakeholder by means of evaluation was narrowed. Democratisation of knowledge took place through active involvement of the various stakeholder groups at MHCC.



# PART III CONCLUSIONS





## 5 DISCUSSION

In this chapter, first, we assess how the purpose set for this research was met and observe key results. Also, the research topicality and significance are estimated. Then, under this section both theoretical and practical implications of the research results are discussed. Self-evaluation on the quality of this research and of the methodological strategies chosen is conducted. Finally, recommendations are made, including future research topics.

### 5.1 Research purpose: To foster evaluation use and impacts through the process use of evaluation

This research topic, regarding the use of development evaluation and its impacts, seems to have become timelier and more relevant in 2019 than it was at the beginning of this lengthy research process in which I was deeply involved. After the growing numbers of evaluations synchronous with their decreasing use, the question “Why aren’t aid organizations better learners?” — asked in 2000 when studying Sida’s learning from development evaluations — is still worth considering.<sup>1101</sup> Then, Carlsson crystallised the growing concern about local learning in the following way, with which I can agree based on the results reported in the introduction of this research report.

Evaluations are very donor-centric, a majority of local stakeholders did not find much value in evaluations at all. This is evidenced by the fact that there were few examples where evaluations actually contributed something new in terms of knowledge. Neither the issues nor the questions were new. They had been discussed before. The evaluation is just another means of conducting the same dialogue. In that process opportunities for learning certainly emerged, but it would appear rather by accident and not for the majority of those concerned with the evaluation and its object.<sup>1102</sup>

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<sup>1101</sup> Carlsson 2000, 129

<sup>1102</sup> Carlsson 2000, 129

This research was to foster improvement and self-determination of the VET development programme at MHCC in Tanzania by means of evaluation use and its impacts. This took place with the help of the process use of evaluation wherein the evaluation findings were utilised as well. These evolving and mobilising processes consisted of “learning by doing” training in meaningful evaluative learning-oriented situations with appropriate methods in authentic environments, linked to the experiences and lives of learners as well as of their practical and situational knowledge. It is now high time to assess how these vital objects chosen for this research, evaluation use and its impacts, and the evaluation experiment, have impacted the VET programme at MHCC.

All in all, the research target, focussed on the elements of the evaluation factor having influence on evaluation utilisation and evaluation impacts of the evaluation experiment at MHCC, could be stated to have been achieved successfully. First, based on the research data, the evaluation process and its findings in the VET case at MHCC were indeed of use, which was the key characteristic for every useful evaluation, as stated by Patton.<sup>1103</sup> In this experiment, evaluation utilisation and local learning possibilities were successfully exploited because the opportunity to strengthen the capacity for evaluation in the recipient country’s representatives through participation was valued and used.

Second, this evaluation use implied various types of evaluation impacts at the VET case’s various levels. This was congruent with the criterion set by Johnson *et al.* for evaluation use.<sup>1104</sup> Third, this evaluation experiment was profitable. The findings of this evaluation experiment paralleled Scriven’s arguments about the benefits of experimentation. Its results confirmed that stakeholders’ life quality improved and their resources were saved, new and better insights were revealed and deeper reciprocal understanding of the evaluand was gained. The data indicated that the experiment was reflected in stakeholders and their institutions’ practices, it assisted them to learn from their past as well as to alter, develop and improve those activities that needed to be changed.<sup>1105</sup>

Regarding the VET case at MHCC, it was used as an instrument and illustration to advance and facilitate the readers’ understanding of the impacts of development evaluation and the process use of evaluation. My instrumental case study intended “to illuminate and improve practice,”<sup>1106</sup> as Bates put it, even if I simultaneously

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<sup>1103</sup> Patton 1997

<sup>1104</sup> Johnson, Greenesid, Toal, King, Lawrenz & Volkov 2009, 378

<sup>1105</sup> Scriven 1991a

<sup>1106</sup> Bates 2008, 102

posed Stake's key question as well: What could we learn about the case and how could we maximise this learning?<sup>1107</sup> This means that when generating evaluation impacts all learning sources available can be utilised. Evaluative learning, therefore, can begin with the evaluation itself, during the process use of evaluation through personal involvement and experience, training, and active communication, and does not need to wait till long after the evaluative actions have been finalised, based on results, conclusions and recommendations, typically written in an evaluation report and fed back after the completion of evaluation through dissemination.<sup>1108</sup>

The findings indicate that not only can the evaluation initiators, commissioners or evaluators make use of this evaluation experiment as an example when choosing appropriate ways to support local stakeholders' evaluation use and learning in evaluation while evaluating, but so can the evaluation practitioners themselves. It is hoped that, with the assistance of this report, development evaluation commissioners and actors can make use of this discussion about the factors (i.e., human, evaluation, and contextual) influencing the use of evaluation. When inquiring of different elements in the evaluation factor, this research may reveal to the decision-makers how evaluation utilisation and evaluation impacts in the development donor organisations and their interventions among the local multi-stakeholders of these interventions could be strengthened. Additionally, the new knowledge about evaluation use among the locals gained from such theoretical perspectives as evaluation standpoints and paradigms, also emphasising the evaluation users' position, will possibly be of help in clarifying the vital role of evaluators and evaluation commissioners in contributing to evaluation impacts by means of the evaluation function, design, methodology, location, and time-frame chosen. Also, this report may reveal how these evaluation processes were used as sources of purpose-oriented, practical, knowledge-focussed and people-centred evaluative learning. Still further, this research might be of help in giving new insights into socio-economic impacts of VET and the impacts of evaluation on the VET case in one development intervention in Tanzania from their practical and local perspectives.

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<sup>1107</sup> Stake 1995, 4; 2003, 135, 152

<sup>1108</sup> Forss, Rebién & Carlsson 2002, 32; Patton 1997, 90; 2007, 99

## 5.2 Key research results observed

The data demonstrated various material and immaterial socio-economic impacts of VET, transferable from the study context (MHCC) to outside world. These noted impacts, through the lens of the main users (MHCC graduates and their extended families) included personal material impacts (e.g., assets, property, real estate); interpersonal material (e.g., donations, school fees, house rents) and immaterial impacts (e.g., services, apprenticeship training) as well as collective material (e.g., donations) and immaterial (e.g., services, apprenticeship training) impacts. Next, the key research results are summarised.

### 5.2.1 Material and immaterial socio-economic VET impacts and their nets were visible

When exploring individual benefits of education and training, traditionally the principles of microeconomics and econometrics, as well as capital theories have mostly been applied. These advantages have primarily been regarded as material, specifically in monetary returns (e.g., earnings), rates of return and some forms of non-monetary returns (e.g., unemployment probability, occupational career etc.). However, recently micro-level life-course and biographical research have gained more ground.<sup>1109</sup> Referring to VET impacts studied in this evaluation experiment at MHCC, the biographical approach was utilised in which the key evaluators, the former students and their parents, estimated the socio-economic impacts of VET in their narratives through lived experiences of their own. In addition, some relevant results were received from the employers, the VET officials and MHCC staff.<sup>1110</sup>

To exemplify the socio-economic impact of VET at MHCC, one indirect indicator was used; the density of cell phones or of telephone lines. The figures for the year 2002 revealed that the average density of mobile phones among the average Tanzanian was 1,2% and of telephone lines 0.4% (Table 18)<sup>1111</sup>. These figures were 23 times lower than among the MHCC graduates, of whom 36.5% possessed either a mobile phone or had a telephone line at their homes (see Table 15). This significant difference probably indicated that MHCC graduates' socio-economic situations and

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<sup>1109</sup> Descy & Tessaring 2005, 33–41

<sup>1110</sup> Raivola 2000, 190

<sup>1111</sup> TDHS 1997 in Vavrus 2002, 536

incomes seemed to have been much higher during that time than that of their Tanzanian peers.

**Table 18.** The average density of phones in some countries, like Tanzania, in 2002<sup>1112</sup>

COUNTRY	MOBILE PHONES/ 1000 INHABITANTS	TELEPHONE LINES/ 100 INHABITANTS
Tanzania	12	0.4
Kenya	16	1.0
Zambia	12	0.8
Denmark	741	72.3

In some respects, unexpected socio-economic results were reported among MHCC graduates. The technical competence acquired in VET could neither ensure decent work with good economic results nor a chance to get paid employment. The Tanzanian case 1b unexpectedly and paradoxically revealed and provided anomalous evidence: full-time employment as a tool for alleviating poverty and automatically raising a person’s living standards did not function in a linear way. This result was in direct contradiction to Western linear thinking and assumptions about the economic power of full employment. The data implied that even full-time employment and benefits made from vocational skills acquired in VET education and rewarded with a VET certificate with good marks, could not contribute to getting proper or sufficient income (wherein all goods needed could be afforded with a living wage, as clarified earlier in Figure 19).

In another example, and contrary to predictions, the research findings (case 2b) regrettably illustrated and provided evidence that the heavy workload and full engagement of the self-employed person in Tanzanian working life did guarantee the work’s economic productivity. For instance, the self-employed person, if not having official contracts could be made seriously oppressed by more powerful customers in a cultural context where power distances are larger and power structures more hierarchical than in Western societies. The real economic impact and benefit of doing work seemed to have been dependent on the worker’s Tanzanian environment.

Besides the individual impacts, the research results showed that VET education could have many effects on the families of those in developing countries. Some differences were found among the female and male graduates, which is clarified next in more detail. This research implied that the amount of bride price (dowry) was

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<sup>1112</sup> TDHS 1997 in Vavrus 2002, 536

connected to the bride's education level. VET education traditionally has raised the bride's appreciation. The higher the education level of the bride the more favourable was her marriage payment, as the findings of Platteau and Gaspart's study carried out in Senegal confirmed. There, for example, the grooms had to pay more to the guardians of the women having primary education than of the non-educated ones.<sup>1113</sup>

Referring to Tanzanian society, as also in many other African societies, the individual has had little freedom of action for self-determination outside a traditional African family and community context. Kenyan professor Mbiti described the situation by saying that "Whatever happens to the individual happens to the whole group, and whatever happens to the whole group happens to the individual. The individual can only say: "I am, because we are; and since we are, therefore I am." This is a cardinal point in the understanding of the African view of man."<sup>1114</sup> Power distance refers to the extent to which a society accepts the truth that power is distributed unequally in institutions and organisations; in Tanzania proximity to power is distant and inequality is accepted. This means that in a social aggregation such as a family, school or work organisation, hierarchies of authority are highly valued and entrenched.<sup>1115</sup>

In Tanzania, as in most African societies, marriage is not between a man and woman, but between families. This union is validated by the exchange of gifts or payments, which the groom gives to the father of the bride or a guardian in the form of heads of cattle (e.g., cows, goats) or cash payments to acquire his bride.<sup>1116</sup> A dowry would be given based on such factors as a bride's education level, age, income and other traits affecting the married couple's productivity.<sup>1117</sup> This commonly used and accepted custom is a part of the "unofficial social security system" in Tanzania. Based on cultural traditions, as well as on responsibilities of those having better standards of living and incomes, this organised and internalised system takes care of the demands of needy relatives, a responsibility that is externalised to the welfare state in individualistic Western societies.

The research findings indicated that both female and male MHCC graduates having marriage plans could use VET education as a ticket to gain prestige and higher socio-economic status in their environments. The male VET graduates were better

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<sup>1113</sup> Platteau & Gaspart 2007, 1221

<sup>1114</sup> Mbiti 1969 in Lassiter 1999

<sup>1115</sup> Kanungo 1994, 1992, 65 in Themba, Chamme, Phambuka & Makgosa 1999, 111

<sup>1116</sup> Ayisi 1986, 9; Guide to Tanzania 1998; Platteau & Gaspart 2007, 1223

<sup>1117</sup> Platteau & Gaspart 2007, 1221

resourced, financially and socially, to marry a more “appreciated” marriage partner than if they would have been without VET education. With better earnings and standards of living the male VET graduates could afford to pay higher bride prices. Thus, their marital status was also interlinked with their economic conditions. This result was confirmed by Hofstede, who claimed that a degree and a certificate play very important roles in collectivist societies, such as Tanzania, by being an honour to the holder and their in-group, which entitles the holder to associate with members of higher-status groups (e.g., to obtain a more attractive marriage partner).<sup>1118</sup>

The findings of this research indicated productive, significant and far-reaching socio-economic impact chains, even broad impact nets. They were rooted in the development cooperation VET intervention at MHCC, which had managed to create rich, long-term consequences. Their results did not only benefit the service users (the VET graduates), but also their extended family members and surrounding societies, as well as to those institutions in which they had been involved. Typical of this was the informal, voluntarily given “private apprenticeship training,” which appeared in many MHCC graduates’ lives.

This special kind of altruistic behaviour offered by these graduates within their communities was impressive. For instance, one MHCC graduate has informally educated 50 different “VET trainees,” and this is not considered an exceptional case. In fact, this tendency was fairly common among MHCC graduates, who offered their expertise, skills and education to improve the lives of many unskilled members in their extended families and communities, as illustrated in detail in footnote 997.

The research results suggested that VET at MHCC had had significant consequences for the Tanzanian society with strong development impacts and broad ramifications. One explanation for this altruistic behaviour might be found in the collectivist Tanzanian culture, where extended family with close relations with relatives is vital. Indeed, many VET-graduates offered to their extended family members or community members financial support (e.g., donations, school and transportation fees, remuneration of medical treatment) or other types of assistance, like private apprenticeships, in gratitude for backing them. These are not typical cases for individualistic societies, like Finland. Even though I was unable to grasp the full ramifications of VET, based on the data I understood that it had a very profound impact at the Tanzanian community’s micro and meso levels.

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<sup>1118</sup> Hofstede 1986, 312; 1991, 63

Let us now consider the subject of entrepreneurship in cultures having strong uncertainty avoidance, as in Tanzania.<sup>1119</sup> In most collectivist African societies, career aspirations towards self-employment have typically been assumed to be very low due to the risk and uncertainty of this type of employment and the fear of failure. In these communities the spirit of independence and self-reliance, essential factors for entrepreneurship, as Themba with Chamme, Phambuka, and Makgosa noted, have not been promoted.<sup>1120</sup> However, the findings of this research showed that the majority of VET graduates at MHCC, 60% in-fact, were self-employed at the time of this research. The explanation for this tendency was found from in the results of Palmer and the ILO study and the case 2b, which confirmed that many graduates of MHCC were compelled to work in the informal employment sector, due to there being few employment opportunities. Palmer and the ILO study also documented that in African countries employment opportunities for VET graduates will ever-increasingly be found primarily in the informal sector and the micro-enterprise economy, in the future. Therefore, the great majority of all school leavers, 93% of them in Africa, including Tanzanians either living in urban or rural areas, are compelled to find their earnings from that sector.<sup>1121</sup>

If observing various socio-economic impacts of VET from the viewpoints of the vocational qualifications gained at MHCC and their trades and job classification in the Tanzanian labour market, the evaluation revealed that being a welder seemed to have been more appreciated and better paid than a carpenter or a tailor. This was substantiated by one VETA officer interviewed, who commented that: “Welding is a hot cake in Mwanza. Any institution providing training in welding will always receive students.”<sup>1122</sup> One of the reasons for this tendency was given by one interviewee, that of welders receiving higher payments and being viewed as higher status, due to the electrically operated tools used in this vocation. Contrary to expectations, and regardless of the better earnings prognosis for welders, the evaluation experiment demonstrated that many ladies still avoided educating

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<sup>1119</sup> National cultures can differ in ways of dealing uncertainty, relating to the control of aggression and the expression of emotions. Uncertainty avoidance varies from weak (low) to strong (high) and refers to the assumption of intolerance of ambiguity, means the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations, and are willing to take risks. Cultures with strong uncertainty avoidance are regarded as active, aggressive, emotional, compulsive, security-seeking, and intolerant, instead, cultures with weak uncertainty avoidance contemplative, less aggressive, unemotional, relaxed, accepting personal risks, and relatively tolerant. (Bennett 1998, 24; Hofstede 1986, 308; 1991, 263; Themba, Chamme, Phambuka & Makgosa 1999, 111.)

<sup>1120</sup> Themba, Chamme, Phambuka & Makgosa 1999, 112

<sup>1121</sup> ILO 2005b; Palmer 2007b, 398

<sup>1122</sup> TI2nd6, M, 653–655, 657–670, 851–852, 884–886, 887–889



themselves in traditional male fields, like welding and carpentry (only 2 females in the pool of 281 MHCC graduates). One argument for this could be that in most traditional African societies giving the same educational and career choices to women as to men has been taboo.<sup>1123</sup>

*Socio-economic VET impacts could be strengthened by means of knowledge acquisition and financial incentives.* The research results provided evidence that if stronger socio-economic impacts in Tanzania were targeted, some concrete changes might be needed. For instance, in the VET curriculum more focus should be put on entrepreneurial skills in VET. In addition, rights-based knowledge on work legislation and about the representation of employees' interests would be vital. The unfortunate situation in the case 2b, where the self-employed MHCC craftsman made every effort to satisfy his clients' wishes but did not have an employment contract to protect him, demonstrated that if this education was provided, workers would be less likely to be economically exploited or have their rights broken by officials having more power in Tanzanian society. Therefore, detailed knowledge regarding how financial risks in business could be avoided might be of help for the VET students so that they could successfully create private businesses and productive livelihoods of their own. This training is crucial for the VET graduates who will ever-increasingly find their employment possibilities in urban and rural areas of Tanzania in the informal sector, as Palmer and the ILO confirmed in their studies.<sup>1124</sup>

Next, the main positive results derived from the process use of evaluation in the evaluation experiment of the VET case are summarised. Strong evidence is provided of the usefulness of the process use of evaluation.

## 5.2.2 The processual evaluation use generated different evaluation impacts

First, the results of the VET case at MHCC suggest that a processual use of evaluation through the person's first-hand evaluative experience could never result in evaluation being "left untouched on a desk" or lead to its total non-use, as happens with many evaluation findings written about in evaluation reports. Several types of positive, beneficial impacts were derived from the evaluation utilisation itself (as clarified in Chapters 4.4.2 and 5.2.2), among its participants, in their teams, communities, and inside the organisation of MHCC itself.

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<sup>1123</sup> Themba, Chamme, Phambuka & Makgosa 1999, 115

<sup>1124</sup> Palmer 2007b, 398

Second, the results of the evaluation experiment at MHCC demonstrated that the process use of evaluation could be one of the solutions to decrease asymmetries existing in development evaluation between the local partner having large power distances and clear power hierarchies and orientations. Nagao found this imbalance to exist between donors and recipients in development and evaluation practices.<sup>1125</sup> Most importantly, this dissymmetry could prohibit evaluation utilisation and evaluation impacts at the local level of a development intervention.

Third, the process use of evaluation seemed to have been more profitable than the use of evaluation findings alone due to its longer impacts, from all the perspectives of learning in evaluation taking place at the individual, group, organisational, as well as policy levels. I view that with the assistance of the process use of evaluation while evaluating, “learning in evaluation” could be allowed to take place naturally. The idea of the “evaluative learning culture” could have been planted, facilitated and gradually developed in the VET centre. Through their active participation, evaluative training and learning in this development evaluation process, these locals have strengthened local evaluation capacities, have practiced “learning in evaluation” and have improved MHCC with the assistance of the culturally sensitive approaches and methods used in the evaluation processes. I found that these concrete actions taken did not only contribute to an increased use of evaluation findings but also made the evaluation and its processes more democratic and better utilised.<sup>1126</sup>

Fourth, the evaluation experiment showed how fruitful a tool and practicable a method the evaluation (and specifically its process use) was for the NGO’s development programme in the development or adjustment of its services with low financial inputs. These organisations are known for lacking evaluation capacities, as Snibbe as well as Carman demonstrated. They found that the majority of NGOs have neither enough capacities (time, resources) to carry out evaluation nor the capacities needed in evaluation design and expertise, evaluation data collection or evaluation use.<sup>1127</sup> Based on the results of this evaluation experiment this research demonstrated how, by means of the process use of evaluation with very reasonable costs, development activities could be improved and developed to promote sustainability of these practices through on-going adaptation. However, it is important indeed, to recognise the challenges of learning-oriented evaluations as

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<sup>1125</sup> Nagao 2006, 28–31

<sup>1126</sup> MacNeil 2002, 45–54

<sup>1127</sup> Carman 2010, 256; Snibbe 2006

well. For they could challenge the use of limited time and resources and the balance between evaluation and learning, as well as the methodologies in operation.<sup>1128</sup>

Fifth, this empowering, transformative, collaborative, participative, utilisation-focussed, learning-oriented form of evaluation increased local stakeholders' involvement in evaluation at MHCC and contributed to commitment towards, and possession of, evaluation impacts. Indeed, maximisation of the process and findings' use in the VET evaluation required both participatory, collaborative evaluation practices (basically stakeholders' involvement) and culturally sensitive applications. Engagement in the evaluation process provided evidence that cognitive, affective, social or behavioural changes occurred at the personal level, while changes also appeared in the VET programme and its organisation's structure, culture and even its economy.

Sixth, the long duration of evaluation impacts was noted in the VET case. Interestingly, years after MHCC's first evaluation round, some individual impacts derived from the evaluation experiment were still being reported. Typical of these long-run effects on MHCC were the adoption of new self-evaluation practices. For instance, five years from the start of the evaluation process at MHCC, one staff member continued to invest the skills and knowledge acquired into conducting his own "evaluations." Also, one of the committee members utilised skills gained in the evaluation experiment in his voluntary work. At the organisational level, these changes which took place during the evaluation experiment of MHCC (between 2001–2006), were also identifiable after this period. The need for adaptation of the VET programme to its environment's demands was demonstrated by establishing new fields of training. Based on its economy and the demands of the surrounding society, MHCC's activities seem to have been successfully transformed when needed, with the assistance of learning gained through the evaluation experiment. It seems that evaluation knowledge and learning, as well as the evaluative habit of mind, plus appreciation of evaluation received in the evaluation experiment, were still in use.

These positive and lengthy results, in my case the bonuses of the process use of evaluation for the VET case at MHCC, paralleled the findings of Johnson, Patton as well as Forss *et al.* To them, learning and involvement in the evaluation process could contribute to long-lasting effects on the participants and their organisations, even much longer and greater than the impacts originating solely from evaluation

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<sup>1128</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009, 313; Preskill 2008, 127, 129; Preskill & Boyle 2008a, 452–453; Torres & Preskill 2001

findings.<sup>1129</sup> Indeed, the more than 20-year-long self-sufficiency of MHCC's educational services indicated its uniqueness in the educational sector worldwide, let alone in the developing world. This finding would indicate that processual evaluation utilisation has been one of ways MHCC can innovate its activities continuously and being financially self-supporting for over 20 years.

*Personal evaluation impacts.* The evaluation processes in the VET case at MHCC appeared to contribute fruitfully to the majority of individuals involved in them. Several changes in their knowledge, skills, cognitions, attitudes and motivation, behaviour and actions were reported. Evaluation use added cognitive learning, evaluative thinking, identification of shortages and deficiencies, raised awareness of evaluation issues as well as of evaluation language and logic, encouraged the use of the same evaluation language and concepts, and also caused cognitive changes (e.g., know-how was gained from the VET intervention, as well as from evaluation), all of which have taken place through first-hand knowledge, learning and reflection of the participants. These results are consonant with the findings of Amo and Cousins, as well as Mark and Henry.<sup>1130</sup> Again, these stakeholders of the VET case were taught while being involved in the evaluation process, as Forss *et al.* suggested to be done.<sup>1131</sup> Consequently, at MHCC they gained new knowledge about themselves, the evaluand, the VET centre, and its surrounding reality and evaluation practices; in addition, their evaluation capacity was developed.

Behavioural impacts, such as self-assessment, were made by some MHCC employees on the quality of their personal work. It followed that some MHCC staff members began their adaptation to the environment by means of using new teaching or cooperative methods. Affective results originating from the evaluation experiment such as personal growth and empowerment, self-confidence, professional growth, work appreciation, valuing of evaluation, moral boosting and encouragement were expressed by the evaluation participants. These personal evaluation impacts were congruent with the results of Amo and Cousins, as well as Mark and Henry.<sup>1132</sup>

*Interpersonal evaluation impacts.* Besides the personal changes, many interpersonal changes were also being reported to have taken place at MHCC because of the experiment. The evaluation participants learned about the VET programme and its

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<sup>1129</sup> Forss, Reben & Carlsson 2002, 29–45; Johnson 1998, 94; Patton 1997, 88, 91, 111; 1998, 225–233; 2007, 103, 110

<sup>1130</sup> Amo & Cousins 2007, 22; Mark & Henry 2004, 41

<sup>1131</sup> Harnar & Preskill 2007, 32; Saunders 2012, 425

<sup>1132</sup> Amo & Cousins 2007, 22; Mark & Henry 2004, 41

evaluation in the process. Their participation began to build a foundation for evaluation and evaluative learning by teaching them evaluation logic and skills. This contributed to their social evaluation impacts by inviting the evaluation participants' in collaboration and dialogue. This, in turn, allowed the voices of the guards, the parents and female graduates — those who are typically powerless Tanzanians within the VET organisations — to be heard. Furthermore, these disenfranchised stakeholders, such as guards and former students — historically locked-out of the official processes of MHCC — became empowered. This improved representation of different values and concerns of the multi parties and their engagement in the evaluation on VET and its decision-making processes.

These research findings were congruent with Podems's study as well.<sup>1133</sup> The active engagement in evaluation by bringing together “the less and the more powerful” groups cooperating at MHCC, at the same table, naturally intensified the communication and collaboration between various MHCC groups. This arrangement assisted MHCC leaders, and its committee members as well, to gain the full respect of the workers and graduates by finding common shared meanings and priorities for the development of MHCC's future. Similarly, the evaluation gave MHCC staff the stimulus towards further cooperation, not only inside MHCC, but also with local VET officers, their graduates and employers, through the establishment of stronger relationships, networks and partnerships.

MHCC graduates and staff showed respect not only for the researcher, but also for evaluation as a tool. The opportunity to collaborate and share their expertise with MHCC leaders and committee members for future development of MHCC and its VET through evaluation was highly appreciated. These locals even requested the researcher to offer more assistance in evaluation in the future.

My results showed that the user-focussed evaluation approach, by involving programme stakeholders, especially committee and management group members, could have strengthened the use of evaluation at MHCC. This was demonstrated by one committee member and the management group representatives who carried out their own evaluations and even utilised their results. This data was congruent with findings made by Patton; Preskill and Caracelli; Levin; Cousins and Leithwood; as well as Johnson.<sup>1134</sup> In addition, the study provided evidence that the evaluation process could impart useful knowledge by creating space for learning among

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<sup>1133</sup> Podems 2007, 92–95

<sup>1134</sup> Cousins & Leithwood 1986 in Johnson, Greenseid, Toal, King, Lawrenz & Volkov 2009, 379; Cousins & Leithwood 1993 in Amo & Cousins 2007, 17; Preskill & Caracelli 1997 in Fleischer & Christie 2009, 160

directors, as MHCC staff meeting practices implied. This result was congruent with the results of Podems's case narrative on process use carried out in Southern Africa.<sup>1135</sup>

*Collective evaluation impacts.* The findings of the evaluation experiment indicated that formative evaluation was managed to be used as the catalyst for development and a means for strengthening impacts. The VET institution has managed to adjust to its surroundings by strengthening its activities. Concrete actions have taken place based on the findings of the evaluation experiment which acted as the accelerator of changes made. This evaluative habit of mind was reflected in the behaviour of local multi-stakeholders, their learning and self-examination and the infusion of future-focussed evaluative thinking into MHCC's organisational culture. Hence, the VET centre's development practices were updated and improved successfully based on the evaluation experiment.

Some improvements were reported in the development of local evaluation capacity. The evaluation participants at MHCC were familiarised with evaluation language and encouraged to apply this language in the future development of MHCC and its VET. Therefore, they were assisted by evaluation to find common shared meanings and priorities for MHCC and its VET. With the assistance of evaluation, using the strategy of empowerment evaluation, MHCC as an organisation became more effective. A better understanding of the ways that MHCC, as an organisation, functioned were gained (i.e., learning took place). This comprehension led to better identification of the ways that MHCC as an organisation could be developed (i.e., renewal)<sup>1136</sup> when finding a consensus around the use of evaluation to move towards its goals (short term), mission (long term), and vision (the ultimate ideal). The strategies of the VET institution were crystallised, reformulated and updated. This was also reflected in FPCT, the background organisation for MHCC, through committee members when disseminating the evaluation knowledge and ideas. Again, my research results were congruent with the results of Podems's case narrative on process use carried out in Southern Africa, where evaluation also clarified the vision and mission of another NGO's programme.<sup>1137</sup>

The VET programme's structure underwent extensive alterations due to the evaluation. New courses and departments were established at MHCC, which impacted the management and functioning of the institution financially. The reporting system was systematised, which improved the follow-up process of

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<sup>1135</sup> Podems 2007, 92–95

<sup>1136</sup> Sanders 2002, 256–257

<sup>1137</sup> Podems 2007, 92–95

students. Evaluative thinking was infused into MHCC's organisational culture which contributed to organisational effectiveness through teaching methods and quality improvement. Still further, the organisation started to invest more in staff training. These betterments were targeted at increasing MHCC's reputation and attractiveness as a qualified VET provider among the new VET entrants in Lake Zone. In addition, some of MHCC's leaders developed more confidence and a morale boost regarding their everyday duties after receiving more respect based on the evaluation results which confirmed the accuracy of their views on certain issues. These findings strongly support the results of Amo and Cousins, as well as Mark and Henry, and Forss *et al.*<sup>1138</sup>

Furthermore, by putting evaluation in use it seemed to decrease the level of skepticism towards evaluation. Only two participants of the VET case expressed doubts about evaluation used as a method employed to contribute towards development and improvement of VET as well as its evaluation practices at MHCC. The rest of the group engaged in evaluation highly valued it and regarded it as very beneficial. Hence, MHCC staff neither resisted the evaluation and changes made based on its results in the organisation's practices nor saw the evaluation as a threat to the status quo. On the contrary, MHCC evaluation participants expressed their needs for systematic and ongoing use of evaluative knowledge to improve their organisation continuously. They expressed their future need for help in their programme evaluation and in building internal capacity for evaluation.<sup>1139</sup>

Moreover, it was possible to stretch learning in and on evaluation outside the original participant groups and their levels engaged in evaluation, when utilising the evaluation processes. This stretching took place beyond MHCC's boundaries, outside the VET organisation itself. It contributed to positive, widespread, commonplace diffusion. Hopefully, it can contribute towards the creation of a "social epidemic of evaluation,"<sup>1140</sup> an environment where continuous learning about and from evaluation takes place. This was exemplified by the expanded scope of activities derived from and inspired by the evaluation experiment at MHCC. Evaluative actions were taken by one committee member in his private and work lives, in FPCT as the organisation, as well as by one VET staff member in a private evaluation that was conducted.

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<sup>1138</sup> Amo & Cousins 2007, 22; Forss, Rebien & Carlsson 2002, 29–45; Mark & Henry 2004, 41

<sup>1139</sup> Botcheva, White & Huffman 2002, 421–434; Hoole & Patterson 2008, 93–94, 110–111

<sup>1140</sup> Preskill 2008, 127–138. To Galdwell (in Preskill 2008, 136) social epidemic has three elements: contagiousness; little causes can have significant effects; and changes occurring do not occur gradually, but rather at one dramatic moment.

*Exceptional evaluation impacts were found at the collective level.* In the VET case at MHCC, cultural and economic evaluation impacts of process use were identified at the collective level. If compared with the findings of Patton; Preskill and Caracelli; Levin; Cousins and Leithwood; as well as Johnson on processual evaluation use and its impacts,<sup>1141</sup> these results were new and have not been documented by any of these scholars in their studies. A stronger, future-oriented mindset was adopted in staff meetings and regarding development generally, in place of the earlier historical orientation. Besides this, cultural evaluation impacts such as better, on-going adaptation as well as better and quicker reactivity to changes happening in the society and the cultural environment were established.

Regarding economic impacts of the evaluation use, somewhat surprisingly, they seem to conflict with each other. These impacts were simultaneously beneficial from some persons' perspectives (i.e., more customers and popularity), while also negative to others (i.e., more expenditures). This finding was contrary to such scholars as Saunders or Mark and Henry, who had completely ignored and left this side out from discussion, by only defining evaluation impacts with positive attributes. Saunders clarified these impact as "the use of an evaluation to produce positive change,"<sup>1142</sup> while Mark and Henry with their "social betterment" target of evaluation understood that every evaluation contributed to positive practical changes by improving the state of the evaluand to become better than it was before the evaluation.<sup>1143</sup> However, in some cases, not only could evaluation results be negative, but so could evaluation impacts be negative or unintended, as the result of the evaluation experiment at MHCC displayed. Hence, the definition of evaluation impacts needs to be clarified; not having only positive but also negative consequences.

In this research on evaluation, democratisation of knowledge by local learning through empowerment evaluation was supported. This was expressed several times by its participants: the graduates and some staff members, like the guards. They expressed amazement at having been allowed equal opportunity to enter into the evaluation process of the VET case at MHCC with "the more powerful, the leaders." The knowledge generated during the evaluation process was put in the hands of the local multi-stakeholders with the assistance of the conscious standpoint and position taken by the evaluation initiators, evaluator and evaluation researcher with the

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<sup>1141</sup> Cousins & Leithwood 1986 in Johnson, Greenesid, Toal, King, Lawrenz & Volkov 2009, 379; Cousins & Leithwood 1993 in Amo & Cousins 2007, 17; Preskill & Caracelli 1997 in Fleischer & Christie 2009, 160

<sup>1142</sup> Saunders 2012, 433

<sup>1143</sup> Cousins 2003 in Mark & Henry 2004, 37; Henry & Mark 2003; 295; Mark 2011; Mark & Henry 2004



methodologies used in this evaluation research and the research on evaluation. This conscious standpoint made it possible to employ the process use of evaluation with empowerment evaluation and utilise the social relationship between the researcher and the researched. An open forum was arranged for the beneficiaries and multi-stakeholders of MHCC for discussion and debate. It led to cumulative learning and comprehension of some consequences for this learning originating from the prevailing power hierarchies and distances; not only because of participation, but also due to communication and the egalitarian setting provided to all involved for gaining shared understanding of the VET programme priorities.

The findings of Preskill *et al.* lent support to my standpoint taken, which enabled the locals' functional participation while evaluating. They found that if the evaluation process is composed of dialogue and reflection then the participants might be more actively engaged in and become aware of their own learning.<sup>1144</sup> All told, the local evaluation impacts were strengthened inside the development intervention and among its multi-stakeholders by means of evaluation use and with evaluation in action.

### 5.2.3 Theoretical implications: The evaluation factor via its elements influences evaluation use and impacts

In this report, my criticism was initially levelled at the contextual factor. This factor, apart from the evaluation factor and human factors found by Alkin and Taut in evaluation use, is linked to financial and political constraints, as well as the institutional evaluation systems. Their political and organisational backgrounds impact the evaluation context and its surroundings through program-specific features and administrative factors, which prioritise evaluation findings as the overarching learning source in evaluation use, and could result in meagre evaluation utilisation and impacts.<sup>1145</sup> I also criticised the disciplinary and hegemonic domains of powers materialised through institutionalised evaluation systems with their language, methods, time frames used and values prioritised in the development

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<sup>1144</sup> Preskill & Torres 1999; Preskill, Zuckerman & Matthews 2003, 439

<sup>1145</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003, 4

field<sup>1146</sup> having their origin in the New Public Management movement<sup>1147</sup> which have been reflected in poor evaluation usability.<sup>1148</sup>

Nevertheless, these political and financial constraints prohibiting evaluation use and sparking off the on-going debate in this report were not under my influence. Consequently, in this evaluation experiment at MHCC I had the possibility of using my influence through the evaluation and human factors, but I chiefly concentrated on the evaluation potency from these determinants colouring evaluation use. These human, personal factors linked to a user's and evaluator's characteristics (e.g., evaluation experiences, knowledge about evaluation, perceptions about the credibility of the evaluator) are touched on very briefly in the self-evaluation part of this report, in Chapter 5.3.<sup>1149</sup>

*Assessment of the working hypothesis: The researcher's standpoint and location, as one of the elements of the evaluation factor, is reflected in evaluation use and evaluation impacts.* I hypothesised that all research, including evaluation research, is standpoint-bound. The standpoint taken in an evaluation and the paradigm preferred by the evaluator or researcher, as one of the determinants of the evaluation factor, is crucial for evaluation impacts through evaluation use and users (the types, levels and duration of evaluation impacts of the evaluation activity conducted). So, I describe the current situation of development evaluation, as many scholars have done earlier, by saying that the Western and Eurocentric positivistic ontology, epistemology and methodologies prioritised necessitate the use of "hard" evaluation methods and methodologies to capture objective knowledge by external evaluators. Subsequently, an evaluator or researcher, an independent or supervisory body, operating as an outsider, takes a neutral, objective attitude towards and has a distanced relationship to the target of evaluation and its participants.<sup>1150</sup> Hence, these evaluation modes with their historical orientation, demanding methodological standards, vague statements and exclusion of the locals, have a crippling effects on local evaluation use, the loss of evaluation value, and the possibility of locals to participate in and to learn from them. Furthermore, the quantitative nature of the evaluation methods, overvalued in development evaluation, seems inappropriate to the local cultural

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<sup>1146</sup> see Collins 2000, 270–286, 299

<sup>1147</sup> Sasaki 2006, 67; 2008, 15

<sup>1148</sup> Saunders 2012

<sup>1149</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003, 4; Taut & Alkin 2003, 263

<sup>1150</sup> Abma 2006; Abma & Widdershoven 2008; Bamberger 2000; Bhola 1990, 16; Carlsson & Wohlgemuth 2000; Clements 2008; Patton 1997; Rubin 1995; Savedoff, Levine & Birdsall 2006; Van Den Berg 2005

context, reducing the multitudes of human experiences<sup>1151</sup> and legitimising only two types of evaluation data: goals and outcomes.<sup>1152</sup>

The concrete results received from the evaluation experiment at MHCC through evaluation lent support to the notion that the evaluation factor, through the conscious standpoint taken in evaluation and the evaluation paradigm chosen, is associated with the local multi-stakeholders' participation, reflection, empowerment, legitimisation of their viewpoints and experiences, evaluation ownership, as well as learning in evaluation and its use for adaptation. In fact, the use of the methodological choices made prevented me as the researcher/evaluator from undervaluing the learning of the locals in evaluation and their involvement in the evaluation process, which was also reflected in my theoretical outline made for this research. This standpoint taken indicated an increase in such issues as consumption and utilisation of evaluation processes as well as acts made based on these evaluation findings by having direct connection to them.

Yet further, the research results suggest that such vital elements of the evaluation factor as the evaluation design (the findings use or process use); time-frame (the past or forward-looking) and methods used (summative or formative: impact evaluation or empowerment evaluation); the evaluation target emphasised (accountability, learning or accountability for learning); as well as the roles played by evaluators (indigenous/external-outsider or indigenous/external-insider) and by evaluation users, had influence on evaluation impacts and use.<sup>1153</sup> In the VET case the participatory, learning and process-used-oriented evaluation approach was emphasised. I have referred to this throughout as “evaluation as learning,” “learning in evaluation,” “evaluation for development” and “evaluation for impacts.” The information gained through the research and evaluation process was used not only in the conceptualisation and identification processes of what the evaluation impacts were, but also for the direct improvement of the NGO programme itself (MHCC).

In fact, I had two options for evaluation standpoints in this evaluation experiment. Either to give strong support to local personal and cumulative learning in evaluation through their active participation and involvement in its processes, or to fail to substantiate this learning if wasting this potent force, viz. the local stakeholders' engagement and collaboration in the evaluation process if prioritising accountability as the evaluation purpose and the donors as the evaluation learners and users. Based on the studies carried out on impacts of development evaluations,

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<sup>1151</sup> Gaventa 1993 in Gaventa & Cornwall 2001, 74

<sup>1152</sup> Scriven 1991b; Stake 1975 in Hopson 2009, 432

<sup>1153</sup> Saunders 2012, 427–431, 434

I was not too optimistic about self-winding and spontaneous learning happening in development evaluations without a clear target, personal engagement, relevant methodologies and time-frames and practices.

Regarding the conscious standpoint as the researcher/evaluator, I used power and intellectual activism. The latter term, from Collins, was considered when determining to and with whom to dialogue and to whom to speak the truth. My decision was primarily based on the request made by the evaluation initiators, MHCC staff representatives, who, during my first field trip, gave me good reasons to choose to “speak the truth directly to the people (the masses)”<sup>1154</sup> instead of speaking “the truth to those in power (the elite)”<sup>1155</sup> to support the VET actors’ and agents’ ownership, their access and power to use the evaluation process and its findings in adaptation of the VET centre’s activities to the future environment.

By taking consciously the standpoint of being a “power-broker” I, as the researcher, prioritised certain forms of power exertion to intensify horizontal relationships inside the VET intervention and to reach stronger evaluation impacts. This took place by challenging the current power structures by sharing power with the local multi-stakeholders in this evaluation research. I purposefully offered “new” positions and forums by creating input opportunities for these stakeholders. Hence, I aimed at exercising power by giving the powerless the power to speak with the assistance of evaluation, and at influencing these large power distances and strict power hierarchies, which I knew existed in Tanzanian culture.

Multi-stakeholders linked to the development intervention were active participants and conclusion makers.<sup>1156</sup> With the help of the significant contribution made to evaluation by the locals, I “brought to life” for these local stakeholders the otherwise worthless “dying development evaluation.” This phrase was chosen by Nagao, due to its conflicting asymmetries between the time perspectives and goals of the donors and of the recipients.<sup>1157</sup> The action research strategy and the standpoint theory as the framework used in this case paved the way for these locals (with their priorities) to take the key role by means of process use of evaluation in the future-orientation and capacity development of MHCC and its evaluation. Hence, collaboration, self-determination and reflection of stakeholders were allowed, even demanded in empowerment evaluation with the researcher, who was

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<sup>1154</sup> Collins 2013, 38

<sup>1155</sup> Collins 2013, 38

<sup>1156</sup> Rebien 1997, 454–455

<sup>1157</sup> Nagao 2006, 28–31

the facilitator and coach as well as the critical friend, not empowering anybody, but supporting people to empower themselves.

By taking the recipients' standpoint, I became the soothsayer or mediator.<sup>1158</sup> This standpoint chosen in the VET evaluation was the exact opposite of the donor hegemonic paradigm, tied to the positivist, post-positivist, rationalistic, etc., orientation over-represented in development evaluations. I had levelled my criticism at this paradigm due to its resulting insufficient evaluation utilisation and rare evaluation impacts shown at the policy level, let alone at the local organisational or human levels of development interventions. This was the evaluation's finding.

I promoted dialogue between its actors and agents by changing their relationship; a donor and recipient relationship that has traditionally been very hierarchic and distant in development evaluation. The recipient hegemonic evaluation paradigm (referring to, for example, human-centred knowledge systems, pragmatic and transformative, etc.) valued enabled the local stakeholders' learning, a vital tool for strengthening their ownership and further development of services, as well as sustainability. I conclude, based on the findings of my research, than in answer to the main research question posed in Chapter 1.2: *"How did the evaluation factor (through the conscious standpoint taken in evaluation), and the evaluation paradigm chosen, impact utilisation of evaluation among multiple, local stakeholders of a development cooperation intervention?"* that the evaluation standpoint and paradigm chosen, as one of the elements of the evaluation factor (see Alkin and Taut),<sup>1159</sup> either increases possibilities for, or negates the efforts of, the local multi-stakeholders to utilise evaluation.

My working hypothesis was substantiated by Shulha as well as Cousins. They undertook a review and synthesis of literature published on evaluation use. Based on their empirical data Shulha and Cousins found that evaluation use was highly dependable on the role taken by the evaluator.<sup>1160</sup> In my vocabulary this role of the evaluator was strongly and primarily based on the evaluation standpoint and paradigm that was chosen.

The views of Contandriopoulos and Brousselle also supported my research hypothesis. To them, the theoretical evaluation paradigm and the position and standpoint chosen by the evaluator influence evaluation use and impacts. Again, they found that not only the evaluation process and the evaluator's role have impact on

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<sup>1158</sup> Mbigi 1995, 112 in Mugore 2002

<sup>1159</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003, 4

<sup>1160</sup> Cousins & Leithwood 1986 in Shulha & Cousins 1997; Johnson, Greenesid, Toal, King, Lawrenz & Volkov 2009, 381–382

the use of evaluation results, but the evaluation model chosen and evaluation context itself do as well.<sup>1161</sup> The linkage between the standpoint taken by the evaluator and evaluation impacts was confirmed by Alkin and Taut with three types of prohibiting factors for evaluation use, which they called human, context or evaluation determinants.<sup>1162</sup> Likewise, the study findings of Fleischer and Christie substantiated the idea that such elements in the evaluation factor as evaluators' practices have influential effects on increasing use, while contextual and human factors contribute to non-use more than the evaluation factor.<sup>1163</sup> Scholars such as Pickford and Brown, Saunders, Marra, Taut, and Alkin have also managed to establish connections between evaluation elements and evaluation impacts. They confirmed that if an evaluation is targeted to have achievable impacts, then the various evaluation elements should be considered.<sup>1164</sup>

Based on the summary made of the factors affecting development evaluation use, I emphasise that more knowledge is needed among evaluation commissioners, initiators, funders, and donors, as well as practitioners, about the major enhancing or prohibitive contextual, evaluation and human factors, with their elements, that lay behind evaluation utilisation and evaluation impacts. This statement was supported by Weiss. She confirmed that traditionally, positivist evaluators play a key role when defining study design. They use questions chosen specifically by them, they select the programme elements that match their focus, and choose how they measure these issues, while in constructivist evaluations there is a pressure towards local thinking and acting, as well as evaluation utilisation.<sup>1165</sup> These results confirmed the findings of Taut, who stressed that accountability (e.g., results-based management) cannot be prioritised if learning is targeted as the main evaluation purpose, because it limits evaluation for learning and contributes to deficient evaluation utilisation in development evaluation.<sup>1166</sup> What is most important from the viewpoint of the evaluation use are the findings of Cousins and Leithwood, who stated that evaluations focussing on implementation rather than outcomes exclusively might see more probability of use.<sup>1167</sup>

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<sup>1161</sup> Contandriopoulos & Brousselle 2012

<sup>1162</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003, 4

<sup>1163</sup> Fleischer & Christie 2009, 171

<sup>1164</sup> Marra 2000; Pickford & Brown 2006; Saunders 2012; Taut 2007c; Taut & Alkin 2003

<sup>1165</sup> Weiss 1998, 27–32

<sup>1166</sup> Taut 2007c, 45–59

<sup>1167</sup> Cousins & Leithwood 1986 in Leviton 2003, 526

I conclude that launching an attack against development evaluation non-use and/or insufficient use is clearly a necessity. It requires, first, widening the understanding of an evaluation's use, by including such usable elements as the process use of evaluation and evaluation commissioning. Second, urgent actions are demanded. An action that could be levelled against the non-use could be the processual evaluation use while evaluating. Therefore, I recommend the funders of development evaluations to put into practice Snibbe and Carman's demands, specifically of NGOs but also of other development activities, to begin to ask about, and reward, those organisations which demonstrate how they are using evaluation and performance data to improve service delivery rather than producing poorly used reports designed for accountability purposes.<sup>1168</sup> Based on the arguments explained in this report, I emphasise that all evaluations in any sector need to be used maximally, and their non-use, burial or limited use should be prevented. Also, I substantiated that due to the vast evaluation business conducted and scarcity of funding opportunities available for development cooperation and their evaluations, the fullest potentialities of all elements affecting their use and impacts, prioritising in this research case evaluation use and its consequences, should be observed, intensified and released. In every evaluation policy and plan in the evaluation commissioning phase concrete actions need to be required to be taken for evaluation utilisation. A written plan on evaluation use with evaluation impacts intended could be demanded to be produced from every evaluation conducted with public funds before the evaluation commissioning phase.

Above all, utilisation of evaluation is a question of political will due to its political nature as a process,<sup>1169</sup> including in the field of development evaluation.<sup>1170</sup> This political will should focus not only on the use of evaluation findings but also on evaluation processes which should be used as contributing factors towards increasing the evaluative learning capacity of an organisation, its stakeholders and/or surroundings.<sup>1171</sup> So, if having a political will, local participation and a process-use orientation should be adopted in an evaluation agenda that values the promotion and circulation of learning about, from and through evaluation as well.

Based on the evaluation experiment of the VET case at MHCC and its resulting positive impacts, I urge evaluation commissioners, like the MFA of Finland, to consider the need for investing more heavily in development evaluations, in process-

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<sup>1168</sup> Carman 2007, 72; Snibbe 2006

<sup>1169</sup> Kauppi 2004, 84; Kusek, Rist & White 2005

<sup>1170</sup> Cracknell 2000, 183

<sup>1171</sup> see Davidson 2005, 209; Patton 1997

based evaluation models, not only those affecting NGOs, but generally in all development programmes and all operational levels. External evaluators and hard evaluation methods exclude the locals from evaluation utilisation by rendering impossible their involvement in, and learning during, evaluation.<sup>1172</sup> Thereby, I view that the focus for evaluation should be shifted from the use of evaluation findings to the process use of evaluation, if evaluation impacts are desired to be increased locally by means of local learning and involvement of the local multi-stakeholders, as it was the question in my research case in Tanzania. This is a way for the day-to-day processes of a development intervention to be modified in real time and to be made more successful.<sup>1173</sup> The local implementers of the intervention need to learn how actions work to achieve the best impacts in the complex and unpredictable context of this activity.<sup>1174</sup>

*The use of transdisciplinary evaluation approaches could enrich and renew the currently prioritised theoretical and methodological solutions of development evaluation.* I discovered that development evaluation has been left behind by the evaluative practices of these other disciplines, and thus, could utilise more widely the theoretical and methodological applications used in other disciplines, for instance, in educational evaluation, as presented in Table 2.

An interesting claim made by Carden below, supported my views on the underdevelopment of development evaluation and gave rise to my growing concern about the real function of evaluation, its utilisation and impacts taking place at the local level of each development intervention.

...development evaluation is a phenomenon borne out of the need of funding agencies, but is not viable as a long-term approach to evaluation, and ultimately does not serve the development agencies themselves well. It is time for evaluation in the development sphere to stop isolating itself as a special case. Development agencies themselves will receive much more useful evaluations if they are able to evaluate their support in context of what else is going on rather than primarily in terms of their own programming.<sup>1175</sup>

Notwithstanding this emphasis on beneficiary-led processes, unfortunately a very limited range of evaluations has been carried out aiming at developing capacities or evaluation capacities of local stakeholders, although evaluation use is underscored more in the current development of development evaluation in South-Asia, for

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<sup>1172</sup> Guijt & Roche 2014

<sup>1173</sup> see e.g., Clemens & Demombynes 2013; Guijt & Roche 2014; Pritchett, Samji & Hammer 2013

<sup>1174</sup> Clemens & Demombynes 2013, 9

<sup>1175</sup> Carden 2013, 577



instance. The significance of this kind of research can be recognised in the development cooperation field, on one hand, because development evaluation is in crisis. It does not know either to prioritise results-based management (e.g., impact assessment, accountability) or capacity development (e.g., empowerment evaluation, learning), let alone to shift development evaluation out of the hands of the donor organisations (e.g., the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency) to independent evaluation organisations.<sup>1176</sup>

However, owing to the continuation of this donor superiority in development evaluation, Hay stressed the importance of more local-oriented perspectives in theory and practice development of development evaluation. She wrote that if “conceptual work on evaluation is dominated by the north, it limits both the global field of evaluation and the advancement of evaluation theory and practice .... Development evaluation needs continued and deepened theory and practice that is rooted in the contexts, needs, and cultures of different regions.”<sup>1177</sup>

In addition, I want to refer to Hay and her third, forthcoming phase in the evolution of development evaluation in South Asia. The phase that she advocates could be characterised by evaluation use. To her, it is finally time to concentrate on the multiple users of evaluation knowledge and evidence that deepens citizens’ engagement in evaluation.<sup>1178</sup> To me, her requirement captures such ideas as the process use of evaluation and local cumulative learning. Hay crystallised that development evaluations should utilise various groups by saying that “We need to reconstruct our understanding of ‘usefulness’ to include multiple users of knowledge and evidence that deepens citizen engagement in evaluation.”<sup>1179</sup>

Although Preskill trusts that we are in the process of creating a “global cascade”<sup>1180</sup> of evaluative practices and thinking, as well as developing cultures of evaluation,<sup>1181</sup> we could benefit from using more transdisciplinary approaches. In the future, NGOs’ development evaluations should be directed more toward exploring results by increasingly using the action research strategy for an “accountability for learning” purpose. In this way, development evaluations could be made more profitable and usable, and utilised at all the levels of the programme in question.

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<sup>1176</sup> Conlin & Stirrat 2008, 202

<sup>1177</sup> Hay 2010, 226

<sup>1178</sup> Hay 2010, 223–226

<sup>1179</sup> Hay 2010, 225

<sup>1180</sup> Preskill 2008, 127

<sup>1181</sup> Preskill & Boyle 2008a, 443

Due to the transdisciplinary approach used, after observing the historical phases of both disciplines, I viewed that educational evaluation, with its theoretical and methodological applications, could intensify the current development evaluation practices (which are based mainly on positivism). To an ever-increasing extent, these practices have been orientating towards a narrow range of evaluation methods (experimental or quasi-experimental), such as results-based management and impact assessment or impact evaluation; simply put, hard evaluation measurements. In development evaluation, this means the growing use of summative evaluations and methods to control accountability — typical features of poor evaluation use.

This “global cascade” means that evaluative learning and commitment to evaluation capacity building (and its use), as well as participatory methods and applications of technology which contribute to information dissemination, is expanding among individuals, groups, organisations, and communities. In order that these scholars’ view hold true, we should utilise more transdisciplinary approaches in development evaluation. For instance, educational evaluation dares to utilise the full range of evaluation approaches, as well as those ones allowing multi-stakeholders’ participation in evaluation. This type of evaluation then is more improvement-oriented, more formative, and supports the learning of stakeholders through, about, and from evaluation, as well as its process. The findings of Conlin and Stirrat reported the shift away from post-project evaluations in the development field because of seeing development an on-going process, a change that has been reflected in evaluators. They need to feed their activities and outputs back into this development process, instead of seeing their activities as reflections on a completed process.<sup>1182</sup>

## 5.2.4 Practical implications: The process use of evaluation contributes to evaluation use and impacts ...

Next, we summarise the key principles to illustrate how evaluative use and impacts could be intensified in practice. When speaking of “learning in evaluation,” which some scholars term “process use,”<sup>1183</sup> my research results established several ways to intensify evaluation impacts through evaluative learning, active participation and

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<sup>1182</sup> Conlin & Stirrat 2008, 204

<sup>1183</sup> e.g., Alkin & Taut 2003, 7; Amo & Cousins 2007, 22; Baptiste 2010, 58; Forss, Rebien & Carlsson 2002, 29–30; Harnar & Preskill 2007, 27, 32; Johnson 1998, 94; King 2007, 47; Kirkhart 2000, 7; 2005; 2011, 74–75; Mark & Henry 2004, 36; Patton 1997, 91, 111; 1998, 225–233; 2007, 99, 103, 110; Taut 2007b

evaluation utilisation. I linked evaluation to practices in which evaluation itself helped accumulate experiences. This made evaluation a self-reflective, cognitive, affective, behavioural, social, political, individual, interpersonal and collective learning process. Again, in this evaluation process, learning and teaching were both intertwined, and the purpose of evaluation was the improvement and development of activities, as well as the spread of knowledge and the revealing of problem areas to stakeholders.<sup>1184</sup>

Termination of development funds usually results in termination of an evaluation, if not the development intervention itself. This could have been the case at MHCC as well, even if the evaluation experiment was not been conducted, although the VET intervention has had and still has potential to be continued by local funds and to be developed further. Hence, utilisation of evaluation can strengthen a development intervention, as was the case at MHCC, where evaluation could be viewed as a treatment or intervention to support the programme. Some interesting viewpoints are worth addressing to understand more deeply how learning through evaluation could be strengthened. Prerequisites for evaluative learning were found by many scholars.<sup>1185</sup> We turn now to these evaluation elements contributing to evaluative learning.

... *if evaluation is regarded as a process*. If aiming at evaluation impacts and evaluation utilisation, the evaluation and evaluative learning should first be regarded and used as a process, as took place in the VET case at MHCC. This activity should include reflection and action, as happened in the evaluation experiment, which paralleled Raivola and Patton's views.<sup>1186</sup> Second, the target of this process should be learning. The evaluation process should be used as a tool for learning and training evaluation logic, skills and culture (e.g., evaluation concepts and language), as Patton has emphasised in which learning, and teaching could take place via learning by doing and peer-learning, and in which team-based arrangements and trust-building were used in seminars and workshops (e.g., empowerment evaluation ones). Third, these learning processes should be supported with local participation and capacity development, and by using collaborative methods and multiple communication channels, as Preskill and Boyle<sup>1187</sup> recommended, or even by external funding as

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<sup>1184</sup> see Raivola 1995, 21; 2000, 65–67

<sup>1185</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009; Forss, Cracknell & Samset 1994; Levin-Rozalis & Rosenstein 2005, Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein & Cousins 2009; Preskill & Torres 1999; 2000; Suzuki 2000; Taut 2007b, 50–51

<sup>1186</sup> see Patton 1997, 20, 90, 100; Raivola 1995, 21; 2000, 65–67

<sup>1187</sup> Preskill & Boyle 2008b, 161

Hoole and Patterson, as well as Botcheva *et al.* called for.<sup>1188</sup> This process should enable participants' engagement to guarantee continuous progress, on-going adaptation and rapid response of the development activities because of the changes occurring (i.e., in understanding, participants, technology, world etc.). These changes are not necessarily the result of progress, but above all, are the result of adaptation.<sup>1189</sup> Moreover, the stakeholders could more readily drum up support for evaluation activities as a strategy for performance improvement by making efforts to develop a spirit of continuous individual and organisational learning, development, and accountability for learning; when improving knowledge and understanding of evaluation.<sup>1190</sup>

... *if learning is prioritised as the prime evaluation purpose.* Learning as the main evaluation objective seemed to have contributed towards long-lasting evaluation use, as well as to improved evaluation impacts. The views of Dahler-Larsen and Carden paralleled my research purpose. Both scholars highlighted that if learning in evaluation is desired, the evaluation's prime purpose must be learning — from and through evaluation while evaluating.<sup>1191</sup> It was not enough for the MHCC stakeholders to simply recognise feedback on a given subject. Rather, emphasis was laid on how these evaluation results and processes could be utilised more effectively when developing the future performance of MHCC and its VET. Consequently, of the two main development evaluation targets set by the OECD-DAC (for instance), learning was preferred to accountability as the evaluation purpose at MHCC. This learning purpose of evaluation prioritised at MHCC was likely to improve the implementation of the VET intervention more efficiently and longer through process use than if accountability was emphasised as the evaluation priority and the evaluation findings written in these reports used as the sole learning source. This was confirmed by such scholars as Johnson, Patton, Taut, as well as Forss *et al.*<sup>1192</sup>

Learning as the evaluation priority among NGOs was worth valuing due to its positive consequences. This target was stressed by MHCC staff and committee members during my first field trip in Tanzania; these persons were responsible for MHCC's operations and development, and some of them also represented FPCT, MHCC's background NGO. They needed evaluative learning at their personal level

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<sup>1188</sup> Botcheva, White & Huffman 2002, 421–434; Hoole & Patterson 2008, 110–111

<sup>1189</sup> Patton 1996

<sup>1190</sup> see King 2007; Taylor-Powell & Boyd 2008

<sup>1191</sup> Carden 1998, 67; Dahler-Larsen 2009, 312, 320; Suzuki 2000, 99–100

<sup>1192</sup> Forss, Kruse, Taut & Tenden 2006, 129; Johnson 1998, 94; Patton 1997, 88; Taut 2007c, 45–59. See also Mark & Henry 2004, 36.

but also within these organisations, for survival, adaptation, improvement, and renewal of VET services and for creating future practices. Botcheva *et al.*, as well as Hoole and Patterson, demonstrated in their studies that those organisations which used evaluation for their adaptive, learning, purposes succeed more in their implementation than those organisations prioritising evaluation as a tool for controlling their accountability.<sup>1193</sup> Understandably, these locals at MHCC gave priority in evaluation to the development of evaluation knowledge and capacities as well as tools useable for future development of their activities, over the “past tense” summaries published on conducted activities in evaluation reports by externals, which was congruent with Nagao’s results.<sup>1194</sup> To conclude, the evaluation purpose, reason, function, or objective prioritised can either prevent and hinder or enhance and advance evaluation use and its impacts, as many scholars have noted.<sup>1195</sup>

... *if the local multi-stakeholders are regarded as the main evaluation learners and users.* The fact that learning was recommended and chosen by the locals as the evaluation purpose for the VET evaluation made them the knowers and users of their evaluation knowledge. Hence, these people wanted to become heard and to have a role in the reflection processes at MHCC so that they were not controlled by norms or funds, or by other people with their assessments and their voices. This learning-orientation purpose demanded from the VET multi-stakeholders their active engagement, interaction, practical and situated knowledge, access to social contacts, as well as practice with relevant methods, and ownership of the evaluation practices at MHCC.

Dahler-Larsen, Suzuki as well as Preskill *et al.* argued that if learning in evaluation was prioritised and desired to take place, the learners needed to be conscious of this learning goal.<sup>1196</sup> Considering the VET case, learning as the evaluation target was revealed to the locals; or to be more precise, the Tanzanians themselves set this goal for the evaluation experiment when giving their feedback in the first evaluation and strategic leading seminar at MHCC. The VET case appears to have indicated that both the evaluator and evaluation participants needed to be informed and aware of this learning purpose and the goals of learning targeted in the evaluation.<sup>1197</sup>

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<sup>1193</sup> Botcheva, White & Huffman 2002; Hoole & Patterson 2008

<sup>1194</sup> Nagao 2006, 28–31

<sup>1195</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003; Contandriopoulos & Brousselle 2012; Marra 2000; Pickford & Brown 2006; Saunders 2012; Shulha & Cousins 1997; Taut 2007c; Taut & Alkin 2003

<sup>1196</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009, 312, 320; Preskill, Zuckerman & Matthews 2003, 438; Suzuki 2000, 99–100

<sup>1197</sup> Preskill, Zuckerman & Matthews 2003, 438

Evaluation in the VET case at MHCC was used intentionally as a learning arena, an effective and alternative way to improve the usability and effectiveness of development evaluations. The persons engaged in MHCC's evaluation process were given (with the assistance of the personal evaluation experiment) the rare and unique but very empowering opportunity to learn to think evaluatively, like evaluators. Those engaged could learn to understand how they could act based on the evaluation results and use them in their decision-making processes. Processual evaluation impacts are a typical result and were demonstrated by some persons in the Tanzanian VET case. They not only began to think evaluatively and see their environment like an evaluator, but also to act by conducting small scale evaluative tasks.<sup>1198</sup> In my evaluation experiment this was demonstrated by one committee member, as well as management group members. These participants of evaluation showed, with their own actions and evaluations, that dissemination of evaluation thinking began to show results long after the evaluation had been carried out, and had considerable influence in their work, voluntary works and private lives. I interpret that this learning in evaluation, which was stretched outside the organisation evaluated, was reached by means of adopting a new type of evaluative thinking and evaluative skills during the evaluation process. Again, I speculate that if evaluation findings had been used as the sole learning source in evaluation then this type of learning would have been even less likely to occur, and evaluation impacts would not have lasted so long, as Patton and Johnson's findings confirmed. They stated that this learning and involvement in the evaluation process can more effectively contribute to long-lasting and greater impacts on the participants and their organisations than if they have solely originated from evaluation findings.<sup>1199</sup>

... *if the evaluator's role is the facilitator, power-broker, catalyst, or negotiator.* The paradigm emphasising recipient hegemony and their standpoint used in this research changed the location of evaluation users. I tried to speak to and with the masses (i.e., MHCC multi-stakeholders) instead of the elite, if quoting Collins.<sup>1200</sup> I in cooperation with the evaluated, we tried to capture meaningful insights, to share power and reveal changes needed in the process. In doing so, by training and facilitating evaluation, my and other participants' knowledge become shared knowledge by means of my various roles: an interpreter, educator, facilitator, and researcher, as seen in Chapter 2.2.3.<sup>1201</sup> Then, I as the evaluator was merely a mediator, co-player and a power-

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<sup>1198</sup> Patton 1997, 88; 2008, 108; Saunders 2012, 425

<sup>1199</sup> Johnson 1998, 94; Patton 1997, 88. See also Mark & Henry 2004, 36.

<sup>1200</sup> Collins 2013, 38

<sup>1201</sup> Abma 2005, 280; Edelenbos & van Buuren 2005, 596; Poikela & Poikela 2006, 231

broker in the VET case, no longer studying events or things alone as the expert, as the evaluators during the first three generations of evaluation have done (see Table 2).

The Tanzanians' participation was legitimated with local, communicational interaction, linguistic practices, indigenous narratives and discourses. The locals at MHCC could enter into dialogue as well as bring their different cultural interpretations and controversial values as sources for legitimation of knowledge in the evaluation experiment on the VET case. This was opposed to what Kvale referred to as "a new Western intellectual and economical neocolonisation."<sup>1202</sup>

... *if the local multi-stakeholders are actively involved in the evaluation process.* The engagement of the local stakeholders in evaluation at MHCC was essential for the change process of the VET program and its evaluation. The starting and continuation of these changes demanded, and will continue to demand, these people's involvement in MHCC in the future. Understandably, the learning-oriented purpose of evaluation — typical of the action research approach that aims at strengthening institutions and building agency or organisational capacity in some evaluative areas used as a part of evaluative process — was prioritised in this research together with the empowerment aspect.<sup>1203</sup>

When referring to knowledge building in evaluation, it could be linked to the utilisation of evaluation processes by assisting local stakeholders' engagement in these processes.<sup>1204</sup> These locals of the VET intervention could have made decisions in cooperation at the local level and taken actions to formulate an outcome, while conducting evaluation. In this way, the VET activity has been improved and modified during its existence. It took place by the conscious use of lived experiences of the evaluation stakeholders, their interaction, practical training and evaluation capacity development as well as through dialogue with them.

Due to the process use of evaluation and local learning, the outcomes of this research presented that multi-stakeholders' roles at MHCC were strengthened (e.g., in the use and dissemination of evaluative knowledge, data generation, and the evaluator's roles) and their evaluation capacity as well as evaluation ownership was developed; seeing that mutual, individual, interpersonal and collective cumulative learning was possible to take place through this evaluation process through their

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<sup>1202</sup> Kvale 1995, 13–14, 18

<sup>1203</sup> see Brydon-Miller, Greenwood & Maguire 2003, 11; Chelimsky 1997, 21; Heikkinen 2001, 170, 172; Kuusela 2005, 10; Syrjälä 1995b, 35

<sup>1204</sup> Collins 2000, 256–257, 260–261, 271, 296

involvement.<sup>1205</sup> They learned in evaluation, which was linked not only to evaluation understanding but also to learning about the VET programme, its organisation and its activities, which all increased. Indeed, my results suggest that learning which took place through participant involvement was consistent with Jacob *et al.* who conducted a study on a Canadian NGO. *They stated that the process use and participant learning are worth using when the organisation needed rapid changes.* To Forss *et al.* *individual learning through active participation contributed to learning more rapidly than passive communication itself.*<sup>1206</sup> Forss *et al.* compared two ways in which evaluations result in learning, and found that active participation in evaluative practices generated individual learning more quickly than passive communication itself.<sup>1207</sup>

*The active participation of stakeholders in evaluation has been linked to stronger evaluation use and usefulness.* The evaluation experiment seemed to have indicated that at MHCC the engagement of the Tanzanian multi-stakeholders tended to increase utilisation of the VET evaluation not only while evaluating but also years after the evaluation process was carried out. This result was consonant with the findings of Thayer and Fine of 140 US non-profit organisations on the relationship between stakeholders' participation levels and evaluation use. They reported that evaluations with a high level of stakeholder participation were more likely to be used than those with a low level of stakeholder involvement. As Thayer and Fine demonstrated, and as was reported at MHCC also, the stakeholders' participation markedly improved programme outcomes or impacts and assisted in deciding resource allocation within the organisation and how best to respond to questions or criticism about the VET programme. This was demonstrated at MHCC by the establishment of follow-up systems for the students and resource allocation for new training fields and dormitories. In addition, in terms of VETA, MHCC staff members became better prepared to a dialogue with them on quality assurance questions because of the evaluation results. To these scholars, evaluations were more beneficial, credible, and satisfying to non-profit agencies when they had a solid and focussed design, documented programmatic success, made recommendations for program improvement, and engaged stakeholders.<sup>1208</sup>

Congruent with my statements, and on the grounds of their empirical study, Johnson and her colleagues identified factors that indicated local participation promoted the use of evaluation. Again, Johnson and her research fellows saw

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<sup>1205</sup> see Preskill 2008, 129

<sup>1206</sup> see Jacob, Ouvrard & Bélanger 2011, 113, 121–122

<sup>1207</sup> Forss, Cracknell & Samset 1994

<sup>1208</sup> Thayer & Fine 2001, 105–106, 108



participation as facilitating evaluation process which improved the evaluation implementation characteristics. Likewise, they argued that “stakeholder involvement is a mechanism that facilitates those aspects of an evaluation process[’s sic.] or setting that lead to greater use.” What is more, they stressed that “More than just involvement by stakeholders or decision makers alone, however, the findings from this literature review suggest that engagement, interaction, and communication between evaluation clients and evaluators is key to maximizing the use of the evaluation in the long run.”<sup>1209</sup>

... *if the local methodological relevance in evaluation is considered.* Apart from the location of power and the nature of knowledge, the results suggest that another key factor that impacts the utilisation of evaluation was the methodology chosen. This has been the focal point of this research. In my case, support was found for the assumption that the evaluation methods applied needed to be culturally relevant and to support this learning target so that it could be met. Therefore, in my case, knowledge and action were key elements to local learning through evaluation at MHCC and its evaluation which applied the action research strategy. Knowledge and action were concrete changes originating from MHCC’s evaluation process.

Collaborative methods, like empowerment evaluation, were used at MHCC to strengthen learning in and on evaluation, to develop evaluation capacity. The results of the case study of Stevenson *et al.* conducted on a community-based organisation in the US were congruent with my statements concerning the benefits of collaborative methods used. Their study revealed, for instance, that evaluation capacity building was strengthened at MHCC through the workshop series, which contributed to gaining a deeper understanding of evaluation. It followed that evaluation was no longer regarded as an isolated activity but rather as a way to improve quality continuously.<sup>1210</sup> Therefore, the workshop arrangements and “pedagogical seminars,”<sup>1211</sup> which Schwandt recommended be used, were held at MHCC, on the subject of evaluation. These seminars, focussing on strategic leading and management as well as on empowerment evaluation, were beneficial and fruitful instruments for developing evaluation capacity inside MHCC, and in gaining a deeper, shared understanding of the VET programme and its future. They assisted in considering locals’ preferences, priorities and knowledge, and made them an easy-access route to evaluation processes and results.<sup>1212</sup>

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<sup>1209</sup> Johnson, Greenseid, Toal, King, Lawrenz & Volkov 2009, 389

<sup>1210</sup> Stevenson, Florin, Scott Mills & Andrade 2002, 233–243

<sup>1211</sup> Schwandt 2005, 103 in Taut 2007b, 48

<sup>1212</sup> see e.g., Berg 2000; Carlsson 2000; Edgren 2000

... *if the process use of evaluation is supported internally and externally.* Further development of MHCC's VET activities and their evaluation were desired, by means of the evaluation. Indeed, at MHCC, the assistance of leadership (e.g., committee and management), organisational structures (e.g., strategic leading and evaluation seminars), culture (e.g., learning and evaluation culture, future-orientation), and communication (e.g., dialogues in workshops and seminars as well as in the group interview) contributed to this learning, which was congruent with the results of Preskill and Torres.<sup>1213</sup> This local support was important for the VET institution, because as Hagen, for instance, has argued, the hierarchy of authority in tradition-bound environments increases authoritarian leadership, which is typical of many African societies and limits an individual's opportunity to participate in decision-making and to have self-confidence.<sup>1214</sup>

Additionally, Alaimo emphasised the evaluator's role in helping the organisation and its leaders to be involved in evaluation capacity development, as I did at MHCC. This was the turning point for the VET centre's stakeholders. This capacity development took place at MHCC through education, assistance, affirmation, and empathy, to gain better understanding of, and build long-term commitment and capacity for, evaluation.<sup>1215</sup> In the VET case it started by creating a space and forum for the locals' inclusion; their active involvement; their training on the basics of evaluation with culturally context-dependent methods, like with the empowerment evaluation seminar and workshops, and the role taken consciously by the evaluator. Then, evaluation capacity development was connected to organisational development. It mobilised potential supplies and strengthened the evaluation capacities of the participants in the developing country to carry out and manage their own evaluations. In this way, the use and local ownership of evaluation could gradually be promoted.<sup>1216</sup>

Again, the study of Carman and Fredericks showed that if evaluation capacity development efforts were extended by the evaluator from the staff to the board members, then evaluation was valued as more beneficial;<sup>1217</sup> a phenomenon which took place at MHCC as well. Hence, due to this local engagement of MHCC key leaders, together with the MHCC committee members in the evaluation processes,

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<sup>1213</sup> Preskill & Torres 2000

<sup>1214</sup> Hagen 1962 in Themba, Chamme, Phambuka & Makgosa 1999, 111

<sup>1215</sup> Alaimo 2008, 73, 89

<sup>1216</sup> Feinstein & Beck 2006, 541, 554

<sup>1217</sup> Carman & Fredericks 2010, 101

more profound changes in the VET intervention and its evaluation were identified, which enabled the long duration of these ongoing changes (Table 17).

Since the introduction of the evaluation, MHCC's organisational environment with its key actors, the leaders of MHCC and its committee members, joined in the whole evaluation process with very positive attitudes. They valued the evaluation and promoted evaluation utilisation through evaluation capacity development. These local multi-stakeholders were owners of the evaluation process and in charge of the quality of the evaluand, they also had autonomy to make changes based on the knowledge processed on the grounds of evaluation in their VET programme. MHCC's culture was trustful and transparent, which required that all the parties of the VET institution approached mistakes and failures in a constructive way. The aforementioned findings, reported by Trochim, were among ideal values useable for strengthening the evaluative learning culture.<sup>1218</sup>

In the VET institution non-resistance towards evaluations, and interest in carrying out and participate in evaluation were reported. These signs within the organisation were the opposite of an "anti-learning" culture with a "status quo" mentality, the circumstances in which staff resist changes, fears risk-taking, has negative attitudes towards data collection, and distrust the organisation.<sup>1219</sup> Also, efforts for evaluation capacity development were allowed, a step that Botcheva *et al.* required evaluators to take if aiming at successfully transitioning an organisation to be learning-focussed. Risk-taking was approved of at MHCC as well, which was demonstrated by establishing new training fields as a result of the evaluation process and evaluative learning.<sup>1220</sup>

The data indicated that the management and the advisory group members were vital players in utilisation of MHCC's evaluation process and its findings. This result was confirmed by Preskill *et al.* and Alaimo, as well as Carman and Fredericks, who showed in their studies that among contributing variables to the process use of, and learning in, evaluation was the leaders' role. At MHCC, as well as in studies on US NGOs, the leadership had a key role in successful implementation of evaluation efforts. Management support was crucial in the evaluation use at MHCC as well, as evidenced by their willingness to alter the VET programme through learning based on the evaluation process and findings after seeing evaluation as a learning opportunity and tool capable of improving the VET programme, while enhancing

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<sup>1218</sup> See e.g., Trochim 2006

<sup>1219</sup> Hoole & Patterson 2008, 110–111

<sup>1220</sup> Botcheva, White & Huffman 2002, 421–434

MHCC as an organisation towards its goals and helping individuals improve their individual work performance.<sup>1221</sup>

The seminars at MHCC were collaborative, practical actions and group works in which participation and dialogue supported peer-learning. Scholars such as Cousins *et al.* found links between capacity building and use of evaluation with a “culture of evaluative inquiry or organizational readiness for evaluation.”<sup>1222</sup> In fact, the studies reviewing empirical research on evaluation capacity building and evaluation use paralleled my results. Similarly, as with the former scholars, I connected process use and evaluation capacity building, and saw process use as one way, and a learning system, for evaluators to assist organisations in actively building their evaluation capacity. In such an event if evaluation is integrated into the organisation’s ongoing activities, it can become a tool for learning that fosters the development of shared values and understanding within the organisation. In this regard, this type of organisation can be recognised based on its culture of evaluative research or its organisational readiness for evaluation.<sup>1223</sup>

Typical features of the capacity development efforts at MHCC were a sense of ownership of evaluation, involvement in evaluation, opportunities for individual and corporate learning inside the organisation from and through evaluation, as well as through reflection, process use of evaluation, commitment to evaluation, and evaluation capacity development.<sup>1224</sup> Evaluation capacity development included the equipping of the organisation’s staff with the appropriate skills to carry out evaluations. Those evaluations could then be carried out context-dependently, so that they may become ordinary, ongoing, routine practices within the organisation or programme. In addition, it required an appropriate learning environment and a sufficient level of resources, to be able to reach the outcome desired in the future: to enshrine high-quality evaluations in routine practice.<sup>1225</sup>

My findings substantiated the results of Hoole and Patterson. Both the leadership of the organisation and the evaluation initiators can facilitate evaluation use and learning taking place through it with the assistance of the process use of evaluation. Unsurprisingly, these scholars discussed that shifting the focus of evaluation from

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<sup>1221</sup> Alaimo 2008, 73, 83, 89; Carman & Fredericks 2010, 101; Preskill, Zuckerman & Matthews 2003, 423–442

<sup>1222</sup> Cousins, Goh, Clark & Lee 2004, 124

<sup>1223</sup> Cousins, Goh, Clark & Lee 2004, 106–107, 124; Fetterman 2003, 49; Harnar & Preskill 2007; King 2007, 46; Preskill & Boyle 2008a. See Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein & Cousins 2009, 204.

<sup>1224</sup> Preskill, Zuckerman & Matthews 2003, 424; Taut 2007c, 51

<sup>1225</sup> Milstein & Cotton 2000; Naccarella, Pirkis, Kohn, Morley, Burgess & Blashki 2007, 232; Stevenson, Florin, Scott Mills & Andrade 2002; Stockdill, Baizerman & Compton 2002; Taut 2007c, 45–59

accountability and basic reporting to a process of continuous organisational learning requires commitment of organisational leadership and the use of evaluation capacity development. An infrastructure should be appropriate and developed by the organisational leadership as well as supported by the funders.<sup>1226</sup>

Internal promotion certainly intensified the evaluation use and impacts at various levels of the VET institution, but external resources also played a part. The financial, external support given to the researcher by Fida, enabling the evaluation field work to be carried out between the years 2001–2002, seemed to have boosted the implementation of evaluation practices and learning culture through evaluation capacity development efforts within the VET institution. Resources, such as time, facilitation and incentives were essential for evaluation capacity development together with supportive requirements and policies that Taut termed “sympathetic pressure.” Without these elements which promoted learning, long-term behavioural impacts would have been unlikely at MHCC.<sup>1227</sup> Similar findings are found by Botcheva *et al.* to whom the linkage between systematic evaluation practices and evaluative learning culture could be intensified by external funding,<sup>1228</sup> in which process the funders play a key role in funding evaluation capacity building efforts.<sup>1229</sup> This lent support to the notion that learning while evaluating needs to be sustained and resourced.

... *if the evaluation pays attention to the cultural context of the process.* When targeting at local learning, the evaluation had to be relevant to its multi-stakeholders (i.e., purpose, methodology and methods, time-orientation). This evaluation experiment not only gave voice to the stakeholders engaged but it also preserved their multiple realities, experiences, and interpretations by focussing on participants’ perspectives and considering their cultural context.<sup>1230</sup> In addition, my emphasis was on the processes, meanings and qualities of entities prioritised by recipients, rather than measurements or analysis of causal relationships between experimentally measured or examined variables, as Nagao reflected in his study.<sup>1231</sup> This focus on local actors in the process did not comport to the politics of strengthening donor hegemony and

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<sup>1226</sup> Hoole & Patterson 2008, 93–94, 111

<sup>1227</sup> Taut 2007c, 55–57

<sup>1228</sup> Hoole & Patterson 2008, 110–111

<sup>1229</sup> Botcheva, White & Huffman 2002, 421–434

<sup>1230</sup> see Ronkainen, Pehkonen, Lindblom-Ylänne & Paavilainen 2011, 81; Wandersman, Snell-Johns, Lentz, Fetterman, Keener, Livet, Imm & Flaspohler 2005, 28

<sup>1231</sup> Nagao 2006, 28–31

methods of positivism as used in most development evaluations.<sup>1232</sup> Again, the qualitative approach adopted aimed to assist these local stakeholders to join in and be cooperative in redirecting and improving their development activities further through evaluation and the use of evaluation processes, as well as to learn from evaluation results and evaluation processes through their active involvement.<sup>1233</sup>

Involvement of the Tanzanians in the evaluation process of the VET case allowed their cultural traits to be acknowledged. Being in contact with potential users was, to Abma, the way the evaluation could be tied to the culture of potential users.<sup>1234</sup> The evaluation experiment implied that this evaluation was successfully tied to the culture of the Tanzanian evaluation users via various elements relevant to them (i.e., evaluation purpose, methodology and methods, users' location, time-orientation). This finding was congruent with Dahler-Larsen as well, which Suzuki expressed more concretely by saying that knowledge acquired should be practical so that it can be put into action and concrete actions could be taken as a result of evaluation. Further, Suzuki underlined that knowledge should be situated in its original context, regarding its social, cultural, political, and historical environment.<sup>1235</sup>

During the evaluation conducted at MHCC, evaluative, practical, situational, and culturally appropriate knowledge, which meant usability of the knowledge in its genuine Tanzanian context, was produced.<sup>1236</sup> Again, the evaluation at MHCC was conducted so that meaningful evaluative learning-oriented situations, with culturally sensitive approaches and appropriate methods, in an authentic environment, linked to the experiences or lives of the learners and their knowledge were utilised. The Tanzanian locals involved in this evaluation process became social actors in which their experiences through participatory, evolving, and mobilising processes, led to improvement at MHCC as an organisation as well as in the lives of the people involved in it.<sup>1237</sup> Their skills needed for on-going self-evaluation, reflection, and improvement of performance were strengthened, and these local people's voices were made heard so that they were able to improve the design and implementation of this development intervention; ensuring both effective allocation of resources and direct links to decision-making during the existence of the VET programme. These essentials — active engagement of the locals in the evaluation process, and

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<sup>1232</sup> see Denzin & Lincoln 1994, 4

<sup>1233</sup> see Fred Erickson 1986 in Stake 1995, 8; Stake 1995, 12

<sup>1234</sup> Abma 2006, 193

<sup>1235</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009, 312, 320; Suzuki 2000, 99–100

<sup>1236</sup> see e.g., Saunders 2012, 427–431, 434

<sup>1237</sup> Gaventa & Cornwall 2001, 76; 2006, 126–127

interaction with them, as well as the conscious standpoint taken by the researcher, enabled more profound evaluation impacts to be reached at the local level.

... *if the evaluation values the locals' time perspective.* "Learning in evaluation" due to its evaluation process use contributes to adoption of the future orientation and longer-lasting impacts at the local level of the development intervention more strongly than only "learning on evaluation" based on evaluation findings use. The research data provided evidence that if aiming at a future orientation, better evaluation utilisation and/or long-lasting evaluation consequences, especially with local buy-in, the process use of evaluation should be valued. The process use of evaluation and evaluation capacity development at MHCC were future-oriented practices. The use of the evaluation process through empowerment evaluation contributed to adopting the future orientation in the VET. The findings of Patton, Dahler-Larsen and Nagao confirmed this as well. They saw that the local recipients appreciated the use of the future perspective and development of practices, through evaluation, which enables the evaluation use for local impacts.<sup>1238</sup>

The research data indicated long-run effects derived from the evaluation processes carried out at MHCC. The evaluation experiment at MHCC produced evidence, based on the written feedback, that the evaluation process was worth utilising as a far-reaching tool, generating noticeable effects at MHCC, both in the lives of VET participants and within their organisations, such as MHCC and FPCT. When organising the seminar and workshops on evaluation and empowerment evaluation, immediate, end and long-term evaluation impacts derived from the evaluation use were noticed in the VET case. These impacts were identifiable not only at MHCC while evaluating, but also at the end of evaluation cycles and long after the completion of the evaluation carried out. These long-lasting evaluation impacts were seen years after the beginning of the evaluation process itself, especially in the form of various kinds of learning — to think in the evaluative way as well as to change and develop their actions based on evaluation — among the individuals involved in the evaluation (e.g., the former students, the staff members, and the committee members), the groups (e.g., the management group, the teachers), and the organisations (MHCC, FPCT).

My research results, generated from the evaluation experiment of evaluation impacts in the VET programme at MHCC, supported the views of Patton, Preskill *et al.* as well as of Johnson and Saunders on the far-reaching impacts of processual evaluation use. These scholars summarised by stating that if utilised, an evaluation process could contribute to long-lasting and greater evaluation impacts and learning

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<sup>1238</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009, 313; Nagao 2006, 28–36; Patton 1997, 91, 111; 1998, 225–233; 2007, 103, 110

more than the findings that result from that same evaluation.<sup>1239</sup> The research findings at MHCC were consistent with Kirkhart's findings, who reported three timeframes for evaluation impacts,<sup>1240</sup> which was congruent with the data from the study of Torres and Preskill, who identified the near transfer, short-term transfer of evaluation learning, and then, the far, long-term transfer, when learning was generalised into new situations.<sup>1241</sup>

The process use of evaluation could minimise one asymmetry, which, for instance, prohibits evaluation utilisation, identified by Nagao between the donors and the recipients in development evaluation. This time frame dissymmetry was specifically between results-based, impacts-focussed, effectiveness-centred, past-oriented, evaluation practices, such as impact evaluations that are valued by donors, and the recipients' value for self-reliant approaches for such purposes as capacity building and learning.<sup>1242</sup> To the latter, process use of evaluation is valuable for the locals because of its future and process-oriented evaluation practice. It assists them to redesign their intervention when changes are taking place in the intervention and its environment. By means of the process use of evaluation, the locals can improve their networking and intensify partnerships with multi-stakeholders. Again, this processual use of evaluation can contribute towards continuous utilisation of reflection on activities and evaluation capacity building and can even foster steps towards systematic empirical inquiry and preparedness.<sup>1243</sup>

I postulate that the process use of evaluation, with evaluation capacity development within projects or programmes funded by foreign aid, have been neglected as tools for on-going improvement of these development activities, their sustainability,<sup>1244</sup> their impacts<sup>1245</sup> and their real-time adaptability. If the evaluation process would be used, "tacit knowledge" would remain obscure to the organisation nor unstored in its institutional memory due to the use of external-insiders or internal-insiders (cf. evaluation consultants). Furthermore, responsibility concerning evaluation use and decision-making based on these evaluations cannot be obscured, hidden, or made to vanish without a trace.<sup>1246</sup>

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<sup>1239</sup> Johnson 1998, 94; Patton 2008, 108; Preskill, Zukerman & Matthews 2003, 423; Saunders 2012, 425

<sup>1240</sup> Kirkhart 2000, 7; 2005; 2011, 74–75

<sup>1241</sup> Holton & Baldwin 2003 in Preskill & Boyle 2008a, 453; Preskill 2008, 129

<sup>1242</sup> Nagao 2006, 28–31

<sup>1243</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009, 313

<sup>1244</sup> See sustainability in footnote 132.

<sup>1245</sup> see e.g., Mark & Henry 2004, 51

<sup>1246</sup> See e.g., Berg 2000, 34; Kuusela & Ylönen 2013, 100–101.



### 5.3 Self-evaluation on the quality of this evaluation research and research on evaluation

It is high time to assess the quality and credibility of this research by using scientific criteria rather than my own assumptions or feelings of success. I shall touch on the standpoint taken by the researcher by focussing on the reliability and validity of this research. The question of the researcher's ethical behaviour is also addressed.<sup>1247</sup>

This evaluation research and research on evaluation was judged by its usefulness.<sup>1248</sup> Together with Patton, I have highlighted that this research should be used by, and be influential, to its intended users and the target of evaluation, otherwise it would be arguably worthless.<sup>1249</sup> If referring to MacDonald's 3-type-classification formed from the viewpoint of whom evaluation is conducted for and whose predominant interests are being served by it, I aimed at democratic evaluation and democratising knowledge instead of autocratic and/or bureaucratic evaluation.<sup>1250</sup>

What is worth noticing as well is that my role as the independent researcher was the external-insider, I did not come from inside the "ruling apparatus"<sup>1251</sup> or institutional power structures.<sup>1252</sup> Hence, this experiment was not conducted for any donors' or funders' sake, nor for ensuring the continuation or extra funding of the VET programme, but for the Tanzanian multi-stakeholders, at their request, for evaluative learning and development of VET services. At MHCC neither did the elite nor donors dominate or continue their one-side monologue in evaluation with their hegemonic vocabulary, instructions and resources. Neither did the locals remain non-engaged or non-listened-to in the evaluation, and the evaluation was not non-used.<sup>1253</sup> This meant that at MHCC the universal commensurability measured by standardised and technological evaluation systems and cross-national comparative procedures with a technological simplification of knowledge to facts and rules was not used as the foundation of valid knowledge.<sup>1254</sup>

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<sup>1247</sup> See Denzin & Lincoln 2013, 11; Ellingson 2009.

<sup>1248</sup> Patton 1997

<sup>1249</sup> see Davidson 2005, 209; Patton 1997; Stern 2006, 300; Stufflebeam & Shinkfield 2007, 233

<sup>1250</sup> Ryan 2004, 445

<sup>1251</sup> Smith (1987, 107 in Ryan 2004, 458) defines "ruling apparatus as that familiar complex of management, government, administration, professions, and intelligentsia, as well as the textually mediated discourses that coordinate it and penetrate it".

<sup>1252</sup> Ryan 2004, 445

<sup>1253</sup> MFA 2007/2

<sup>1254</sup> Kvale 1995, 13–14, 18

*Scientific considerations: evaluation, research or evaluation research?* When comparing the target of this evaluation research, two typically separated actions,<sup>1255</sup> viz. the evaluation and the research were simultaneously intertwined and conducted. First, this evaluation research included the action- and change-oriented VET evaluation on its socio-economic impacts, as an evaluation characteristically does, but second, it also consisted of the research part on utilisation and impacts of development evaluation.

Answers to the question of whether evaluation generally fulfils the requirements of scientific research vary widely. The responses depend heavily on how these concepts are defined. There were many scholars who shared my view that these two concepts and their activities, the evaluation and research, could be linked indisputably to each other.<sup>1256</sup> For instance, Rossi and Freeman defined evaluation research as “the systematic application of social research procedures in assessing social intervention programs.”<sup>1257</sup> Similarly, Campbell argued that evaluation is a part of scientific inquiry and subjects it to similar epistemological issues. Likewise, Laukkanen and Raivola also confirmed these other scholars’ views and regarded evaluation research as scientific research; specifically, as an exponent of applied science when aiming primarily at specific, practical targets.<sup>1258</sup>

I entirely agreed with, and aimed at, following the advice of Cohen and Manion, who pointed out that the best evaluation ought to resemble good research. Although opinions about good research vary just as definitions of the similarities and differences between evaluation and evaluation research do, in practice and in definitions the boundary between these two is dim and flexible.<sup>1259</sup> In brief, it is clear that all evaluation research is evaluation, but not all evaluations are research.<sup>1260</sup>

Returning to the question posed, let us assess if my evaluation research and research on evaluation fulfilled the criteria of scientific research. On one hand, both parts of this evaluation inquiry were conducted by following scientific rules and having certain research methods. These research techniques were systematically used in data generation and data analysis of evaluation and research on evaluation, as Chapters 2.1 and 2.3 illustrated in practice. Again, the topic and the frame of this

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<sup>1255</sup> Botcheva, Shih & Huffman 2009, 178

<sup>1256</sup> Ahonen 1985, Koskiahio 1990, Purola 1987, 20, Sinkkonen & Kinnunen 1993 and Vuorela 1990, in Rajavaara 1999, 38; Temmes 2004

<sup>1257</sup> Rossi & Freeman 1993 in Patton 1997, 23

<sup>1258</sup> Campbell 1969 in Shaw 1999, 9; Laukkanen 1998, 33; Raivola 2000, 98–101

<sup>1259</sup> Cohen & Manion 1989, 43; Descy & Tessaring 2005, 10; Stern 2004

<sup>1260</sup> Raudasoja 2005, 55

research was primarily determined by the theory and needs set for the research by the researcher, although the local needs and their standpoint were more deeply realised and considered when formulating the research questions. Loyalty to academic disciplines was stated, for in this research multidisciplinary principles and concepts used in Education Sciences and Development Studies were leveraged.<sup>1261</sup> When thinking about the audiences of this evaluation research, both evaluation and research processes, as well as their results, served the locals in the programme implementation of MHCC and the academia via this research report, at the same time. Hence, both theoretical and practical questions were touched upon. In addition, academic conventions were used, and an academic orientation adopted. This evaluation research generated information, which was defensible and had the quality of being exact and precise, as Bhola crystallised,<sup>1262</sup> and fulfilled the requirements of scientific research.

*The quality of this evaluation research and research on evaluation.* Characteristically, reliability, internal and external validity, and objectivity are used as measures and terms when evaluating the standards of quantitative research. In all events, reliability judgements are made on the grounds of the accuracy of the research methodology, methods and techniques applied both in the phase of the research design and of the field period. The assessment of validity is performed on the grounds of measurements of how well the researcher has managed to operationalise, observe, identify, demonstrate, capture, and measure the concept, the thing, which she or he has expressed and aimed to do.<sup>1263</sup> Again, the objectivity of the research is traditionally assessed from the viewpoint of how successfully the research has managed to be designed and implemented so that all kind of subjectivity and personal influences between the researcher and the researched have been excluded.<sup>1264</sup>

Nevertheless, when referring to this evaluation research, reliability, validity and objectivity could be stated to be irrelevant or anathema when assessing the grade of design, process and findings used in qualitative research, such as mine. Judgements regarding the standard of qualitative research are increasingly recommended to be made on the grounds of criteria such as trustworthiness, through four aspects: credibility, dependability, transferability, and confirmability.<sup>1265</sup> However, these

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<sup>1261</sup> See e.g., Bhola 1990; Botcheva, Shih & Huffman 2009, 178; Shaw 1999, 8

<sup>1262</sup> Bhola 1990, 12

<sup>1263</sup> Denzin & Lincoln 2013, 27; Kananen 2013, 115; Mason 2006, 38–39

<sup>1264</sup> Flick 2006, 13

<sup>1265</sup> Denzin & Lincoln 2013, 27; Kananen 2013, 115; Mason 2006, 38–39

views (of Denzin and Lincoln) were incongruent with other scholars such as Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson, and Spiers, as well as Golafshani, who have demanded that reliability and validity be reintroduced in qualitative research,<sup>1266</sup> as I shall do next.

*Reliability and objectivity in this research.* Generally, reliability includes the idea that if the same procedures are followed as the researcher described, another investigator, after conducting the same study, would end up with the same conclusions and findings as the former researcher.<sup>1267</sup> Next, we estimate the accuracy of the research methodology applied in this research by beginning with the case study. Further, we continue addressing one of the action research applications used, that is, empowerment evaluation.

The case study was a natural choice for this research design for more individualised rather than standardised outcomes were expected.<sup>1268</sup> When referring to this research context, the past, present and future of MHCC needed to be considered. That being said, in my case the focus was put on the present situation in its real context, which I, as the researcher, could not artificially organise or transfer into an experimental research setting.<sup>1269</sup> For the ongoing VET case at MHCC, a contemporary phenomenon, this meant evaluation, for in focus could be a current event or a person acting in their environment, which is studied empirically through versatile data collected in different ways.<sup>1270</sup>

When referring to reliability, Yin has stressed that in all case studies reliability can be increased by taking certain actions. Actions such as careful documentation of research procedures, the use of the case study protocol and development of a case study database, as well as maintenance of the chain of evidence, can be employed.<sup>1271</sup> I made good use of case study protocol in my research by using the following protocol elements, mentioned in parentheses. First, the overview of the case study (objectives, background, issues of case study, and material about these issues) was provided. Second, the field procedures (access to the site of case study, e.g., permits) were illustrated. Third, data generation and data sources (see Figure 5) were revealed. Fourth, ethical aspects (e.g., protection of human subjects, anonymity) were dealt with. Fifth, cultural challenges and language use (roles of the researcher and Swahili use) were discussed. Sixth, the case study questions (research questions) were posed.

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<sup>1266</sup> Golafshani 2003, 597; Humble 2009, 35; Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson & Spiers 2002, 13

<sup>1267</sup> Denzin & Lincoln 2013, 27; Kananen 2013, 115; Mason 2006, 38–39

<sup>1268</sup> see e.g., Yin 2009a, 20

<sup>1269</sup> Syrjälä 1995a, 11; Yin 2009a, 11

<sup>1270</sup> MacDonald & Walker 1975 in Simons 2009, 1–2; Yin 2006, 111; 2009a, 3

<sup>1271</sup> Yin 2009a, 79–91, 118–124

And finally, the guide for the case study report (research framework) was published.<sup>1272</sup> The case study protocol assisted the researcher to keep focussed on the topic of the case study and to identify the audience to whom the report was being written. It included the instrument used and revealed the processes followed in the use of protocol.<sup>1273</sup> What is more, in this report not only was the VET case (its background organisations, foundation, objectives, teaching and curriculum, trainees and trainers, leadership and management, fiscal sustainability and cost-sharing, as well as linkages and other networks) illustrated in Chapter 4.2, but the evaluation experiment was also described in detail in Chapters 4.3 and 4.4, with its field procedures used in Chapter 2.1.

In my case, I increased the reliability of the case study, first, with very careful documentation and transcriptions. I remind the reader that all audiocassettes, for instance, were transcribed verbatim and double-checked by the researcher.<sup>1274</sup> I created the case study database, a means for data collected from the case study to be organised and documented. This case study database included the raw data collected and stored, such as case study notes and documents, tabular materials, as well as transcribed stories and interviews. As explained earlier, I categorised all collected data myself (e.g., data of questionnaires, written stories, interviews, seminars and workshops).

Yin underlined that one of the key challenges associated with data analysis in case studies was to avoid reporting findings separately based on each data source. Instead, the researcher should attempt to integrate various parts of the case to present a coherent picturing of entire case.<sup>1275</sup> In this regard, I must say I was very pleased with the coherent research report produced, in which research results generated from different data sources were woven smoothly together. A holistic contextual view of the development intervention, the VET case at MHCC and its evaluation, was shown. Likewise, the overall picture about VET impacts and evaluation impacts was drawn despite the presence of several multi-stakeholders' voices. In addition, I ensured that these voices were heard clearly and equally at various levels of the research.

Utilising multiple sources of evidence in the case study was suggested by Yin as one of the ways to improve the construct validity and reliability of the case study

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<sup>1272</sup> Yin 2009a, 45, 79–91

<sup>1273</sup> Yin 2009a, 45, 79–91

<sup>1274</sup> Flick 2006, 307; Yin 2009a

<sup>1275</sup> Baxter & Jack 2008, 554–555; Yin 2003

evidence.<sup>1276</sup> Therefore, I used multiple data sources and methods, which made it possible to address a broader range of historical issues of the VET case and allow the presence of the voices of multi-stakeholders from different levels of the case. Moreover, as Yin mentioned, I was challenged in the case study research by its time-consuming and vast document-producing nature. I entirely agree with Yin that the generation of a large amount of raw material during my field period in Tanzania, as well as its analysis and interpretation represented real, time-consuming challenges to me. In addition, I agreed that the case study was difficult to conduct and its data difficult to interpret.<sup>1277</sup>

In this case study, because I chose to reveal the standpoint of the local multi-stakeholders and their values, it followed that as the researcher I had to reveal my own values as well. In short, as a product of Nordic ethos, values and social outlook, I valued highly local participation from multiple levels of the intervention, empowerment of these various evaluation parties, their evaluative teaching and learning, the hearing of their multiple voices, pluralism, and the use of evaluation processes (not solely findings), as well as the personal lived experiences in the VET case and interaction during the processes of learning while evaluating.<sup>1278</sup>

Two key simultaneous elements, research and action, having been intertwined in this research, supported me in using the action research application for the evaluation experiment. First, this research was the research on VET impacts, process use of evaluation and evaluation impacts. Further, scientific methods to change social practices via common understanding were used.<sup>1279</sup> Again, the secondary, wider purpose of action research, as explained by Reason and Bradbury, that of seeking an increase in well-being, via improvement of VET and of its evaluation utilisation (with the assistance of evaluation processes and findings used) was pursued.<sup>1280</sup> Collaboration between the researcher and the researched persons, who took active participative roles in this research processes, was supported.<sup>1281</sup> Due to the action research strategy used and with the assistance of co-working with these practitioners, focus was concentrated on these persons' and their communities' practical knowledge and knowledge generation, as well as the learning of

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<sup>1276</sup> Baxter & Jack 2008, 554, 556; Eriksson & Koistinen 2005, 27; Laine, Bamberg & Jokinen 2007, 24; Rossi, Freeman & Lipsey 1999, 423; Stake 2003, 148; Yin 2006, 115–116; 2009a, 2, 114–117

<sup>1277</sup> Simons 2009, 162–167; Yin 2009a, 14–16

<sup>1278</sup> See e.g., Saarela-Kinnunen & Eskola 2001, 168; Shaw 1999, 135; Simons 2009, 35; Syrjälä 1995a, 13–15

<sup>1279</sup> Kuula 1999, 23; Kuusela 2005, 31, 57

<sup>1280</sup> Reason & Bradbury 2006, 2; 2008, 4

<sup>1281</sup> Kuula 1999, 23; Kuusela 2005, 31, 57

stakeholders, as tools for effecting desired change in the VET case at MHCC.<sup>1282</sup> This action was related to more profound evaluation impacts at the local level of the development intervention, the VET case at MHCC.

This strategy assisted me as the researcher to situate myself in the empirical world of the VET case, to better understand its Tanzanian participants and their environment by noticing these multi-stakeholders' representations. This strategy enabled me to connect the empirical data of my case, and the theoretical framework set for the research with the philosophical beliefs related to the research questions. It also helped me to identify concrete changes taken place due to the conclusions of these questions (Figure 3).<sup>1283</sup> Thus, with the assistance of this evaluation and research on evaluation, the goal was to make the different stakeholders become aware of and respond to the views of other evaluation participants as well as to express their claims and concerns for the programme under evaluation, and to allow the various views of stakeholders to be heard. By means of this inquiry the target was to make participants aware of challenges and to change the situation of the VET programme, in order that the evaluation and research on evaluation would become a learning process for the whole participating community at MHCC. The footsteps of the Finnish Professor Emerita Marja-Liisa Swantz — having an almost 60-year-long engagement in development practices and studies, primarily in Tanzania — was followed. She set out to change the rural community with the assistance of research, responded to the crisis of neoliberal modernity and has been working to bring participatory action research, participatory research and evaluation as well as learning approaches to development work to reduce oppression and promote institutional change.<sup>1284</sup>

Most importantly from the perspectives of evaluation impacts and evaluation use stressed in this research, first and foremost, the choice of using evaluative action research with empowerment evaluation as the research methodology was appropriate due to its usability. Developing and strengthening the local skills needed for on-going evaluation, reflection and adaptation of the VET and evaluation was the goal. Furthermore, the maximisation of evaluation impacts and the impacts of VET activities at MHCC in Tanzania by means of this experiment and research was emphasised. Therefore, I measured the success of the action research strategy used in this research, as Carr and Kemmis stated, through changes in situations at MHCC,

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<sup>1282</sup> Bradbury Huang 2010, 93–95

<sup>1283</sup> Leavy 2014, 4–5; see e.g., Denzin & Lincoln 1994, 14; Stake 1995, 15; Yin 2009a, 26

<sup>1284</sup> Blackburn & Holland 1998, 1–8, 173; Brydon-Miller, Greenwood & Maguire 2003, 11, 19; Fals Borda 2006, 35; Holland & Blackburn 1998, 4; Swantz 1983; 1986; 1998; 2008; 2009

not through numbers of research literature.<sup>1285</sup> The improvement of the VET services, as well as the local partners evaluative learning, were successfully reached.

The two-dimensional target of action research strategy used with empowerment evaluation required participation of MHCC's multi-stakeholders. This dual purpose of the action research — knowledge and action — through the locals' engagement, was sought and met expectedly well. New knowledge about the research subjects, VET and evaluation, and these actions at MHCC, was revealed and made known. Besides, these practices were simultaneously and further developed based on the information provided with the assistance of the processual use of evaluation.<sup>1286</sup> Hence, this research managed to achieve its benefits and dual purpose; to conduct an evaluation simultaneously with efforts towards improving services of the intervention as well as to strengthen and to develop evaluation capacity of the project's organisation in question by utilising the evaluation process. Learning while evaluating, as Dahler-Larsen expressed it.<sup>1287</sup>

Strong relationships between the researcher and the participants of the evaluation research were strengths in the use of the action research application and case study. It enabled us to operate closely based on mutual trust, which substantially contributed to the research processes and its results. It followed that MHCC graduates' experiences and descriptions produced in the unique Tanzanian contexts were natural and illuminating. No artificial context or relationships needed to be established or created. Thus, in this sense the research participants were unharmed because of these types of acts. Indeed, the engagement of the locals facilitated this by providing space for their own analysis of their existing conditions and lives. It strengthened local ownership of appropriate actions to change those realities by empowering communities, as well by allowing them to “express and enhance their knowledge and take action,”<sup>1288</sup> as Chambers formulated. This was demonstrated by growing self-evaluation activities taking place among the participants (e.g., teachers, committee members) and concrete changes made at MHCC (e.g., an adaption of future-oriented thinking, an increase in the fields of training, an improvement in follow-up systems, growth of income-generating activities).

Regarding empowerment evaluation used in this research, I can assert that it was an appropriate evaluation approach due to the purposes of this evaluation experiment: development and learning via evaluation. As a result of the evaluation

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<sup>1285</sup> Carr & Kemmis 1986, 162; Kuula 1999, 65–73

<sup>1286</sup> Heikkinen 2001, 170; Kuula 1999, 11; see e.g., Kuusela 2005, 31, 57

<sup>1287</sup> Dahler-Larsen 2009, 312, 320

<sup>1288</sup> Chambers 2008, 85 in Carden & Alkin 2012, 108



experiment, the evaluation capacity of people, activities, organisations and communities linked to MHCC were developed, as was the capacity of services at MHCC itself. Even more, not only were such beneficial influences as sustainability of the impacts of MHCC achieved, but also the sustainability of the processes, the institution, its services and evaluation through learning from evaluation, and the ability to carry out evaluation, was reached. Again, empowerment evaluation was a practical tool to evaluate, reflect, develop, improve and learn something from stakeholders' own perspectives as well as to give voices to these people to reflect and express their concerns as stakeholders, and also determine for themselves at the VET case at MHCC. Empowerment evaluation was evolving, not solely and narrowly focussing on merit and worth but more increasingly on commitment, self-determination, and capacity development.<sup>1289</sup> By means of a process use of evaluation and evaluation capacity development, as well as evaluative training, these local people exercised choice, gained a degree of control and access to the change through independence and self-reliance.<sup>1290</sup> In this way, competence to evaluate results and progress towards this intervention, was gained within the development intervention at MHCC to help the locals to redirect, alter and develop on-going activities in good time and later to carry out the decisions made. I can state that my choice was supported by such scholars as Carden, Chelimsky and Patton, who stressed that empowerment evaluation could be used if learning and development are desired to be reached in evaluation.<sup>1291</sup>

Again, I emphasised the power of the locals and their cultural and ethical discourse of knowledge and truth in evaluation utilisation via local learning instead of “capitalisation of knowledge,”<sup>1292</sup> as Kvale expressed, when linking an evaluative use to an economic and political discourse of performativity and accountability. The standpoints of the multi-stakeholders of VET came out by using different research methods. The tendencies of human-centred inquiry were characteristically used in this research, including power sharing (being empowering), reducing power distances by utilising multiple voices and bringing people to the same table, as well

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<sup>1289</sup> Chelimsky 2003 in Wandersman, Snell-Johns, Lentz, Fetterman, Keener, Livet, Imm & Flaspohler 2005, 29–30; Fetterman 2001, 2–6, 10

<sup>1290</sup> Slim 1995, 143–144

<sup>1291</sup> Carden 1998, 67; Chelimsky 2003 in Wandersman, Snell-Johns, Lentz, Fetterman, Keener, Livet, Imm & Flaspohler 2005, 29–30; Patton 1997, 103

<sup>1292</sup> Kvale 1995, 15

as assisting the participants' training by organising educative evaluation seminars and workshops for all involved in the evaluation process.<sup>1293</sup>

*Validity of this evaluation-based research.* All the same, I ended up concentrating on the quality of my research by discussing validity based on Kirkhart's approach. She did this through five justifications made from multicultural perspectives. Kirkhart described validity as "an overall judgement of the adequacy and appropriateness of evaluation-based inferences and actions and their respective consequences."<sup>1294</sup> Her points of view on validity were interpersonal, consequential, experiential, theoretical and methodological ones.<sup>1295</sup> They were adopted in this research due to two different cultural contexts being intertwined, namely the Finnish and Tanzanian contexts, on which we shall next move on to. In this way, I aimed at paying attention and making more visible the representation of two different cultural contexts existing in the implementation of the development intervention at MHCC and its evaluation.

*Validity from the interpersonal perspective.* The first justification of validity, made by Kirkhart, was interpersonal validity. In my case, that is value based on the quality of interactions between and among the participants during the evaluation and research processes. To illustrate more deeply those relationships and cooperation, I cite Kim's conception to acquire and learn "host communication competence." This expression consisted of three inseparable components: cognitive, affective and operational.<sup>1296</sup>

From the viewpoint of the validity of this research, I state that my cultural competence to operate as the researcher in the host culture of Tanzania and with the Tanzanians was vital. My life history, cultural experience, and academic training naturally contributed positively to my basic theoretical and cultural understanding. This insight I gained primarily during 5-year-long living with the Tanzanians as next-door neighbours and practicing daily when working in the Tanzanian VET sector and cooperating with the Tanzanian MHCC staff members and students, as well as the other Tanzanian VET officials and employers. These constant contacts and repeated social interactions, as well as my personal characteristics, specifically my outgoing personality, along with the local environment, enabled and assisted me to gradually become more proficient in understanding the Tanzanian culture as well as to operate inside it in a more appropriate manner. Furthermore, my doctoral studies including intercultural communication studies increased my cultural, theoretical knowledge as well.

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<sup>1293</sup> See Ahonen 2001; Guba & Lincoln 1989, 138–139; Pawson & Tilley 2000.

<sup>1294</sup> Kirkhart 2005, 30

<sup>1295</sup> Kirkhart 2005, 23

<sup>1296</sup> Kim 2001, 98–120

This cognitive component of host communication competence covered knowledge of verbal and nonverbal codes, cultural understanding, and cognitive complexity. In my case this component included knowledge of the evaluation context and rules of the Tanzanian culture. I had to become familiar with Tanzania's political, economic, religious, and educational institutions, as well as its values, ideologies, arts, sciences, technologies, beliefs, attitudes, and so forth. Of all these fields, I needed to gain deeper understanding, which working and living in Tanzania made possible.

This cultural understanding contributed to grasping appropriate concepts and their relevant operationalisations. Typical key concepts included VET utilisation, evaluation utilisation and evaluation impacts, as well as their various levels on which needed to be focussed. Another case in point was the extended family concept that was worth identifying and using as an important level in analysing the socio-economic impacts of VET. It assisted me in formulating appropriate research questions by means of which it was possible to reach the standpoint of the local multi-stakeholders. This better cultural competence was materialised in the choice of an appropriate evaluation paradigm and standpoint, which assisted in achieving the research purpose: stronger evaluation impacts at the local level of the development intervention via the process use of evaluation and evaluative learning.

My language skill in Swahili was an important key to gaining access to the local culture. I was able use this skill after a total of six months' full-time studies of Swahili at language schools in Nairobi, Kenya and Musoma, Tanzania, between 1991 and 1995. I continued to learn the local language in daily practices when communicating constantly with and living among Tanzanians during my five years stay in the country. In addition, before beginning my first field period, I wanted to refresh and enhance my host culture competence. Thus, during both of my stays in Tanzania, I employed a native Tanzanian Swahili speaker and an expert in local knowledge as my research assistant. This person was recommended by his peers as a local person of competence at MHCC. He was one of the staff members of MHCC who was involved all research activities except the interviews made with the staff members of MHCC and other VET professionals.

Although verbal expressions had a significant and important role in the basis for this evaluation and research data, due to the data generation methods used an understanding of hidden meanings could not be passed over. The Tanzanian research context was regarded as a high-context culture. Meanings of messages or of viewpoints are often implicitly embedded rather than expressed by using direct verbal-expression styles — communication via context rather than code. Naturally,

as a “stranger” in my origin and later, by quoting Banks, as an external-insider (see Table 5), I needed to go beyond simply knowing these verbal patterns, this linguistic competence, to widen my understanding of nonverbal forms of communication.<sup>1297</sup> That is why it was very challenging to me to understand the message by hearing only the words. I had to pay attention, although I could not analyse these issues because of not doing discursive or conversational analysis (to who said it and when, where it was said and in which way, to whom, and in which type of circumstances). Therefore, the use of multiple data sources and crystallisation of the data played a key role in increasing validity in this research.<sup>1298</sup>

Gradually, while working and living years in Tanzania, I began to understand hidden meanings embedded in various messages received from the local environment in its different situations. If concentrating more on low and high-context communication, Hall categorised cultures based on these two predominating communication subcategories, briefly: how much meaning is understood in the context versus in the code. A code means the message, and a context the setting or circumstance, including the persons, in which the message appears. In high-context cultures most of the information is in implicit form, not put into code, which means that the message is covered mainly by the physical context or inside the person, but very little is in the explicit, coded part of the message. Instead, a low-context message is usually vested in the explicit code, and communication tends to be specific and analytical, as well as using the direct verbal-expression style.<sup>1299</sup> Indeed, there could have been many misunderstandings during the research process, for the Tanzanian and the Finnish cultures were in many senses from opposite ends of the communication spectrum. Fortunately, the host community competence of that I gained assisted me avoiding the pitfalls associated with our interaction.

Along with this cognitive component, I faced various challenges regarding affective competence. It included an emotional and motivational capacity in the host environment of Tanzania. One such example was the very challenging period of waiting for my research permit. I must confess that the long period waiting for the research permit in Dar es Salaam was emotionally demanding and immensely frustrating. I managed to overcome it mainly on the grounds of my cross-cultural attitudinal adaptation that had begun before my evaluation trips to Tanzania; let alone my own experiences, I was inured to hearing the expression “maybe

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<sup>1297</sup> Banks 2006, 778

<sup>1298</sup> Zaharna 2000

<sup>1299</sup> Bennett 1998, 17; Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey & Chua 1988, 43; Hall 1976; 1984, 46–53; Zaharna 2000

tomorrow” (in Swahili, *labda kesho*) when handling the business of the VET centre in the Mwanza offices for five years.

My own cultural experiences paralleled Kim’s arguments, “Host communication competence thus serves as the central force behind strangers’ gaining access to and control over the host environment ... by enabling them to experience the deeper, emotional-aesthetic dimensions of the local life ...”<sup>1300</sup> A case in point was confidence gained. My many years of long personal contact with the Tanzanian VET staff enabled my free access to data sources, various engagements and cooperation in the field-site at MHCC. Indeed, since the beginning of the researcher’s first working period at MHCC in the 1990s the relationships and trust were already begun to be built with the local stakeholders.

Some concrete signs to increase the interpersonal validity in this research can be mentioned. First, I was attitudinally ready to share several, unforgettable emotional/aesthetic experiences with the local people. Therefore, I visited their homesteads, working places, and organisations, as well as different local events organised during my field periods in Tanzania. Other cases worthy of remark about my strong motivational commitment to this evaluation and its long-lasting processes were my willingness to refresh not only my Swahili language and culture host skills beforehand my arrival, but also to undertake further academic studies on the topic, including e.g., educational and development evaluation, development studies, intercultural communication, and research methodologies, during this research process.

Operational competence referred to my capacity to express my cognitive know-how and affective experiences successfully in social transactions taking place during the evaluation. They needed to be simultaneously in accordance with the prevailing cultural and sub-cultural norms and a specific situation of evaluation. Therefore, during the research process concentration was made on such key cultural aspects as the role of power and privilege. These issues were reflected in such issues as my researcher standpoint and position taken; the interaction between the stakeholders and I as well as the community; and the methodological choices made, as well as data generation and analysis methods applied; in brief, to the entire research process. It followed that I needed to exercise firm discretion in some situations for participants involving those not having the same power and prestige as each other. A case in point was the group interview, as well as the seminars and workshops.

I particularly needed to observe my own relationships and attitudes, as well as behaviour from the viewpoints of power. Specifically, throughout the course and in

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<sup>1300</sup> Kim 2001, 119

my research, the donor hegemony in development evaluation was revealed and strongly criticised. Thus, I had to keep in my mind my own selections made, and my strong criticism directed at the prevailing power-structures and privilege given to the donors, as well their hegemonic knowledge construction in evaluation. Therefore, my own choices made in terms of this research had to be opposed to the evaluation practices produced and controlled principally by the donors with their hard methodologies and differing timeframes. Principally, they have excluded local multi-stakeholders from evaluation learning and processes by being, in the first place, culturally and contextually suitable for externals and not locals.

*Validity from the consequential perspective.* Under this subheading, we are dealing with consequences based on understandings, judgements, and actions made due to the evaluation research and process that took place and was conducted at MHCC.<sup>1301</sup> First, I bring under discussion catalytic validity. Next, ethical aspects of evaluation and research are addressed. Also, unintended and unknown consequences of the evaluation experiment and the publishing of its results, which could have negatively affected the local stakeholders, are tackled.

Regarding my evaluation experiment, the catalytic validity of its processes and results was strong. It followed that due to the evaluation research the local multi-stakeholders, such as the committee and the staff members of MHCC naturally made changes based on the evaluation and its results. Likewise, evaluation findings produced in this evaluation experiment assisted the VETA officials to do their quality control on MHCC more easily, based on the generated data and improvements made in the follow-up systems of the students at the VET centre. In addition, my evaluation experiment assisted in rebuilding relationships between the leadership of MHCC and its graduates. Thus, the evaluation itself was a contributor and catalyst. It validated my work as the mediator and assisted both partners to be connected again with each other. Contacts were rebuilt, and the relationships recreated. Due to this evaluation conducted, development of professional networks with former students; more intensified relations with their employers; and increased engagement in the field were set high on the future agenda of MHCC for those areas that ought to be targeted.

Considering ethical aspects of my research, I must admit that every evaluation and research has ethical consequences. In Mabry's words and with her simplification, "ethics is right conduct and its study; ethical codes are rules of right conduct."<sup>1302</sup>

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<sup>1301</sup> Kirkhart 2005, 23

<sup>1302</sup> Mabry 1999, 200

Evaluation, therefore, has strong ethical content, in which ethics is a key element.<sup>1303</sup> These ethical issues are very vital, but are, to a great extent neglected in evaluation research. Astonishingly, the results of the study made by Worthen, Jones, and Goodrick on ethical considerations revealed, that very seldom (less than in 2% of cases of the empirical evaluation studies published in evaluation journals between years 1989–1998) were evaluation standards or ethical guidelines touched on, although ethical issues in evaluation and in case studies have received increasing attention over the last 10 years.<sup>1304</sup> Ethical issues in the context of case studies, as in mine, have also been dealt with by Eriksson and Koistinen, Simons, Stake, and Yin, for instance.<sup>1305</sup>

Simons, for one, named four ethical aspects characterising evaluations which we shall address next. First, the evaluator's role is to elicit, reveal and provide the public evidence for public dialogue and decision-making. Second, evaluation is tied up with judgement and quality assurance. Third, evaluation is political. And finally, every evaluation should be fair.<sup>1306</sup> If referring to the first ethical feature of evaluation that Simons identified, my role in this evaluation research, consistent with her evaluator's prevailing elicit role, was not only to reveal to the public the evaluation results, but rather to put evaluation through a process use and put local learning to good use for generating evaluation impacts at the local level for the evaluand's development. I decided to adopt this approach primarily to democratise evaluation. So that due to my conscious standpoint taking, I aimed, as Collins, to "speak the truth to the masses." Thus, I produced the evidence for the masses and for their decision-making. The knowledge and values of the Tanzanian locals, with their local, communicational interaction, linguistic practices, and narratives were validated at MHCC by legitimating their involvement in evaluation,<sup>1307</sup> so that the Tanzanian multi-stakeholders of the VET case could use this truth in their dialogue; rather than concentrating on the people in power (i.e., the elite: the funders, sponsors, donors etc.) and their decision-making, as is commonly done in evaluations.

Evaluation always covers valuing. These values are essential in the evaluation judgement. Again, the word evaluation itself implies it. Hence, in this evaluative research I had to ask whose values counted, who benefitted from this evaluation

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<sup>1303</sup> Linnakylä & Atjonen 2008a, 47, 50; Patton 1997

<sup>1304</sup> House & Howe 1999; Mabry 1999; Morris & Jacobs 2000; Newman & Brown 1996; Simons 2006, 260; Worthen, Jones & Goodrick 1998 in Worthen 2001, 411

<sup>1305</sup> Eriksson & Koistinen 2005; Simons 2009; Stake 2003; Yin 2009a

<sup>1306</sup> Simons 2006

<sup>1307</sup> Kvale 1995

research and for whom it was conducted,<sup>1308</sup> understanding that value or power-free research does not exist, let alone evaluation, and indeed, that power and control were characteristically embedded in evaluation. Typically, this valuing is done by the evaluator in the objectivist, “elitist,” donor hegemonic evaluation. Rather, in my case, this valuing was done from the subjectivist perspective by the locals, understanding that the reality was an ongoing process and valuing was made in the context of understanding the “subjective meaningfulness”<sup>1309</sup> of the evaluation information, as Carden and Alkin expressed. When referring to a political aspect and a power question in evaluation, questions such as the use of power of different stakeholder groups (e.g., representation of gender, tribe, class, religion) and solidarity building around questions studied were significant to these locals. Therefore, in my evaluation experiment, evidence was generated from the VET project at MHCC together with its multi-stakeholders. These people involved in the project and in its environment conducted this valuing in evaluation themselves.<sup>1310</sup>

Naturally, at MHCC these local values could have conflicted with each other, because there were differences between the stakeholders’ views. What might be successful to one might not be to another. Or, one could have had more power than the other person, even the possibility to misuse power, as expressed when dealing with cultural differences among the staff persons (see case 2b). However, I stressed that the aim of the social process (that is, the involvement of the local multi-stakeholders taken place during this research process) was to guarantee that the locals of the VET case at MHCC were the owners of the knowledge, the evaluation experiment had to meet their interests and needs, and the research was conducted for their use.<sup>1311</sup> Again, this evaluation process was carried out to benefit them in the way that it could be appreciated by them by valuing, respecting local knowledge and utilising their perspectives; as well as facilitating learning and strengthening their local capacities. All this “social betterment,” if using the expression of Mark and Henry,<sup>1312</sup> was finally crystallised by means of various evaluation impacts which were reflected at various levels of the VET intervention of MHCC and in the lives of various multi-stakeholder groups involved in the development of MHCC and its evaluation.

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<sup>1308</sup> Genat 2009, 103–104, 108

<sup>1309</sup> Carden & Alkin 2012, 104

<sup>1310</sup> see Patton 1981, 184

<sup>1311</sup> See Abma 2006, 196.

<sup>1312</sup> Cousins 2003 in Mark & Henry 2004, 37; Henry & Mark 2003; Mark 2011; Mark & Henry 2004



In exploring my ethical and political responsibilities, as well as my rights, I remind the reader that, as seen in Appendix 1, permission to conduct the research was asked of all official authorities involved in this research but perhaps more importantly, it was asked of all the persons engaged in the research process as well. Accordingly, the official permission to conduct this research and access the documents and files were granted by the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology, the committee of MHCC and Fida.<sup>1313</sup>

When considering my values and position, I return to Bank's categorisation (presented in Table 5), of the researcher's roles. I identified myself as the external-insider. In consequence, I was socialised within the Tanzanian culture and acquired its beliefs, values, behaviours, attitudes, and knowledge. Because of my unique and extended first-hand experiences gained when working at MHCC, I rejected many of the values, beliefs, and knowledge claims of my Finnish community and aligned with those of the studied Tanzanian community. Typical values included communitarian cultural values and interdependence rather than individualism. As Bank phrased it, I was seen by the Tanzanian community as the adopted insider, in other words, the external-insider.

The ethical principles of my evaluation research resembled the same principles of the research proper. Ethics of evaluation were mirrored in moral choices and decisions made. It covered the whole evaluation process and was reflected in the selection of the evaluation target (evaluand) as well as of evaluation methods and measurements and their quality assurance. It touched the treatment of evaluands and finally the interpretations of evaluation results, decisions made, and developmental actions followed, by these results. Moreover, when performing evaluation research as the evaluator/researcher I faced the ethical questions about cultural sensitivity, anonymity and confidentiality, responsibility for evaluations, consideration for respondents, fundamental values, completeness and omissions, evaluation of individual, validating information and sharing of results.<sup>1314</sup>

Reverting to the VET case, the ethical principles of evaluation conducted corresponded to, and were non-paradoxical with, the evaluation standpoint taken, and paradigm applied. When assessing validity in my evaluation experiment from the consequential perspective, I must admit frankly that evaluations with judgements could have had more severe consequences at the organisational level if I should have had to decide (based on the collected information) about improvements or the continuation of the VET programme at MHCC. In this respect, I want to highlight

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<sup>1313</sup> Simons 2009, 96–110; Yin 2009a, 73

<sup>1314</sup> Samset 1993, 10–11

again that there was no ethical difficulty linked to the continuation or further funding of the VET case in this sense. Really, the purpose of this research was neither intertwined with a reduction of budgets nor with lobbying a continuation of the funding for MHCC.<sup>1315</sup>

Neither was there in the VET case any conflict between the evaluators and the MHCC project staff due to evaluation purpose or time-perspective, as Weiss and Nagao claimed often exists in development evaluations between two dominant partners of development evaluations (the donors and the recipients, their interests and positions respectively, as well as their different objectives and time orientations of development evaluation).<sup>1316</sup> From my viewpoint, these asymmetries could clearly become visible in the contrasting evaluation standpoints and paradigms chosen for the evaluation and their different purposes served in aid evaluation, accountability or learning. Briefly put, to Nagao this first asymmetry exists between summative and formative evaluations. The second asymmetry focuses on the point of time of carrying out evaluation. Then, the donors' strict, fixed, finite-time horizon might collide with the recipients' boundless time span in development.<sup>1317</sup>

I tried to minimise all harmful consequences of the research process for the persons involved in it. Really, human subjects' protection (doing no harm) is vital for all scientific studies, including the evaluation and evaluation research as well. Yin provides the fundamental principles in which, for instance, the researchers need to be sensitive and careful with the researched. At the same time, scholars need to honour the participants' privacy and confidentiality and to protect all involved in the scientific or evaluative actions, but especially the most vulnerable groups from all harm and deception.<sup>1318</sup> Again, one of the ways to safeguard the persons involved in the research or evaluation, is to take every step to preserve their anonymity in research reports and evaluation reports as well, so that no one could identify the participants or use the information against them.<sup>1319</sup>

When I consider whether or not I have honoured my commitments about confidentiality and privacy, some examples demonstrate the outcome. Before using a tape recorder, for example, I revealed that tape recording created permanent records, but I equally emphasised that all data generated for this research was only used for this research purpose. I emphasised that in terms of this research, in the

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<sup>1315</sup> Hall & Hall 1996, 46

<sup>1316</sup> Nagao 2006, 28–31

<sup>1317</sup> Nagao 2006, 28–31; see e.g., Fowler 1997 in Hailey, James & Wrigley 2005, 7

<sup>1318</sup> Yin 2009a, 73

<sup>1319</sup> Flick 2006, 49

reporting phase all participants and their personal details were anonymised. This meant that no names (including individual and geographical references) could be mentioned, thus all the participants would remain unidentifiable and unrecognisable in the report.

In addition, this protection occurred by gaining informed consent from all case research participants. I explained to them the nature of the research. Also, their volunteer participation in the study was made clear. Before all the interviews I briefed every interviewee on the situation; the sorts of questions posed and the length and number of conversations. Furthermore, I opened every interview by encouraging the participant to ask if they had any questions. Simultaneously, I clearly highlighted to interviewees their freedom of expression consisting of the possibility to make a response or leave a question unanswered if they felt to for one reason or another.

Another case in point was remuneration of travelling costs caused by the evaluation activities. All the travelling costs caused by research were compensated to participants based on the fares of public transport in Tanzania. In addition, the meals for the group interview, as well as the seminar and workshops were served for free after considering the time spent participating, which they could have spent contributing to their household income or other profitable activities.

*Validity from the experiential perspective.* Validity can be increased by common, shared experiences. For instance, to Creswell and Miller validity refers to accuracy of the research to manage to represent participants' social realities of the phenomena in a credible way. They advised to increase research validity with three procedures, known as the lenses of the researcher, the research participants and the readers, which I used.<sup>1320</sup>

Regarding my lenses as the researcher, I acknowledged that my skills as the researcher, including different abilities — such as to react to users' needs, listen intensively, accept diversity in views, build up relationships and trust, and have technical skills as well as status, could also promote the use of the evaluation. I had strengthened and developed these human, personal factors which affect evaluation use (e.g., evaluation experiences, knowledge about evaluation, perceptions about the credibility of the evaluator), as named by Alkin and Taut, by participating in self-evaluation actions with some NGOs and some scientific institutions, as well as doing my area of scientific specialisation in evaluation during my doctoral studies.<sup>1321</sup> Again, in my case, based on the views of Creswell and Miller, as the researcher I

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<sup>1320</sup> Creswell & Miller 2000, 124–126

<sup>1321</sup> Alkin & Taut 2003, 4; Taut & Alkin 2003, 263

wanted to confirm or disprove evidence by ensuring a long enough field period. This field trip lasted, in my case, five months all together.<sup>1322</sup>

Second, when referring to the lenses of the research participants, with this prolonged field engagement I aimed to assist these research participants to become engaged in and through active participation, so that they could reveal their reality, and so that action and empowerment could be stimulated among them. When referring to the validity of my research, I increased it by utilising the lived experiences of the evaluation participants, as Kirkhart has suggested.<sup>1323</sup> The evaluation experiment at MHCC provided data on how great the differences between quality as experienced and quality as measured concepts could be. This was demonstrated by two cases of the evaluation experiment (cases 1b and 2b) inquiring the goodness of VET education and of employment in Tanzania. These two cases, the case 1b “The employed person having unproductive employment” and the case 2b “The self-employed person having unproductive employment,” both revealed that if a quality-as-measured perspective would have been applied then this quality had been structured by using the explicit comparison of the goodness of education by utilising a set of constructs typical for discourse of evaluator’s communities. If that had been done, the concrete experiences of those involved in the VET programme would have distanced the evaluation from reality.<sup>1324</sup> In terms of my case it could have led to misinterpretations, for instance, really, it would have been a mistake to assume that full employment would automatically raise the standard of living of VET graduates, as it would in Western societies. Third, by wearing the lenses of the research outsider, I worked to assist the reader in richly understanding the case of the research by providing “thick descriptions” in this report, as demonstrated, for instance in the cases 1a, 1b, 2a and 2b.<sup>1325</sup>

*Validity from the theoretical viewpoint.* Kirkhart stressed that theoretical grounding, linked to the action in question, should be consonant with epistemological, ontological, and methodological assumptions in the theory used, to validate the evaluation on a given evaluand.<sup>1326</sup> Traditionally in the positivist paradigm, knowledge and values (i.e., value-free) would necessarily have been distinguished. Again, the evaluators should have taken the objective position and distanced stance from the evaluands. Furthermore, in terms of methodological choices made, hard,

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<sup>1322</sup> Creswell & Miller 2000, 124–126

<sup>1323</sup> Kirkhart 2005, 23

<sup>1324</sup> Elliot 2009, 407–408; Stake & Schwandt 2006, 404–418

<sup>1325</sup> Creswell & Miller 2000, 124–126

<sup>1326</sup> Kirkhart 2005, 23

quantifiable techniques would have been applied to make results more reliable and objective. To grasp more local utilisation of development evaluation, I had to pass over the application of traditional donor hegemonic evaluation paradigms and prioritise the recipient hegemonic evaluation paradigm instead. Thus, the emphasis was placed on values derived from the values of different stakeholders as well as on their evaluation and quality criteria, as in the fourth evaluation generation, see Table 2. Their multiple voices and their knowledge, as well as meanings, were collaboratively shared. Likewise, relationships and communication between these research participants, as well as culturally and locally appropriate methods were sought. In this manner, the locals would have gained an access to and use of the evaluative data and research knowledge generated during the evaluation and research process for the further improvement of VET and evaluation activities at MHCC. Indeed, the evaluation standpoint and paradigm selected had impacts on the nature of the ontological, epistemological and methodological principles followed in data generation.

I entitled this human-centred approach, which was leant on in my evaluation experiment, the recipient hegemonic paradigm. It sought to understand human experiences and tended to capture intentional explanation and understanding.<sup>1327</sup> In this evaluation approach I was unable to study realities in pieces (e.g., as variables) but only holistically in their context. If reverting to Kvale and Collins, my aim was, as in participatory evaluation, to create a picture of the intervention in cooperation process with participants based on their interpretations because of an interaction and negotiation process between multiple stakeholders. All of us involved in the research process were interrelated, interacted, influenced each other and cooperated. Our relationship was based on respectful negotiation, joint control and reciprocal learning and educational process for multi-stakeholders instead of the possibility of subject-object dualism. Therefore, as the evaluator/researcher, I was a part of the phenomenon under study and evaluation, not standing in objective isolation outside the reality being studied nor remaining distant and separated from the evaluatees.<sup>1328</sup>

*Validity from methodological viewpoints.* Various methods and several data sources were used in data generation in this evaluation experiment in the VET case at MHCC due to the use of the research strategy chosen, which characteristically included various analytic levels. These levels included the individual, team and group level, the intergroup level, and organisational or network level. In addition, I intended that by means of using several methods the depth and width of the research could be

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<sup>1327</sup> Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein & Cousins 2009, 193–194, 202–203

<sup>1328</sup> Bhola 1990, 28–29; Schwandt & Burgon 2006, 108–109

broadened to capture the completeness and comprehensiveness of the research object, as Tuomi and Sarajärvi noted.<sup>1329</sup> Naturally, these participatory approaches to evaluation (for instance, empowerment evaluation) have their challenges, as Cullen, Coryn and Rugh, as well as Stufflebeam and Shinkfield detected.<sup>1330</sup> In my case, they increased my investment of time and effort. Also, they made financial demands of me because of the prolonged field period. Management of many stakeholder groups (whom to include and in which way) with the accompanying power issues posed a challenge to me at the same time.

The experiment allowed knowledge translation to take place among the local multi-stakeholders by combining evaluation theory and practice. It provided evidence that the commitment of the locals to evaluation and implementation of the evaluation results was strengthened and resulted in concrete actions at MHCC for its VET. In this sense, the new detailed, specialised knowledge gained about the topic in the Tanzanian cultural setting was valuable and eye-opening. Again, this insight seemed to have assisted them to use the evaluation process as the trigger and the arena for creating the space for evaluative learning and capacity development among MHCC's multi-stakeholders. This took place by combining the past-oriented participatory impact evaluation (that either praised or blamed results achieved) with a more future-guiding and learning-oriented empowerment evaluation, which provided local participation and learning from evaluation processes and findings. Also, evaluation findings were fed forward to support the adaptation of the VET programme at MHCC to its time functional environment in Tanzania, while evaluating, with the assistance of the process use of evaluation.

I used different sources of information to minimise possible biases and inconsistencies. Good, rich and multiple raw materials generated by various data generation methods increased the readers' credence and confidence in my interpretations; they validated the results gained. These data generation methods were chosen so that they fitted with the research topic selected. They offered readers, "thick descriptions"<sup>1331</sup> about the unique case, so that they could make their own generalisations.<sup>1332</sup> I agreed with Mabry that this was one way to use safeguards against undue subjectivity, as well as to confirm, elaborate and disconfirm facts and

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<sup>1329</sup> see Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2006, 141

<sup>1330</sup> Cullen, Coryn & Rugh 2011, 349, 354–356; Stufflebeam & Shinkfield 2007; Temmes 2004, 87

<sup>1331</sup> Clifford Geertz (1973) coined the term for emic interpretations in his book "Thick Description: Toward an Interpretive Theory of Culture" in Laine, Bamberg & Jokinen 2007, 30; Stake 1995, 102). Further, to Denzin thick interpretation was possible by using thick description (in Janesick 2003, 66).

<sup>1332</sup> Laine, Bamberg & Jokinen 2007, 30; Stake 1995, 102

interpretations in the use of a variety of data sources, methods and data.<sup>1333</sup> In my analysis, the multiple data sets generated and used minimised my misrepresentation and misunderstanding. They assisted me as the researcher to build up vivid pictures based on the participants' stories and narratives and to avoid stereotyping.<sup>1334</sup> Crystallisation of methods assisted to cross-check results for consistency and avoid any biases of a single research method.<sup>1335</sup> The research questions and problems,<sup>1336</sup> together with the theoretical framework and methodologies used, as well as the cultural context of the research, demanded such appropriateness.<sup>1337</sup>

To be honest, the identification and formulation of research questions was to me very challenging. The construction of questions was made partly on the grounds of the literature review, but also because of the feedback given and provided during my first trip to Tanzania. That was why these questions became sharper and more insightful during the research process as a result of experiences gained in the field.

Again, because of the nature of the Tanzanian cultural context, which has more collectivist features than individualistic cultures do, action research fitted perfectly with the research context of Tanzania. These large power distances which characterise the Tanzanian cultural context encouraged me to employ action research, because my evaluation efforts were cooperative and aimed at breaking down knowledge barriers, in contrast to individualism's barriers of incomprehension. Thus, action research enabled human interdependency, cogeneration of knowledge and fairer power relations, which Collins stressed in her standpoint theory and which was mentioned by Hilsen as well.<sup>1338</sup>

Empowerment evaluation as the action research application had several strengths. All in all, the atmosphere of the workshop at MHCC was very fruitful and a positive spirit continued throughout the session. It created an open forum for every participant to share ideas equally concerning the activities of MHCC at that time and regarding the VET institution's future, despite the large power distances<sup>1339</sup> characterising Tanzanian society. The evaluation process happened in an open setting and it enabled a democratic flow and exchange of information. This was

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<sup>1333</sup> Mabry 2009, 342–353

<sup>1334</sup> see Yin 2016, 41

<sup>1335</sup> Denzin 1978; Flick 2006, 390; Laine, Bamberg & Jokinen 2007, 23–26; Patton 1990, 187–189; Simons 2009, 33–34; Stake 1994, 241; 1995, 107–115; 2003, 147–148; Syrjälä 1995b, 43–44; Yin 2006, 115–116; 2009a, 114–117.

<sup>1336</sup> Laine, Bamberg & Jokinen 2007, 25

<sup>1337</sup> Silverman 2004, 52–53; 2006, 13; Simons 2009, 3

<sup>1338</sup> Hilsen 2006

<sup>1339</sup> see footnotes 583–584

exceptional in a culture having very hierarchical power structures. None of the managers could restrain the exuberance of the workers in an open forum where facilitators were present. What is more, with the assistance of empowerment evaluation at MHCC the participants learned evaluation logic, vocabulary and skills as well as evaluative thinking to improve their programme in collaboration by using a form of self-evaluation and reflection, and to redesign their plans and alter strategies as necessary in the future. Their capacity to monitor and evaluate their own performance continually could be further developed by institutionalising and internalising evaluation.<sup>1340</sup>

On the other hand, empowerment evaluation as a procedure had its challenges. It enabled some participants' to be absent from some seminar and workshop periods for one reason or another. During the lively and fruitful discussion carried out in the empowerment evaluation seminar and workshop some participants wanted to change their given rankings. They did so as a result of influencing one another, although one of the participants also seemed to want to prohibit others from changing their rankings. His argument helpfully revealed a number of misunderstandings, such as the fact that even after much instruction, some participants thought that they had to rank all activities against each other, by giving each activity a unique number between 1 and 10. Another challenge was the busy timetables of some committee members, which prevented us from continuing the session longer.

Derived from what has been mentioned earlier, my research dealt with multiple-levels (micro, meso and macro) and multiple stakeholders of the research. This evaluation experiment using the case study approach was not only about individuals (i.e., former students), but also about the organisation (i.e., MHCC) and its VET and evaluation efforts (i.e., evaluation capacity building) as well as development evaluation policies. For these reasons, I was very challenged in some cases due to the different units used during data generation and data analysis, as described in Table 6 (based on ideas derived from the work of Yin). For instance, the units of data generation varied from individuals (questionnaires, written stories, interviews, feedback forms) to interpersonal groups, such as organisations and communities (interviews, seminars and workshops) and collectives, like policy ones (i.e., documents and studies on development evaluation).<sup>1341</sup>

The construct validity of the case study, connected to the conceptual framework used, operationalised and measured in the case, can be improved in at least three

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<sup>1340</sup> see Fetterman 1996, 18–24; 1997, 383–384; 1999, 16–19; 2001, 5–6, 23–27, 29–33

<sup>1341</sup> Yin 2009a, 86–89



ways. First, to collect data from many sources; second, to create an evidence chain in data generation, and third, to use key informants' reviews when drafting a case study report. This last one Simons called respondent validation.<sup>1342</sup> In this research I used different data sources and methods in data generation. Again, for instance, the participants of the third thematic interviews read through the transcripts produced from their earlier, second thematic interviews. According to Mabry, this protected the findings' trustworthiness and validated data.<sup>1343</sup>

For instance, an outline of the group interview was pre-tested. One of MHCC's graduates, a participant of the thematic interviews but not the group interview, was invited to test formulation and meanings of the questions set for the group session. Simultaneously, the questions were checked for any hidden bias, leading questions, or questions that touched more than one topic at time. With the help of this feedback some terms in the questions were changed, which increased the research validity.<sup>1344</sup>

I was compelled to distinguish the case and the research target. In this research context, the research targets were both VET and development evaluation — which the case at MHCC represented — with evaluation on experienced changes, impacts contributed by VET, and the process use of evaluation as well as learning in evaluation. The research questions guided my data gathering and report writing, as well as assisted me in focussing on the case and its context, which were certainly complex.<sup>1345</sup> In addition, a relevant size and level for coding units (e.g., word, sentence, sentence fragment, paragraph, etc.), known as a data segment, was vital yet challenging for me to find. It guided the research task and the quality of data in qualitative content analysis.<sup>1346</sup> The challenge of this identification of data segments was that if the size and level of coding segments were too narrow or too wide and too abstract, then the coding results might be meaningless from the viewpoint of research results.<sup>1347</sup>

Mayring confirmed that selecting segments from the textual material that enable a reply to the research question is crucial. Thus, it is relevant to consider the situation of data collection (i.e., the origin of data generation) as well the character of data (e.g., transcription of the text). Mayring highlighted that research questions must be defined clearly, in advance of the analysis and they should be linked theoretically to

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<sup>1342</sup> Simons 2009, 131; Yin 2009a, 41–42

<sup>1343</sup> Mabry 2009, 342–353; Stake 1995, 7–8

<sup>1344</sup> Dreachslin 1999, 228

<sup>1345</sup> see Laine, Bamberg & Jokinen 2007, 10–11; Stake 1995, 33

<sup>1346</sup> Finfgeld-Connett 2014, 343; Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2006, 94–95

<sup>1347</sup> Finfgeld-Connett 2014, 343

the research on the issue conducted earlier and should be separated from the sub-questions.<sup>1348</sup> In my case the big challenge appeared in defining units and segments of data analysis, as Table 6 revealed. It originated from shifting the focus of the research from VET impacts to more local evaluation impacts due to impulses given during the first field trip by the local multi-stakeholders.

When speaking about the challenges of evaluative case studies, Mabry found one of its difficulties in generalising from the case.<sup>1349</sup> My purpose was not to generalise findings (because recommendations were valid only to the specific intervention), but to employ the evaluation research and the research on evaluation as learning tools, a part of the development process, as well as a forum for partnership and responsibility sharing, as Gariba put it.<sup>1350</sup> What is more, in this evaluation experiment such purposes as the feedback and feed forward functions were stressed; in short, bringing about evaluation impacts at the local level of the development intervention (MHCC) by means of using evaluation findings and evaluation process. Thus, I viewed the recipient hegemonic paradigm as the best framework for the evaluation purposes of this research, emphasising local participation and learning in evaluation. Then, as the evaluator I undertook different steps and followed different procedures when generating meaningful data for further analysis. I stressed the fittingness and applicability of the data to its context rather than its generality, understanding that all human behaviour was time and context bound, and hence, the possibility of generalisation was questioned. What was more, I described phenomena and searched for regularities and patterns of VET and evaluation impacts, not generalised laws as in positivism, but rather for insights through instrumental cases that could be transferred from one context to another, as done in the instrumental case studies.<sup>1351</sup>

There were challenges in my research with the definition of terms and concepts used as well. One case in point was the concept of decent work. I was close to employing the categories of decent work and indecent work when coding VET impacts. However, I realised that, to the International Labour Organisation, decent work has four pillars, which could not be identified in the context of MHCC graduates' cases. These pillars are: 1. Productive, remunerative employment; 2. Rights at work; 3. Social security; and 4. Social dialogue. Of these pillars I had charted out only productive, remunerative employment. Productive work means an adequate income provision for entrepreneurs and workers, while rights at work refers to

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<sup>1348</sup> Mayring 1983 in Flick 2006, 312–313

<sup>1349</sup> Mabry 2009, 342–353

<sup>1350</sup> Gariba 1998 in Morra Imas & Rist 2009, 196; Rebien 1997, 454

<sup>1351</sup> Bholá 1990, 28–29

international labour standards, covering rights to associate and bargain, rights to be free from discrimination (gender, race etc.), safe and healthy work environment, having property rights and rights to doing business without harassment, administrative barriers, corruption, and the illegal seizure of property by public officials. Social protection takes place through social security systems, such as pensions and insurances against sickness, injury, death, unemployment, and old age. Social dialogue covers democratic and effective representation in labour and business associations and having access to dialogue with the government on policies and programmes targeted at these workers and their job development.<sup>1352</sup>

Referring to the validity of the process use concept of evaluation in an NGO context, for example, I state the research strategy and the standpoint theory chosen were appropriate in terms of the hegemony and cultural aspects highlighted. The approaches applied were relevant in considering the multiple levels and viewpoints of my research: personal, interpersonal and community perspectives of the evaluand and its African culture. What is more, as Kemmis stated, the critical orientation to action research, which I used when criticising the prevailing educational practices in Tanzania, was appropriate. Therefore, issues such as which knowledge type was prioritised, whose power in political domination over knowledge was overvalued and strengthened, were discussed in this research. In this way, freeing or emancipating people from the determination of manners, institutions and culture by organising an enlightenment process via empowerment evaluation was targeted. Thus, both the practices and knowledge about these practices were improved simultaneously. In this research, power questions in the form of standpoint, hegemony and equality problems (dependable on social and economic factors) were revealed as well. These questions tend to promote equality, emancipate and transfer power (to become empowered) from the elite to the masses, making them participating stakeholders.

In fact, while conducting my research, I noticed that a critical friend or outsider could assist internals to act more critically when being present in their negotiations and dialogues. The purpose of the research was to strengthen and reveal more deeply the standpoint of the locals. To this end, my research substantiated the need for a power-broker between the more powerful locals (e.g., the committee and management group members) and the powerless local groups (e.g., the guards, former students, etc.) of the VET intervention at MHCC.

Regarding my external-insider role (see Table 5), the role of the external facilitator of evaluation proved to be crucial and successful when strengthening local evaluation impacts. As the outside mediator or “soothsayer,” a concept widely used in Africa

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<sup>1352</sup> ILO 2006, 8–9; 2009

(as Mugore and Mbigi) stated, I encouraged and facilitated the process of managing change.<sup>1353</sup> Thus, as the outsider, I was needed in the enlightenment process (i.e., training on evaluation in seminars and workshops at MHCC) while simultaneously, as the critical action researcher, I had to somehow be inside the action itself. This involvement began, in my case, during the work period in the education and training sector at MHCC in Tanzania in the 1990s, years before the research got started. Indeed, the period when I returned to Finland and worked here assisted me in transitioning from a total outsider to an external-insider.<sup>1354</sup>

When addressing the methodological validity of the research strategy used from the time perspective, I can state that it was efficient. The time frame chosen fitted the research and evaluation purposes well. The research methods selected, in my case being action research and empowerment evaluation, were appropriate for such future and development-oriented targets of my research as learning in evaluation and evaluation utilisation. Also, the summaries of historical events were possible to generate with the assistance of the written life histories and thematic interviews. Nevertheless, more rounds of action research, if used, could naturally have strengthened the evaluation impacts and process use of evaluation at MHCC. Understandably, considerable travel expenses and tight work schedules in my home country prohibited me, as the researcher, to travel to Tanzania more than twice during the research processes. Lincoln and Guba, as well as Creswell and Miller, demonstrate that research credibility can be strengthened with prolonged engagement in the field; with member checking by sharing data and interpretation with people involved; with data-gathering by using multiple sources, multi-methods, multiple theoretical frameworks, various researchers, and peer debriefing by discussing the findings with critical friends.<sup>1355</sup>

However, regarding my research aims, more time would have been beneficial. My research aims were as follows: first, to make use of empowerment evaluation to improve the outcomes of the development programme of an NGO (MHCC) so that evaluation could be mainstreamed to become a part of the program design and management of these activities; second, to facilitate programme participants and staff members in taking evaluation tools into their own hands. Put plainly, these aims required a longer cooperation period at the project site. In this way, this programme could have been made better and more successful by means of empowerment

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<sup>1353</sup> Mbigi 1995, 112 in Mugore 2002

<sup>1354</sup> see e.g., Carr & Kemmis 1986, 162; Kuula 1999, 61–73

<sup>1355</sup> Creswell & Miller 2000; Lincoln & Guba 1985

evaluation by providing tools and capacity for stakeholders of the programme to carry out evaluation in every phase of the programme's life span.<sup>1356</sup>

In this evaluation research on the VET case, not only were lived experiences essential, but dialogue was as well. My view was that dialogue was needed between an evaluator and the evaluation multi-stakeholders, for I emphasised, together with Levin–Rozalis, Rosenstein and Cousins, that all evaluation parties possessed knowledge. Each party had knowledge that the others were lacking and needed, but which could be shared. This knowledge gap contributed to knowledge exchange and accelerated the creation of a feedback process. This feedback was interdependent, and the process of mutual influences between the evaluator and evaluatees, or non-evaluator stakeholders, was cyclical and spiralling, as it is in action research and action learning as well. Thus, feedback was based on the hierarchy between all parties possessing knowledge.<sup>1357</sup>

Data generation and record-keeping took a lot of time and effort from me as the researcher. They were carried out in very systematic ways, as clarified earlier. Similarly, these multiple sources of evidence required that the researcher could employ different data generation techniques. This learning process also, understandably, took time. Among the challenges of data generation from multiple data sources were higher costs of data generation and greater usage of time, as compared to data collected from a single source. Because the research was responsive and flexible, modification of methods was also required, on which I spent extra effort as well. A typical example of this was when the locals called for strengthening the evaluative habit of mind at MHCC.<sup>1358</sup>

Even though I focussed in my research mainly on the primary themes of changes experienced as a result of VET from MHCC in stakeholders' lives and communities in Tanzania, some evaluation issues were impossible to pre-establish strictly beforehand. Consequently, my manuscript required sufficient looseness. This flexibility was needed also because in our thematic interviews I attempted to raise those issues previously mentioned in the students' written stories considering my research setting. Written stories integrated with thematic interviews involved several focus areas with each graduate, such as a focus on life history, the details of the changes experienced and reflection on their meanings. My task as the interviewer

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<sup>1356</sup> Wandersman & Snell-Johns 2005, 422; Wandersman, Snell-Johns, Lentz, Fetterman, Keener, Livet, Imm & Flaspohler 2005, 28–29

<sup>1357</sup> Forss, Cracknell & Samset 1994, 574–591; Levin-Rozalis 2000; Levin-Rozalis & Rosenstein 2005 in Levin-Rozalis, Rosenstein & Cousins 2009, 204–205

<sup>1358</sup> Janesick 2003, 66; Katz, Sutherland & Earl 2002; Yin 2009a, 117

was to put the participant's experience in context, and to concentrate on the concrete details of the participant's present experience in the topic area of the evaluation experiment, and reflection on the meaning of her or his experience.<sup>1359</sup> Next, the data generation methods used shall be assessed.

As a data generation method, the documents and files that I gained access to had both their strengths and weaknesses. Their positive qualities — stability and exactness — guaranteed that names, references and details were correct and reliable. Their coverage of broad issues, of many events and settings, and lengthy time spans were strengths as well. These documents also offered the ability for me to review them repeatedly.<sup>1360</sup> They assisted me in understanding values and the culture of organisations such as MHCC and FPCT by giving me a good view of the VET project's background, decisions made, activities engaged in, and of processes gone through. I went over the history of MHCC through these documents and also looked at events that had occurred before my working or research in Tanzania by studying records of activities from bygone days. I utilised this background data as a very instructive and fruitful addition to my other forms of data to build up the overall picture of the VET centre in its local context, from its beginning up to the day when the research began. Again, these documents served as a repository of the VET case offering useful sources for observing the activity and measuring it. That being said, in my case, accessibility, biased selectivity and incompleteness were weaknesses of the project documents. Although I had free access to all the documents located at MHCC, they were imperfect because of some missing results of the Trade Tests.<sup>1361</sup>

The background questionnaire that I used had its strengths and weaknesses as well. Along with the story writing, it enabled me to rapidly collect data from respondents scattered across a large area of Tanzania, at a reasonable cost. Additionally, the data of the questionnaires and of the written stories made it possible for me to learn “hard” information about the backgrounds and working lives of the former students of MHCC. Most importantly, these two methods were free from my external influence and enabled me to avoid problems of reactivity which could have arisen from my presence. In this way, these methods brought uniformity into research situations.<sup>1362</sup> Regardless of the aforementioned merits, the questionnaire

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<sup>1359</sup> See Seidman 1991, 10–12.

<sup>1360</sup> Yin 2009a, 102

<sup>1361</sup> see e.g., Flick 2006, 252; Patton 1990, 233; Simons 2009, 63; Stake 1995, 68; Yin 2009a, 101–106

<sup>1362</sup> see e.g., Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2001, 36–37; Rwegoshora 2006, 147–148, 150–152; Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2006, 76

also had limitations.<sup>1363</sup> One of these demerits, as Rwegoshora calls them, was a limited response rate.<sup>1364</sup> Incomplete entries and bad handwriting occasionally proved a considerable challenge.<sup>1365</sup> I deliberated upon the question of what extent replies could have been manipulated, be dishonest or written by someone else, which could make answers unreliable, but I did not reach any exhaustive conclusion on this issue.<sup>1366</sup>

Interviewing had its advantages, strengths and merits as well, as with any data generation method. Of the many forms of interviewing, I used thematic interviews and a group interview.<sup>1367</sup> Instead of totally open questions, I asked pre-planned and pre-determined thematic questions.<sup>1368</sup> That is why I emphasised more strongly those issues which the respondents had previously explained and stressed in their own written stories, to make the former students' voices heard in these first thematic interviews.<sup>1369</sup> Interviewing was a relevant data generation method, especially in the cultural environment that differed from mine. These differences demanded a great deal of sensitivity and understanding from me. I could capture them only by leaving enough space for our communication, which was possible in thematic interviews. For instance, the linguistic expressions of participants could have caused language difficulties for me. To avoid these challenges, my Tanzanian research assistant participated in all graduates' interviews as an observer, and when needed, as an interpreter. I recorded thematic interviews by using an audio-tape recorder to fully capture what the interviewee said, how they replied, and also to cover the whole conversation and all its exchanges.

One of the strengths of interviewing was active participation. Indeed, all former students approached were willing to take part in interviewing, while when using the survey technique, it is typical that many might never respond. Additionally, interviewing was a flexible method and produced descriptive examples. Also, it assisted me in understanding the details of participants' experiences from their viewpoints, and of how their individual experiences interacted with social and organisational forces in the context where they lived and worked, as well as with

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<sup>1363</sup> Rwegoshora 2006, 151–153

<sup>1364</sup> see Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2006, 76

<sup>1365</sup> Rwegoshora 2006, 153

<sup>1366</sup> see Hirsjärvi, Remes & Sajavaara 2005, 184; Rwegoshora 2006, 153

<sup>1367</sup> Eskola & Suoranta 1999, 87; Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2001, 43

<sup>1368</sup> Rwegoshora 2006, 163

<sup>1369</sup> Pons 1992, 98; Spicer 2004, 302

those whom they lived and worked with.<sup>1370</sup> Further, the thematic interviews enabled me to study, for instance, events that were no longer open to observation; they provided important insight on phenomena and their historical background, even of past events, as well as of abstract factors (e.g., attitudes, feelings, emotions, reactions).<sup>1371</sup>

Interviewing as an evaluation method contributed to greater understanding about the day to day workings of the VET programme and its effects on people. It provided detailed descriptions of the VET programme experience and the real-life context of MHCC. In this case, it helped to explain why the VET from MHCC had had certain effects. Through interviews, I moved toward understanding perspectives on the former students' lives, experiences or situations as expressed in their own words, not only about their actions and reality, but also their thoughts and feelings during the repeated thematic face-to-face encounters. This method allowed me to ask how participants perceived and interpreted their circumstances as well as their histories and it also allowed them to explain their motives and the reasons for their own behaviour. Besides all this, the thematic interviews provided a chance for me as the evaluator and the participant to get to know each other individual better and to build trust. Hence, confidence and improved communication increased the participants' understanding of the evaluation and facilitated them in being more forthcoming in their responses. I realised also the empowering sense of interviewing.<sup>1372</sup>

Interviewing also had its limits, weaknesses, disadvantages, and demerits, as with the data collection methods. In my case, interviewing was time and money-consuming. Interviewees' availability needed to be checked in multiple ways (e.g., through many appointments, radio calls, letters, phone calls, site visits, travelling) and be scheduled around the interviewees' timetables. In fact, not only did data generation through interviews require a lot of effort but the next steps taken after data generation, specifically, data transcription and data analysis, demanded an even vaster amount of time. Hall and Hall aptly remind us (which unfortunately, I seemed to have forgotten) that data transcription may take at least six times the length of the interview.<sup>1373</sup> For example, a 30-minute-long tape could take three hours to transcribe. However, because most of the interviews were completed in Swahili, the

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<sup>1370</sup> See Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2001, 35; Rwegoshora 2006, 173–175; Seidman 1991, 103; Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2006, 76; Yin 2009a, 102.

<sup>1371</sup> Rwegoshora 2006, 173

<sup>1372</sup> Sherraden 2001

<sup>1373</sup> Hall & Hall 1996, 162



transcription took even more time until they were typed out on the computer. In addition, travelling by a rented car to conduct these interviews also had its costs.<sup>1374</sup>

Interviewing was also very challenging from the point of view of my researcher's role. It was hard to guarantee anonymity of a participant as if I had used, for instance, the survey technique. Some other demerits of interviewing were that the data collected was heavily dependent on the participant's memory and responses depended on how carefully questions were worded. For these reasons, there was a danger of unnecessary details and lot of subjectivity, as well as the capturing of an individual's feelings if the situation had been so important and exceptional to them that it had an influence on their emotions and sentiments.<sup>1375</sup>

The group interview had advantages as well, as summarised by Flick and Rwegoshora. In my case, the group interview was an inexpensive, flexible, and relatively quick way to collect a large amount of rich data within a short period. It stimulated participants and provided a social context for their input.<sup>1376</sup> This method influenced interaction and power asymmetries, understanding and perception, creation of new ideas of the involved, and assisted them in conducting evaluation in practice.<sup>1377</sup>

The group interview also had its weaknesses. The method was demanding for me as the moderator, because it required many skills. I had to be capable of identifying the individual views from the group views and, as the facilitator, to take control over the interaction more so than in the general situations. Another possible challenge was a lack of full anonymity or confidentiality for the members in the group who engaged in discussion.<sup>1378</sup> An apparent weakness of the group interview method might be noticeable in group-thinking, wherein this group's opinions may have been more homogenous than when the individuals replied alone.

I applied Patton's view to the evaluation experiment, that development evaluation should not only reveal accountability of a certain intervention but simultaneously assist both evaluation partners and stakeholders; that is an evaluator, an evaluatee or a representative of an evaluand, to learn about, as well as to benefit from, evaluation and its results. In line with this is the view that there is no use for controlled

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<sup>1374</sup> See e.g., Stake 1995, 66; Tuomi & Sarajärvi 2006, 76; Yin 2009a, 85, 109.

<sup>1375</sup> Rwegoshora 2006, 174–175; Yin 2009a, 102, 106–109

<sup>1376</sup> Flick 2006, 190; Krueger 1994 in Dreachslin 1999, 227; Rwegoshora 2006, 181–182

<sup>1377</sup> Syrjälä & Numminen 1988, 104–105

<sup>1378</sup> Dreachslin 1999, 226; Rwegoshora 2006, 182

experiments if aiming at local learning, because of the complex nature of aid interventions.<sup>1379</sup>

## 5.4 Limitations of this research and recommendations for future research

Several limitations in this research could be mentioned. First, the present study investigated socio-economic impacts of VET offered by a private VET provider in Tanzania. In the majority of cases VET seemed to contribute to socio-economic impacts, for it seemed to have had impacts not only on an individual's poverty reduction, but even more widely on society. However, this data provided anomalous evidence as well, which was in direct contradiction to Western linear thinking and assumptions about the enormous economic power and benefit of vocational skills acquired in VET, that full-time employment acts as a tool for alleviating poverty and automatically raising a person's living standards. Nevertheless, as the development project at MHCC provided evidence, for the VET trainees who experienced positive, significant, sustainable economic, social, and personal education impacts in their lives, the positive, productive impact chains of VET seemed to have had very far-reaching and significant ramifications for the lives of their extended families, peers, community members, and the Tanzanian society at large. A case in point was the "informal, private apprenticeship training." Additional research is needed both on VET as a countermeasure for poverty alleviation in developing countries (e.g., its contextual factors: VET curriculum, working life etc.) and on its far-reaching positive impact chains from the viewpoints of the lives of extended families, peers, community members, and the Tanzanian society.

Second, it is important to replicate a longitudinal study on the socio-economic impacts of VET, for it would be the optimal research strategy for addressing this question. Again, more research is needed to clarify other forms of VET impacts in Tanzania. Third, the process use of development evaluations contributing to various types of evaluation impacts (e.g., cognitive, affective, behavioural, social, economic, cultural) at various levels (e.g., individual, interpersonal, collective) of the development intervention is worth studying. Especially, from the chosen evaluation standpoint and paradigm through various elements existing in the evaluation factor affecting evaluation use and evaluation impacts. Although the findings supported my

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<sup>1379</sup> OECD-DAC 1991, 5; 1992, 132; Patton 1997, 75–85; Randall-Thompson 1991 in Rebien 1997, 449

hypothesis, the results are based on a small sample size, thus, more research should be undertaken to determine the actual impacts of the process use based on the types and levels of variables in a wider participant group.

One key criterion among the various standards set for qualified evaluation is its utilisation. It covers not only the donors as the users but also the use of evaluations at the local level of the intervention evaluated. Thus, evaluation commissioners, initiators, funders, and donors need to have more knowledge of major facilitating and inhibiting contextual, evaluation and human factors with their related elements, underlying evaluation utilisation and impacts. It will be important for future research to explore how these factors which influence development evaluation consequences have been realised and used, with what results. In addition, contextual factors, related to financial and political constraints (i.e., international evaluation agreements; evaluation policies, institutionalised evaluation systems) affecting development evaluation utilisation and impacts are worth revealing and merit additional study. The evaluation factor (being in the hands of the evaluation commissioner and partly of the evaluator, through its different elements that influence evaluation use and evaluation impacts), should be made more beneficial, for instance by using the researcher's standpoint and location which is reflected in evaluation use and evaluation impacts. Future research on these evaluation elements should be more focussed. The present research does not provide evidence of the human factor of the evaluator influencing evaluation use; this task is left to future research.

As the VET case emphasised, every evaluation (together with all available elements) should be used. In this research, criticism was directed at the “expensive evaluation business” with its disappointing impacts. Hence, all the available key elements of evaluation use — including the evaluation commissioning and evaluation process should be realised and released at their fullest potentialities affecting evaluation use and its impacts, due to the scarcity of funding opportunities available for development evaluations. Further study is necessary to establish how these different elements of the evaluation use which influence evaluation impacts have been conscious and how they have been of benefit to the users of development evaluations, and who these users are.

What is more, power imbalances existing in evaluation can cause difficulties for the less powerful to have access to sources of knowledge and qualified information; it can even exclude their voices. Political limitations, power imbalances due to the nature of the aid relationship, challenges inside the donor agencies and their capacities can also result in evaluation non-use on the recipients' side, or negligence of local learning and of involvement in evaluation. Because of the deficient impacts

of development evaluation, further research should be focussed on the evaluation standpoint taken by the evaluation commissioners and the evaluator affecting development evaluation use and impacts both among the donors and development receivers. The prevailing evaluation standpoint and paradigm of development evaluation needs to be further exposed and studied to learn how this current prioritised paradigm impacts insufficient evaluation utilisation and evaluative learning not only at the local implementation level but also at its policy level, because this paradigm does not tend to yield to incremental VET knowledge, continuity of programmes and infrastructure building.

Evaluation use needs to be intensified by means of local participation. Referring to development jargon, which illustrates that local stakeholders are engaged as an equal party in development evaluation with donors, we ought to dare to investigate the prevailing practices by, to and for whom development evaluations are produced and the degree to which these practices are essentially democratic. Therefore, the topics evaluated need to be studied by using culturally, methodologically and ethically appropriate evaluation standpoints, orientations and methods and by giving more power to the locals to define what is the common, valid knowledge in that culture by using their local narratives and discourses with cultural interpretations and values. Indeed, cultural competence is vital when conducting development evaluation or research on development evaluation. Therefore, future research needs to establish how cultural factors are considered and should be reflected in the choice of evaluation paradigms; and furthermore, in the methodologies and methods used in evaluation research and research on evaluation.

Evaluation use could be more efficiently guaranteed if evaluation was a learning process. It would then become, for its participants, a way of empowering them to ever-increasingly take responsibility of their projects and evaluations. Competence is needed inside each development project to evaluate impacts and progress as well as to assist its partners to reshape and modify their on-going practices in good time. Furthermore, it will be important for future research to explore the evaluation impacts of “evaluation of development” vs. “evaluation for development” — approaches used from the viewpoints of “local learning on evaluation” vs. “local learning in evaluation” as well as “evaluation of impacts” vs. “evaluation for impacts.” Indeed, the evaluation purpose of “accountability for learning” in development evaluation merits additional study, and different aspects of the accountability concept (external-internal, upward-downward, structural-functional, etc.) are be called for.

Because evaluation has chiefly been carried out by external consultants (a procedure that, from my viewpoint, excludes local learning and organisational development, and has mainly benefitted donor agencies and their evaluative needs), future research is needed on how these external evaluations (meta-evaluations) are utilised for development purposes and impact the improvement and development of the evaluand. The non-use of evaluations among development donors and in the field, and the reasons for it, require additional study. Likewise, the misuse of development evaluations, the debate over evaluation impacts, its reasons, consequences and frequency, merit additional study as well. In addition, it will be necessary to further examine the extent that representatives of academia are used as evaluators in these “objective evaluations” (as they are marketed) who could consider ontological, epistemological and methodological standpoints and contextual spheres and levels, those vital elements which are reflected in evaluation practices and in the background of evaluation research.

The process use of evaluation, in the context of development evaluation, requires additional study regarding how, with what results, instructions and resource allocations, it is utilised in the donors’ evaluation agenda. What is more, further study is necessary to establish the extent of local evaluation capacity development, its resource allocation and results in the development field. Additional studies on internal learning processes and their structures in development evaluation involving the donor and its counterparts in recipient countries are needed.

Referring to NGOs, more studies are needed on process use, evaluation capacity development and evaluation influences among these organisations and on development evaluation generally. With small financial and educative efforts, the sustainability and adaptability of development activities could be improved considerably because of the standpoint used and evaluation paradigm valued, if enabling and prioritising more participative methods in development evaluation. Local funds are insufficient to carry out evaluative or developmental interventions in the form of action research, though many indicators of the sustainability of this intervention should strongly favour the maintenance of evaluation and research cooperation between partners. This topic also merits additional study.

Referring to the involvement of locals in planning as well as evaluation, development evaluations should focus on the ways things are done and enable people to make their own analysis of the issues and adapt their intervention to the current environment, rather than to stress only the results achieved.<sup>1380</sup> Therefore, new ways to utilise evaluation processes need to be developed and studied by

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<sup>1380</sup> Stringer 1999, 25

challenging the prevailing methodological choices made in development evaluation with the local multi-stakeholders' standpoint and the recipient hegemonic evaluation paradigm challenge.

The WB stated that NGO-based VET providers have offered their education with lower unit costs than public providers, due to their different skill mix offered and their more intensive use of resources.<sup>1381</sup> This topic was not studied in my research but could be a relevant perspective for further inquiry. What is more, private VET providers are blossoming in developing countries, as seen in this research. Specifically, in Tanzania, international donors have strongly steered the direction of the Tanzanian VET by their evaluations conducted. Thus, it will be important for future research to explore the reliability and validity of these research results which these actors have produced and with what consequences, especially reflecting in the very low quality of VET in Tanzania at present.

As the policy maker, training provider, financier, and VET regulator, VETA plays many roles which are challenging and sometimes conflicting; and therefore, worth studying. Furthermore, VETA has supportive regulations for private VET providers. These guiding measures of support deal with the protection of service users and improvement of the quality of private VET services. These actions take place through the quality and stability control, and accreditation, of private VET providers and should also be accompanied by follow-up studies of relevant courses offered because of the connection with the labour market. Further research is necessary to establish whether VETA's regulations have succeeded in the quality improvement of private VET providers. The Trade Test system used in the Tanzanian VET field needs to be assessed as well. Again, to improve the quality of VET results it will be important for future research in Tanzania to examine the key reasons for, and consequences of, very high drop-out rates in its public and private VET institutions.

## 5.5 Summary: Final statements made

If referring to the objectives of the Tanzanian Government and Nyerere's legacy, MHCC's training programme has done very well by them. Nyerere's legacy emphasised self-reliance, including programmes that aim at youth revitalisation and rural development. In this sense, MHCC with its boarding-school system and daily responsibilities of the students (cooking, cleaning, workshops, and farming), resonated well with Nyerere's principles. He viewed that schools must become farms

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<sup>1381</sup> WB 2004, 91, 93, 95

or workshops, which make income and produce food.<sup>1382</sup> When assessing development cooperation projects of Finnish NGOs in Tanzania between November 19<sup>th</sup> and December 8<sup>th</sup>, 1988, the evaluation team, supported by the Finnish Government, came to the same conclusion. These evaluators acknowledged that VET skills at MHCC and material aid in technical input improved both the quantity and the quality of home craft producers. In addition, this team appreciated that the assistance was directed at the youth at the grass-roots level. Thus, these evaluators were convinced that MHCC was the right venue for sustainable development, for over 90% of primary school leavers in 1988 had no possibilities for further studies or to be employed.<sup>1383</sup> These private VET institutions have been recognised as having strong positive impacts on the poor, due to their high enrolment rate of students with low socio-economic backgrounds, and due to having been better prepared and having had greater flexibility to respond to the labour market's demands than state institutions.<sup>1384</sup>

In addition, the results of the evaluation made in 2012 on MHCC demonstrated that the VET centre's handing-over has been successful because of the institution becoming self-sufficient and self-reliant. The report revealed that "FPCT [MHCC's background organisation] seemed to have understood well that outside support was only for a limited time and that after the VET institution needed to have been taken over by FPCT. The Finnish-supported Mwanza Home Craft Centre was mentioned as a good example of that — an example recognized even by the Tanzanian Government."<sup>1385</sup>

Most importantly, when VET is available it needs qualified and trained staff, as well as modern equipment.<sup>1386</sup> In this sense, the quality of education offered by private providers, like NGOs, has been rated higher than public schools in Tanzania. This held true in the VET case at MHCC, with MHCC being rated one of the top VET centres in Mwanza region by the external VET and VETA officers (see footnotes 1066–1070). I conclude that the VET case at MHCC seems to have indicated that NGOs are still needed as VET providers in Tanzania, despite the growing criticism against them as a development channel generally. NGOs have been accused by various scholars of shifting the responsibilities of local governments towards themselves, although generally the appearance of NGOs is linked with the

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<sup>1382</sup> Mulenga 2001; Nyerere 1968, 283

<sup>1383</sup> MHCC17, 13–14, 30

<sup>1384</sup> Atchoarena & Esquieu 2002; Oketch 2007, 231

<sup>1385</sup> Fida 2012b, 28

<sup>1386</sup> AEO 2012

failure of states to solve development or education problems in their own countries.<sup>1387</sup> However, the evaluation experiment on the VET case substantiated that VET provided by a private actor using local, non-governmental funds can still operate in Tanzania, and what is more astonishing, MHCC is further self-sustaining, more than 20 years after the termination of development funding.

On the grounds of this research I crystallise the final statements made as follows:

*On evaluation use and evaluation impacts in development evaluation:*

- The worrying and growing trend towards miserable use of development evaluations and deficient impacts despite the vast, growing business of evaluation is worth acknowledging; first, because of its adverse effects (e.g., evaluation value loss, fatigue, resistance, cynicism, fear and deceit, falsification of information, decreases in operational resources and increased sentiment regarding growing administration); and second, because of the loss of limited resources and wasted, potential opportunities available in these evaluations as the instruments for better implementation of development services and bringing maximal value to the target of the evaluation, its stakeholders and evaluation users.
- An attack should be launched against the growing non-use of development evaluation and its insufficient impacts, with the following concrete actions:
  - The term evaluation use should be reconceptualised in the vocabulary of evaluation policies and plans, for at present, this use is chiefly linked to the use of evaluation findings published in evaluation reports. Unfortunately, all other available key elements of evaluation use (besides evaluation findings) — the evaluation commissioning and evaluation process — are being neglected or not used to their fullest potential. This means that, from the viewpoint of learning, based on the use of the evaluation procedures, communication and experiences available during evaluation, learning (one of two targets set for development evaluation by the OECD-DAC) neglects “learning in evaluation,” if based on evaluation findings written on evaluation report (to me, “learning on evaluation”). So, all evaluation parts usable should be maximally harnessed, observed, realised, released, as well as intensified, at all evaluation levels (e.g., personal, interpersonal, collective), not only among bi and multi-lateral development actors, but also in the NGOs.
  - In every evaluation policy and plan conducted with public funds, concrete actions must be made mandatory, for example, clarification of how evaluation use should be materialised must be explicated in the evaluation commissioning phase of the evaluation in question. The written plan on evaluation use with evaluation impacts desired and intended with relevant measure, needs to be a precondition for evaluation funding and should be demanded to be produced from every

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<sup>1387</sup> See Doftori 2004, 19, 81; Rugumamu 2005.



evaluation conducted with public funds in the evaluation commissioning phase. Evaluation utilisation should be instructed, encouraged and funded in official documents of development evaluation policies. Evaluation stakeholders and their organisations should be rewarded by evaluation commissioners and funders if the evaluation is used and if it contributes to impacts.

- More emphasis ought to be placed on the utilisation of evaluation processes in development evaluation in the future. Maximum benefits can be received from the processual evaluation use while evaluating, because the evaluation and its processes can be used naturally due of its local methodological, cultural and situational relevance as an intervention, a learning method and a powerful tool or instrument, as well as an accelerator of change processes, with reasonable costs. In fact, active participation of the evaluation stakeholders in the process seems to increase its use and impacts.
- Most importantly, the process use of evaluation provides evidence that its non-use or ineffectiveness would be made entirely out of the question. Due to its various types of evaluation impacts (e.g., cognitive, affective, behavioural, social, and heretofore unknown economic and cultural evaluation impacts) at various levels (e.g., individual, interpersonal, collective) it is worth using.
- The process use of evaluation could be one of the solutions to decrease asymmetries existing in development evaluation between donors and recipients, and between local partners having large power distances and clear power hierarchies and orientations between them.
- The process use of evaluation contributes more to adoption of the future orientation at the local level of the development intervention than the use of evaluation findings does. Thus, donors and evaluation commissioners should gain a deeper understanding of the fact that longer-lasting impacts are likely to take place from “learning in evaluation,” due to the processual evaluation use allowing people’s involvement through personal experience and active participation more than only in “learning on evaluation,” and that the decisions made based on the use of findings written in evaluation reports, are unfortunately incompletely utilised by donors.
- The definition of an evaluation impact/impacts need to be clarified, to not only refer to positive evaluation consequences but also its negative, unintended impacts, which must be revealed and tackled.

*On context, evaluation and human factors affecting evaluation use and impacts:*

- Evaluation commissioners, initiators, funders, and donors, as well as evaluators, need to gain further knowledge about major improving or prohibitive contextual, evaluation and human factors (with their related elements) that lay behind evaluation utilisation and impact. For instance, contextual factors related to financial and political constraints and systems (i.e., international evaluation agreements; evaluation policies, institutionalised

evaluation systems) negatively affecting development evaluation utilisation and impacts must be revealed and reduced. The evaluation factor, including the chosen evaluation standpoint and paradigm, through various elements existing in this factor, being in the hands of the evaluation commissioner and partly of the evaluator, has influences on evaluation consequences. These determinants are the evaluation design (the findings or the process use in evaluation); time-frame (past or forward-looking) and methods used (summative or formative); the evaluation target emphasised (accountability, learning or accountability for learning); as well as the roles of evaluators (indigenous/external-insider; indigenous/external-outsider) and of evaluation users (the donors, recipients or both).

- The prevailing, overarching Western and Eurocentric, positivist evaluation standpoint with hegemonic language for accountability and control purposes having a historical orientation, overvaluing experimental designs and hard evaluation methods, needs to be further exposed. This currently prioritised donor hegemonic evaluation paradigm has a direct impact on insufficient development evaluation utilisation and evaluative learning, not only at the local implementation level but also at its policy level because of exclusiveness and unfamiliarity to the locals. The evaluations conducted at present solely by external evaluators, whose supposed superiority (cf., language skill and local cultural knowledge) should be questioned and need to be democratised further through the local stakeholders and their organisations' involvement in, time scales and methods used. The rhetoric of partnership in development evaluation ought to become a reality. The locals ought to play more important roles as the beneficiaries and users of development evaluations, thus, the methodologies of development evaluations ought to be decolonised and become more context-friendly, fitting with the cultural context of evaluation; to consider more local contextual spheres and levels as well as language expressions to contribute substantially to more effective and increasing local evaluation use. Organisational dimensions through evaluation need to be strengthened by means of evaluation capacity development.
- The use of transdisciplinary evaluation approaches could enrich and renew the currently prioritised theoretical and methodological solutions of development evaluation. These evaluations should become more future-focussed than past-focussed by considering more "evaluation for development" and "evaluation for impacts," as well as "learning in evaluation" aspects in evaluation practices and its funding, as opposed to only concentrating on the current type of thinking which highlights and uses one-sided "evaluation of development" and "evaluation of impact" as well as "learning on evaluation" modes.
- By choosing learning to be the prime development evaluation purpose with its local methodological and time-frame relevance, learning in evaluation could be promoted and supported internally and externally by having longer impacts on the development intervention than in learning based solely on evaluation findings. This means that the learning function of evaluation has been neglected in meta-analytic discussion about evaluation impacts seen at the local level of a development intervention. The concept of accountability as evaluation purpose deserves redefinition from the viewpoints of local partners, the NGO context and development evaluation. Hence, "accountability for local learning" ought to be enhanced and evaluation approaches utilising evaluation

processes need to be valued more, to produce stronger local evaluation impacts: improvement and development of services and evaluation, as well as of stronger local evaluation capacity and ownership.

*On VET:*

- VET as a channel of development funds ought to be strengthened because of being a key element for boosting Education for All, in Africa. The importance of private VET providers, like NGOs, as important operators in the VET field of developing countries should be more acknowledged. A case in point is Tanzania with its deteriorating quality its general education and the shortage of student places for VET entrants, especially at those offered by the public sector.
- Socio-economic VET impacts (e.g., in Tanzania) are material, immaterial, far-reaching and have significant ramifications. However, their context-dependency, if compared with Western assumptions should be more acknowledged. These impacts could be strengthened by means of reforms made in the VET curriculum and syllabus, in the representation of the employees' interest with knowledge acquisition, financial advisors and incentives (e.g., micro-loans).



**Figure 26.** The environment and buildings of MHCC in 2006 (Pylvänäinen 2006)

I want to finalise this report by citing Pressman and Wildavsky. Their statement, being consistent with my research findings, crystallised aptly the connection and importance of learning in evaluation; how the evaluation process, if used, becomes a vital instrument, not only for individuals but also for their collectives, to improve implemented services.

Learning is the key to both implementation and evaluation. We evaluate to learn, and we learn to implement. Evaluation is a method of inducing learning within an organization geared for implementing. And it is not only evaluators but the program personnel, the implementers, who are to do the learning. Were this not so, were evaluation isolated from implementation, the latter would be blind and the former would be dumb, and neither could change for the better.<sup>1388</sup>

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<sup>1388</sup> Pressman & Wildavsky 1984, xviii

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# APPENDICES



## APPENDIX 1. The official approval of the research permit

### TANZANIA COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (COSTECH)

Telegrams: COSTECH  
Telephones: (255 - 51) 75155 - 6, 700745-6  
Director General: (255 - 51) 700750 & 75315  
Fax: (255 - 51) 75313  
Telex: 41177 UTAFITI  
E-M: [Rclearance@hotmail.com](mailto:Rclearance@hotmail.com)



Ali Hassan Mwinyi Road  
P.O. Box 4302  
Dar es Salaam  
Tanzania

In reply please quote: **CST/RCA 2001/44/2239/2001**

**8<sup>th</sup> October, 2001**

Director of Immigration Services  
Ministry of Home Affairs  
P.O. Box 512  
DAR ES SALAAM

Dear Sir/Madam,

#### **RESEARCH PERMIT**

We wish to introduce to you **Anne I. Pylvanainen** from **Finland** who has been granted research permit No. **2001 - 280** dated **8<sup>th</sup> October, 2001**.

The permit allows him/her to do research in the country entitled "**The Evaluation of Empowerment in one Non-governmental Organization (NGO) Vocational Training Development Co-operation Project**".

We would like to support the application of the researcher(s) for the appropriate immigration status to enable the scholar(s) begins research as soon as possible.

By copy of this letter, we are requesting regional authorities and other relevant institutions to accord the researcher(s) all the necessary assistance. Similarly the designated local contact is requested to assist the researcher(s).




You are faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'H.P. Gideon'.

H.P. Gideon  
for: **DIRECTOR GENERAL**

CC: 1. Regional Administrative Secretary: **Mara, Mwanza and Shinyanga Region(s)**  
2. Local Contact: **Dr. Willy L. M. Komba, Department of Educational Planning and Administration, BERE, University of Dar es Salaam, Dar es Salaam.**

## APPENDIX 2. The research permit

<b>TANZANIA COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (COSTECH)</b>	
<b>Telegrams:</b> COSTECH <b>Telephones:</b> (255 - 51) 75155 - 6, 700745-6 <b>Director General:</b> (255 - 51) 700750 & 75315 <b>Fax:</b> (255 - 51) 75313 <b>Telex:</b> 41177 UTAFI11 <b>E-M:</b> Rclearance@hotmail.com <i>In reply please quote:</i>	<b>Ali Hassan Mwinyi Road P.O. Box 4302 Dar es Salaam Tanzania</b>
	
<b>RESEARCH PERMIT</b>	
1. File No.: <b>RCA 2001-44</b>	Date: <b>8<sup>th</sup> October, 2001</b>
2. Permit No.: <b>2001 - 280</b>	
3. Name: <b>Anne I. Pylvanainen</b>	
4. Nationality: <b>Finnish</b>	
5. Title: <b>"The Evaluation of Empowerment in one Non-governmental Organisation's (NGO) Vocational Training Development Co-operation Project in Tanzania".</b>	
6. Research shall be confined to the following region(s): <b>Mara, Mwanza and Shinyanga.</b>	
7. Permit validity: <b>8<sup>th</sup> October, 2001 to 7<sup>th</sup> October, 2002</b>	
8. Local contact/collaborator: <b>Dr. Willy L.M. Komba, Department of Educational Planning and Administration, BERE, UDSM, Dar es Salaam .</b>	
9. Researcher is required to submit progress report on quarterly basis and submit all publications made after research.	
 H.P. Gideon for: <b>DIRECTOR GENERAL</b>	



APPENDIX 3. The residence permit



FINWH



MM 100/189/02XXXXVI  
Fu

THE UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA

TIF 4B

The Immigration Act, 1995  
(Section 20)

No. 022176

RESIDENCE PERMIT CLASS C

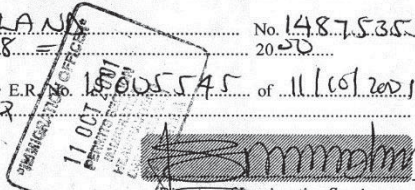
Mr./Mrs./Miss ANNE PYLVANAENEN  
P. O. BOX 2452 MWAZA  
is hereby authorized to enter Tanzania and to remain therein for a period of ONE YEAR  
VLU 10 = 10 = 2002 for specific employment with COJTECH

and subject to the provisions of the Immigration Act, 1995 and to the following conditions:-

- (a) (i) Place of work MWAZA SHANTANGA S
- (ii) Place of residence MARA REGION
- \*(b) the holder shall not engage in any employment, trade, business or profession other than RESEARCHER
- \*(c) wife and children whose names have been endorsed on this permit are not allowed to engage in Employment
- \*(d) (other specific conditions) NO CHANGE OF IMMIGRATION STATUS

Description of Passport:-  
Country of issue FINLAND No. 14875353  
Date of issue 17-08-2000

Fees: US \$ 120 received vide E.R. No. 1005545 of 11/10/2001  
issued at ARM HR



Director of Immigration Services

All persons entitled to enter the United Republic under this permit must on entering the United Republic report to an Immigration Officer without undue delay (Reg. 18).

(Section 25)

Full Name	Relationship to Holder	Age
/	/	/
/	/	/
/	/	/
/	/	/
/	/	/
Date	20	

Director of Immigration Services

\*Delete if not applicable

NPC-SPD

#### **APPENDIX 4a. The English draft of the covering letter to the former students of MHCC**

Dear previous student of Mwanza Home Craft Centre,

I am Ms Anne Pylvänäinen, collecting data and doing my research related to Mwanza Home Craft Centre and its evaluation. Mwanza Home Craft Centre (MHCC), a vocational training centre, which is well known by You, too, has founded in 1985 in co-operation with the Finnish Free Foreign Mission (LKA) and the Pentecostal Churches Association in Tanzania (nowadays FPCT) and the Ministry for Foreign Affairs of Finland.

The purpose of this study is to assess the worth of vocational training of MHCC from your viewpoint, your household and family, but also from your community and your neighbourhood viewpoints. The main idea is to enable partners to express their views to develop development co-operation so that local people could make evaluations themselves and reshape the on-going projects when needed. Actually, this kind of co-operation is the learning situation for all stakeholders.

In the first phase I want to inform You that You are lucky to get this possibility to write about your own life in your personal way, explaining by using your own words in which way the Mwanza Home Craft Centre and studying there has affected to your life. Remember there is no right or wrong answers, but all answers and replies are worth of this study.

With this cover letter, I have sent to You plain papers and one envelope with stamps and returning address. To these plain papers, You can write your own experiences of impacts of education and training in Mwanza Home Craft Centre. First, please, tell about yourself and background information about You and your family (name, sex, age, marital status, birth place, living place, present working place, years when studied in MHCC and department, religious, tribe, other later studies) and then tell by writing in which way the studying there generally has affected You personally, socially, culturally and economically. When You are comparing your life and your family's life and your community or village life before coming to MHCC and after it, could You say how studying/living in MHCC has affected to You. Do You feel yourself more or less self-conscious before and after your studies? Please, give an example. What about socially, what is your social status now among your family and relatives, neighbours, community (church and other organisations). What is your economic situation, do You have work? Which kind of work? Are you pleased to your salary or wage? What is the economic situation of your family (relatives, children)? Do You have plans to study further? Where and in which kind of schools or collages?

Or if not, why not? Where are You living now, have You moved after your studies to another place, and if, why, and if not, why not? What is the biggest change which is affected by studying in MHCC?

In the second phase I will invite personally some students of all those who has written their educational life stories to tell more about their attitudes and experiences about studying in MHCC and in which way they feel that they are more or less powerful to act after or later those studies in MHCC. This second phase includes some personal interviews and later group discussions after making the timetable for it. Interviews can take place in MHCC or in their home-places depending on the separate agreement made by the researcher.

This research belongs to my doctoral studies in the University of Tampere, Finland. My major is science of education and I am doing my post-graduate studies (Doctoral Thesis) there. Now I am doing my field work here in Tanzania for some months. Professor Reijo Raivola is the supervisor of my studies and this research. All information will be published in research report during 2002–2003 without any names of persons. And all information will be used only to the purpose of the research confidentially.

Thanks for your help and co-operation. After collecting data, and analysing it in co-operation with interviewees, the last report will be published to develop the training and education of MHCC, learning together to reshape on-going projects to encourage local people to assess the training and education and also to develop the evaluation of development co-operation.

The official permits to conduct this research are given by the Commission for Science and Technology of Tanzania, the bishop of FPCT David Batenzi, and the committee of Mwanza Home Craft Centre.

Yours sincerely,

Anne Pylvänäinen

Researcher, Department of Education, University of Tampere, Finland

## **APPENDIX 4b. The covering letter to the former students of MHCC in Swahili**

Ndugu – wanachuo - wahitimu wa Mwanza Home Craft Centre (MHCC) wa miaka ya nyuma tangu 1987–2000.

Mimi ni mama Anne Pylvänäinen ninakusanya taarifa na kufanya utafiti wangu kuhusiana na Mwanza Home Craft Centre pamoja na tathmini yake.

Mwanza Home Craft Centre (MHCC) Chuo cha Ufundi kinachojulikana sana kwenu, kilianzishwa mwaka 1985 kwa Ushirikiano wa shirika la kimesheni kutoka Finland, Finnish Free Foreign Mission (LKA) na Umoja wa Makinisa ya kipentekoste Tanzania (PCAT) ambao kwa sasa unaitwa (FPCT) pamoja na Wizara ya Mambo ya Nchi za Nje ya Finland.

Kusudi ya kufanya Uchunguzi huu ni kufanya Ukaridiaji (assess) wa Uthamani wa mafunzo ya Ufundi ambayo yamekuwa yakitolewa katika chuo cha Ufundi cha Mwanza Home Craft Centre. Kwa msaada wa Mawazo yenu, familia binafsi na Familia zenu kwa jumla na hata kutoka katika mawazo ya jumuiia na majirani wanao wazunguka. Wazo kuu ni kuwawezesha washirika kueleza mawazo yao ili kuendeleza Ushirikiano wa Maendeleo hivyo basi wanakijiji waweze kufanya tathmini wao wenyewe na kuboresha Mwendelezo wa miradi inapohitajika. Kwa hakika Ushirikiano wa aina hii unaleta hali ya kujifunza kwa washika dau wote.

Katika awanu ya kwanza napenda kukujulisha ya kwamba unayo bahati kupata nafasi hii ya kuandika mambo kadhaa juu ya maisha yako kwa njia ya kibinafsi, kujieleza kwa kutumia maneno yako mwenyewe, ni kwa jinsi gani Mafunzo uliyoyapata katika chuo cha Mwanza Home Craft Centre, yamekusaidia kwa kiasi kipi au hayakukusaidia kabisa katika maisha yako. Kumbuka hakuna jibu sahihi au baya (lisilo-sahihi) lakini majibu yote yatakayojibiwa au kutolewa yatakuwa na uzito sawa katika Uchunguzi huu.

Pamoja na barua hii iliyoambatanishwa, nimetuma kwako karatasi zenye mistari na bahasha moja pamoja na stempu na anwani yetu utakayotumia katika kutujibu. Kwenye karatsi hizo unaweza kuandika Uzoefu wako na matokeo ya elimu na mafunzo uliyoyapata katika chuo cha Mwanza Home Craft Centre.

Kwanza kabisa jaza fomu namba 1 na irudishe pamoja na Maelezo fomu na. 2.

Unaombwa kutoa maelezo yahasuyo:

- Historia ya maisha yako binafsi na jamaa yako
- Kwa nini uliamua kuja hapa Mwanza home Craft Centre? Ulichagua mwenyewe? Ulishauriwa na wazazi?
- Eleza kwa Maandishi ni kwa kiasi gani elimu uliyoyapata katika chuo cha Mwanza Home Craft Centre imekusaidia au kutokusaidia kibinafsi, kijamii, kiutambo duni (kimira) na

kiuchumi. Ukilinganisha maisha yako na maisha ya familia yako pamoja na maisha ya jumua aumaisha ya kijiji kabla na baada ya kuja Mwanza Home Craft Centre

-Na baada ya hapo, unaweza kusema ni jinsi gani masomo haya na kuishi kwako Mwanza Home Craft Centre kumekusaidia/kutokusaidia katika maisha yako?

-Je unajisikia vizuri au vibaya kabla na baada ya kumaliza masomo? Taa mifano.

-Ni kwa jinsi gani unajisikia vizuri au vibaya?

-Ikoje hali ya kijamii, kwa sasa kati ya familia yako na jamaa wa karibu wengine. Majirani na jumua (kanisa na vikundi vingine vidogo vidogo).

-Hali yako kiuchumi ikoje?

-Je una kazi? Kama ndiyo, ni kazi gani? Unafurahia Mshahara unaolipwa?

-Hali ya kiuchumi katika familia yako ikoje? Jamaa wa karibu, watoto?

-Je una mipango ya kusoma zaidi? Kama ndiyo, wapi na ni aina gani ya shule au vyuo ungependa kusoma?

-Kama siyo ni kwa nini haupendi kujiendeleza zaidi?

-Ni mabadiliko yapi makubwa umeyapata kwa kusoma katika chuo cha Mwanza Home Craft Centre?

Katika awamu ya pili, ningependa kuwakaribisha kibinafsi baadhi ya wanafunzi wote mlio andika tayari maelezo ya elimu yenu. Baadaye kutoka wao tunachagua wanafunzi wachache ili tupate Maelezo zaidi kuhusu mtazamo wenu na Uzoefu kuhusu kusoma katika chuo cha MHCC na jinsi gani mnajisikia vizuri zaidi au la, kuyafanyia kazi masomo yenu baada ya kumalizia katika Mwanza Home Craft Centre.

Awamu hii ya pili inajumuisha kuwepo kwa Mahojiano ya kibinafsi na kisha baadaye mjadala wa vikundi baada ya kutengeneza Utaratibu wa ratiba. Mahojiano yatafanyika Mwanza Home Craft Centre au kwenye miji yao (wanachuo hao) kutegemeana na makubaliano tofauti yatakayofanywa kati ya wanachuo na wale wanaofanya (Utafiti).

Utafiti huu ni wangu mwenyewe kwa masomo yangu ya udaktari katika Chuo Kikuu cha Tampere, Finland. Kitivo ninachosomea ni ya Elimu ya Sayansi. Nilifanya kazi katika Chuo cha Mwanza Home Craft Centre tangu 1991 mpaka 1996. Kwa sasa ninafanya kazi yangu ya Utafiti katika maeneo mbalimabli walipo watu katika Tanzania kwa miezi kadhaa. Profesa Reijo Raivola kutoka Chuo Kikuu cha Tampere ni Msimamizi wangu katika masomo na Utafiti wangu huu. Msimamizi wengine ni Daktari W. L. Komba kutoka Chuo Kikuu cha Dar es Salaam. Taarifa zote zitachapishwa kwenye ripoti za Utafiti kuanzia mwaka 2002–2003 pasipo majina ya wahusika. Na taarifa zote zitatumika kwa ajili ya shughuli za Utafiti tu, siyo mahali pengine.

Nashukuru kwa Msaada na Ushirikiano wenu. Baada ya kukusanya taarifa na kuzichambua kwa Ushirikiano na watu waliohojiwa, ripoti ya mwisho itachapishwa ili kuweza kuendeleza mafunzo na elimu ya MHCC, kujifunza kwa pamoja ili kuboresha Miradi na kuwatia moyo

wanakijiji kukadiria na kupima mafunzo na elimu pia kuendeleza tathmini ya Ushirikiano katika maendeleo.

Kibali cha ofisi cha kufanya Utafiti wangu nilipewa na Tume ya Sayansi na Teknolojia Tanzania na Askofu Mkuu wa kanisa la FPCT David Batenzi pamoja na kamati ya Uendeshaji wa chuo cha Mwanza Home Craft Centre.

Utafiti huu nimeufanya kwa kushirikiana na Mwalimu Yohana Kacheye anyefundisha katika chuo cha Mwanza Home Craft Centre. (Kiwango chake cha elimu ni: “Stashahada katika elimu ya ufundi”).

Wako Anne Pylvänäinen, Mtafiti (Researcher)

Kitivo cha Elimu, Chuo Kikuu cha Tampere, Finland  
Anwani: P. O. Box 2452 Mwanza  
Email address. [anne.pylvanainen@uta.fi](mailto:anne.pylvanainen@uta.fi)  
Namba ya Simu: 0744-433461

## APPENDIX 5. The background questionnaire for MHCC graduates

Fomu namba 1.

### UCHUNGUZI

Tafadhali, jaza mistari iliyoachwa wazi hapo chini kwa kuandika au kwa kuweka mkato moja katika kila swali, na rudisha karatasi hii baada ya kuijaza historia ya elimu yako kwa mtafiti kabla ya tarehe kwenye bahasha iliyotumwa kwako kwa Anne Pylvänäinen, P. O. Box 2452 Mwanza.

1. Jina lako: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Anwani yako: \_\_\_\_\_

3. Namba ya simu yako: \_\_\_\_\_

4. Anwani ya Email yako: \_\_\_\_\_

5. Kuzaliwa (mwaka): \_\_\_\_\_

6. Mahali ulipozaliwa: \_\_\_\_\_

7. Mahali unapoishi: \_\_\_\_\_

8. Kabila yako: \_\_\_\_\_

9. Dini yako (dhehebu): \_\_\_\_\_

10. Jinsia yako: (i). :ke   
(ii). :me

11. Umeolewa/umeoa? \_\_\_\_\_

12. Una watoto wangapi? \_\_\_\_\_

### ELIMU

13. Kiwango cha Elimu yako:

Elimu ya Msingi (Drs) VII. Mwaka wa kumaliza: \_\_\_\_\_

Elimu ya Ufundi: Mwanza Home Craft Centre (MHCC). Mwaka wa kumaliza: \_\_\_\_\_

Fani: \_\_\_\_\_

Elimu ya Secondary kidatu cha \_\_\_\_\_ (I, II, III, IV, V, VI). Mwaka wa kumaliza: \_\_\_\_\_

Elimu ya juu. Ulisoma masomo gani? \_\_\_\_\_

Wapi? \_\_\_\_\_

Miaka mingapi? \_\_\_\_\_

Ulisoma masomo mengine (aina gani): \_\_\_\_\_

Wapi? \_\_\_\_\_

Miaka mingapi? \_\_\_\_\_

14. Majarabio ya Ufundu, daraja la

(i) III, Lini (mwaka)?

Matokeo yako yalikuwaje?

Katika fani ipi? \_\_\_\_\_

(ii) II, Lini (mwaka)?

Matokeo yako yalikuwaje?

Katika fani ipi? \_\_\_\_\_

(iii) I, Lini (mwaka)?

Matokeo yako yalikuwaje? \_\_\_\_\_

Katika fani ipi? \_\_\_\_\_

### **KAZI**

Uzoefu wa kazi baada ya kuhutimu katika chuo cha Ufundu cha MHCC.

15. Taja sehemu ulizokwisha fanya kazi zako? Kwa muda gani? Lini? Kazi gani?

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16. a). Mahali unopofanyia kazi yako kwa sasa

b). Unafanya kazi gani:

c). Lini ulianza kufanya kazi hii?

d). Anwani yako binafsi ya kazi?

e). Anwani ya Mwajiri wako?

f). Namba ya simu (Mwajiri)?

**ASANTE!**



**APPENDIX 6. The programme of the first seminar and workshop (S&W1st)**

Seminar for the staff of MHCC on 6–7.12.2001

<b>Thursday 6.12.2001</b>	<b>Participants</b>
8.00–12.00 Strategic leading and management Arto Pylvänäinen	Whole staff
12.00–14.00 Lunch break	
14.00–16.00 Evaluation Anne Pylvänäinen	Whole staff

<b>Friday 7.12.2001</b>	<b>Participants</b>
8.00–12.00 Evaluation Anne Pylvänäinen	Whole staff
12.00–14.00 Lunch break	
14.00–16.00 Evaluation and strategic leading and management Anne & Arto Pylvänäinen	Whole staff

## APPENDIX 7. The invitation letter of the first thematic interviews (T11st)

Mtafiti Anne Pylvänäinen  
P. O. Box 2452 Mwanza

Mwanza 11.12.2001  
Name of the ex-student of MHCC  
Address,

### YAH: MAHOJIANO.

Ndg. Husika na kichwa cha habari hapo juu.  
Tunaomba kuja huko uliko, kufanya mahojiano kama ulivyopokea barua zetu.  
Tueleze lini kati ya tarehe 14, 15, 19, 20, 21, 22 Desemba, 2001. Tufike saa ngapi?  
Wapi tukutane (Ukipenda Chuo cha Home Craft Centre)?

Tunaomba majibu mapema iwezekanavyo. Pia unaweza kutujibu kwa simu namba 0744-433461. Tunashukuru sana kwa ushirikiano wako.

NB: Pia mahojiano yetu yanachukua masaa 2 na tunafanya mahojiano zaidi yamoja au tatu itategemea muda wa kuongea.

Wako  
Anne Pylvänäinen

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## APPENDIX 8. The invitation letter of the group interview (GI).

Mtafiti Anne Pylvänäinen  
P. O. Box 2452 Mwanza

Mwanza 01.01.2002  
Name of the interviewee  
Address  
MZA

### YAH: MWALIKO WA MAJADILIANO KWA VIKUNDI.

Ndg.  
Rejea kichwa cha habari hapo juu, ninayo furaha kukaribisha kwenye Majadiliano yanayohusu tathmini katika Chuo cha Maarifa ya Nyumbani kitakachofanyika tarehe 04.01.2002 siku ya Ijumaa viki hii saa 3.00 asubuhi katika Chuo cha Maarifa ya Nyumbani (Mwanza Home Craft Centre, Nyakato).

Idadi ya washiriki inatazamia karibu watu 10 (mjumbe wa kamati, viongozi wa chuo, walimu, wazazi na wanafunzi waliomaliza kwa miaka ya nyuma). Majadiliano yatachukua kati ya masaa 2-3. Gharama za Usafiri wa kuja na kurudi zitalipwa. Chakula pia kitapatikana baada ya Mahojiano. Tafadhali, kama hautafika nijulishe mapema na simu, namba 0744-433461.

Wako, Anne Pylvänäinen



