EDUCATION FINANCING AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT IN PUBLIC TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN LIRA CITY

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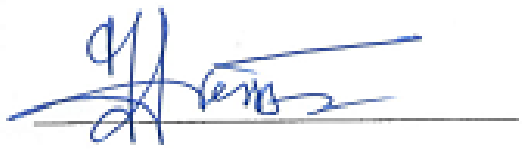
BSC. EDUCATION (ECONOMICS) GU

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH AND GRADUATE TRAINING IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF EDUCATION IN EDUCATION MANAGEMENT OF GULU UNIVERSITY

OCTOBER, 2026

DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation titled "Education Financing and Staff Development in Public Tertiary Institutions in Lira City" is my original work and has not been submitted for any award in any other institution of higher learning.



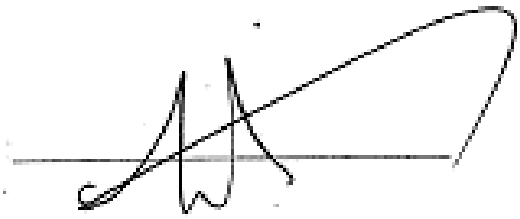


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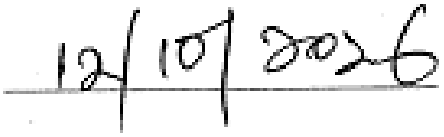
APPROVAL

This dissertation titled "Education Financing and Staff Development in Public Tertiary Institutions in Lira City" was carried out under my supervision and is now ready for submission to the Directorate of Research and Graduate Training with my approval.



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DATE

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DEDICATION

I gratefully dedicate this dissertation to my mother, Mary Etum, and my father, Nicholas Etum Oryee, for their support and encouragement throughout my studies. Mum and Dad, everything you did for me meant a lot. You are indeed the pillar of my strength.

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ABSTRACT

Staff participation in development programs in public tertiary institutions in Lira City is low. On average, only 2 out of 27 staff (7.4%) took part in staff development programs each academic year, against a recommended 9 out of 27 (about 29%) (Ministry of Education and Sports [MoES], 2022). Funding under the Local Government Development Program (LGDP-II) also fell from UGX 34,485,569 in FY 2023/24 to UGX 10,440,725 in FY 2024/25 (Lira City Education Committee, 2023). This study therefore examined the relationship between education financing and staff development in public tertiary institutions in Lira City. It used a cross-sectional descriptive and correlational design and combined quantitative and qualitative approaches. The target population was 140 (80 beneficiaries and 60 administrative officers), from which a sample of 103 was drawn. Data were collected using a questionnaire and a documentary review guide. Objectives one and two were analyzed descriptively using content analysis method, while objective three was analyzed using Pearson product-moment correlation. The findings revealed a moderate level of education financing ($M = 3.47$) and a low level of staff development ($M = 2.83$), and a strong positive relationship between education financing and staff development ($r = .885$, $p = .034$). The study recommended increased and timely funding for staff development, clear accountability for funds released, and greater effort by staff to seek alternative sources of funding and to take up training opportunities. Future research should examine the relationship between education financing and staff performance in public tertiary institutions.

Keywords: Education Financing, Staff Development, Public Tertiary Institutions, Lira City

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The ability of tertiary education to act as an agent of growth and development has been challenged by a long-standing problem of limited access to finance and inadequate financing strategies (Adewuyi & Okemakinde, 2013). Hopkins (2015) showed that education financing has a significant influence on staff development in organizations. This chapter presents the background, statement of the problem, purpose, objectives, research questions, scope, significance and conceptual framework of the study.

1.1 Background of the study

Historical background.

According to Berg, Edquist, Mays, Westberg, and Åkerlund (2015), the history of education financing depends on the perspective from which one studies it. As early as the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, physiocrats and classical economists treated education financing as a fundamental issue, an idea later formalized in human capital theory, which presents educational attainment as necessary for growth in an organization.

In the USA, staff development is not a new idea. General Motors established one of the first corporate universities, the General Motors Institute, in 1927 to drive employee (staff) development (Helper & Henderson, 2014). The concept was slow to catch public attention, but in the 1950s a variety of organizations followed the same path, although employee development and career planning experienced some growing pains. In the 1970s, career planning and development efforts focused on young employees who seemed to have high

potential. It was a way for companies to plan for the future and nurture young workers for senior management positions (Helper & Henderson, 2014).

Although organizations could not offer the same long-term commitment after the market changes of the 1980s, they could still use employee development programs to support and retain employees. Employee development took a necessary shift from focusing on promotion to focusing on skills development (Feldman, 2010). According to Daramola and Daramola (2020), the fundamentals of a good employee training program are orientation, induction, soft skills training and technical skills training, although these vary from one organization to another.

According to Hopkins (2015), the influence of war and military strategy on scientific and technical education, job skills training and scientific management has its roots in the industrial revolution. This was made possible by funds generated and channeled into the education sector to finance eligible staff. The funds came from a consolidated fund built up by its members over time (Hopkins, 2015). Leadership development programs of the post-World War II era, and the training of individuals, organizations and communities for a variety of work-related purposes, were evidence of education financing and its impact on staff development (Torraco, 2016).

In the middle of the twentieth century, after the involvement of the United States in World War II, training and development continued for servicemen and women, and mentorship and career attachments became the main means of training employees, financed by accumulated funds (Hopkins, 2015). During this period, there was a dramatic increase in the demand for trained workers brought about by the expanding wartime economy and by technological innovations.

The publication of the controversial report "A Nation at Risk" by the National Commission on Excellence in Education in 1983 was a milestone in American education. The report condemned the uneven quality of schooling in the United States and echoed the concern of many Americans that their children were not receiving the right education. This placed education policy, including the training of teachers, firmly on the national political agenda. The search for ways to improve the quality of staff training among education actors became a preoccupation of political and educational leaders and policymakers at the local and national levels (Vinovskis, 2015). On the other hand, the United States was encouraged to mobilize funds and channel them towards staff training rather than normal schooling (Vinovskis, 2015). Education financing itself had emerged as a formal field of study at the beginning of the 20th century. The traditional school finance model focused primarily on educational inputs such as teachers, support staff, textbooks and school buses, with special attention to how revenue from state and local taxes could be raised and distributed among school districts (Vinovskis, 2015).

According to Biesta (2015), in the 20th century the field of education financing attracted only a limited number of academic specialists. Its practitioners were accountants who were employed by state governments and whose engagement with policymakers was usually limited to annual or biennial deliberations over state budgets and appropriation bills.

In the 1980s, school finance took a new direction and, in 1989, President George H. W. Bush convened the country's governors for an Education Summit at the University of Virginia to adopt a set of national goals for U.S. education. Policymakers and practitioners at state and national levels then began looking for ways to realize these goals (Biesta, 2015). This evolution continued into the 1990s and the early years of the twenty-first century. A turning point was the enactment by Congress of the No Child Left behind Act of 2001 (NCLB), which

substantially altered the role of the federal government in the day-to-day functioning of local schools. Under NCLB, education funds from "failing" schools could be reallocated to other schools.

Biesta (2015) added that NCLB was the political culmination of three major trends in national education policy over the previous two decades, each with major financial implications for the field of education finance. According to the author, the first trend was standards-based reform, a movement that stressed the need for ambitious educational outcomes and coherent policy structures to attain them. A major component of this trend was the shift away from inputs and processes towards educational outcomes, with a matching change in the agenda of school finance research and policy. The second was the push for new forms of educational governance which included school-based management, charter schools and more parental choice within the public-school system, as well as the possibility of greater use of public funding in the form of school vouchers for private schooling. The third was an increased emphasis on raising the productivity of the education system, a by-product of the growing concern with educational outcomes, which drew attention to the concepts of accountability, incentives and competition. This focus on productivity forced policymakers to ask not only how revenues were generated and distributed but also how they could be used effectively in the pursuit of the desired educational outcomes (Biesta, 2015).

Essuman (2015) reported that in Lesotho, teachers were being trained without having completed secondary education. The key point is how this training was financed: the state took full responsibility for financing teacher training, including the training of teachers in technical and vocational areas, higher education and the non-formal education sub-sector. This milestone

resulted from a national 'dialogue' held in 1977 and 1978, which led to the national seminar of May 1978 (Essuman, 2015).

According to Asiedu-Akrofi (2022), education financing in Kenya became a key issue in 1920, especially the question of who should meet education costs. Kenya had become a British crown colony and no longer had a territorial administration within the British East Africa Protectorate that could benefit from the British Protectorate Consolidated Education Fund. Mobilizing funds was therefore difficult, since Kenya was a separate British territory with its own weak legislative council. As a result, education costs were left entirely in the hands of the missionary societies who started the education institutions in Kenya (Asiedu-Akrofi, 2022).

In South Africa, education financing takes four forms: (1) fee-free schooling, (2) state funding of universities, (3) a student loan scheme and (4) private funding (Matukane & Bronkhorst, 2017). This has supported staff training, work efficiency, innovation and worker creativity (Wangenge-Ouma, 2012).

In Uganda, the first official action to regulate the terms and conditions of staff development was the 1900 Buganda Agreement, signed at Mengo on 10th March 1900 (Greiner, 2022). The agreement set out how the British colonial administration could strengthen human resource administration in Uganda and formally placed Uganda under British rule as a protectorate (Greiner, 2022). British colonial philosophy strongly influenced the customs and practices of education financing in Uganda. The Colonial Development and Welfare Act of 1940 gave the Colonial Office a mandate to train staff by sending them to Britain for trainings and for conferences hence giving birth to staff development programs (Greiner, 2022).

Theoretical background.

Human capital theory holds that education and training are an investment in people, so staff development is an investment by the organization. The theory was developed in the early 1960s by the economists Theodore Schultz and Gary Becker (Eik, 2020; Osiobe, 2019). It emphasizes that staff development is achieved mainly through staff training that meets the needs of the labor market and thereby transforms the economy. Sourcing funds through borrowing, grants, government funding and public-private partnerships therefore became the major drivers of staff development (Osiobe, 2019). The theory is relevant to this study because it links staff funding to staff participation in development programs.

The theory underpins the study by suggesting that effective financing (investment) through government, credit and donor sources contributes to staff development, with staff training being the most influential component of staff development (Eik, 2020; Osiobe, 2019). However, the theory does not specify whether staff training should come from within or outside the organization. Staff training also depends on financing opportunities, which can arise at any time (Botke, Jansen, Khapova, & Tims, 2018).

According to Botke et al. (2018), the theory assumes that employees are valuable to the organization and should be developed, since well-trained employees are more productive than untrained ones. Osiobe (2019) adds that financed investment in staff training creates a constant learning climate that facilitates the transfer of knowledge and ideas (Osiobe, 2019).

Successful staff development is necessary for organizational development because it builds an organization's competitive edge in employable skills (Sung & Choi, 2018). An organization that wishes to finance its staff has two avenues: (1) corporate training and (2) financial support

for employees' education (Hewett, Shantz, Mundy, & Alfes, 2018). Corporate training involves an organization training its staff internally, within its own means, to build specific skills. This avenue directly addresses the organization's current training needs by improving task skills and competencies for a given professional role (Hewett et al., 2018). On the other hand, financial support for education is geared towards employee self-development, addressing personal needs and self-identified goals (Hewett et al., 2018). Such support improves overall task-related competencies and helps organizations sustain a competitive advantage by continuously expanding, upgrading and keeping training relevant to the industry (Botke et al., 2018). Staff may also finance themselves during training. The authors argued that whether staff training comes from within or outside the organization strongly influences how employees interpret the organization's commitment to their development (Botke et al., 2018).

Conceptual background.

Education financing refers to the modes through which one is enabled to attain knowledge and skills, namely government financing, donor financing, private financing and credit financing (Adewuyi & Okemakinde, 2013). In this study, education financing was operationalized through these four modes. For example, in Uganda, tertiary education financing is divided into two parts: (1) government sponsorship through direct entry and the district quota system and (2) private financing and the student loan scheme (credit financing) (Omodo, Kagere, Obici, & Mwesigwa, 2023). In South Africa, there are government scholarships and a strong student loan scheme (Wangenge-Ouma, 2012). Similarly, Robert et al. (2015) conceptualized funding as the total income of institutions from government, grants, foreign, local donations, endowments and Internally Generated Funds (IGFs) that are used for intended purpose.

Staff development refers to training an employee in a new skill or advancing their current knowledge by supporting them to improve skills, competencies, and their effectiveness (Hopkins & Harris, 2013). It also involves the learning opportunities and professional growth that the employee needs. The terms staff development and employee development are therefore used interchangeably (Palka, Brodny, & Stecuła, 2017). Passmore and Rehman (2020) define staff development as the process of improving employees' existing competencies and skills and developing newer ones to support the organization's goals. In staff development, the employee and employer work together to learn or perfect abilities. It does not include the introductory (induction) training period but takes place after it (Palka et al., 2017). According to James et al. (2017), staff development can be a reactive program in which an inadequacy in the preparation of teachers requires major remediation programs.

In the context of education, staff development emphasizes organizational learning, provided at an identified time of need either by the organization or by the employee (Louis & Murphy, 2017). The emphasis is that organizations should enable people to grow and develop. Such training also builds staff awareness of equality and diversity, which enables them to meet the needs of all learners (Louis & Murphy, 2017).

Operationally, staff development refers to training programs that enable staff to keep up with changes at work, in the form of coaching, mentoring, further studies, career guidance, education planning, seminars, peer coaching, academic consultation, diversity and inclusion program among others (Howse, 2017).

If teachers are to offer more powerful learning opportunities to students, institutions should offer better financed learning opportunities to teachers (Friedman, Karim, Feiler, Padner, &

Eyrich-Garg, 2020). These opportunities should be grounded in the view that learning to teach is a lifelong endeavor.

Contextual background.

Staff development in Lira City presents a mixed picture. Participation has been shaped both by local government financial constraints and by numerous capacity-building initiatives. Institutions like Lira University, Lira School of Nursing and National Technical College, Lira, contribute much to upskilling staff despite the budget limitations and staff retention challenges they face (Kavuma et al., 2020).

Although Lira City Council has been implementing capacity-building programs for staff, their effectiveness has been limited by low local revenue and inadequate training budgets. According to Goldsby, Goldsby, Neck, and Neck (2020), career development through study tours, workshops and conferences depends on the funds allocated for such training. These activities improve service delivery more than short courses in communication, time management and leadership, which have proved less effective in developing staff (Goldsby et al., 2020).

Professional development programs are also critical for teacher retention. In public institutions across the city, teacher turnover remains a problem, and successful staff development initiatives in other tertiary institutions have been recorded as a pull factor for staff. The benefits range from financial incentives and performance-based bonuses to access to further studies (Goldsby et al., 2020).

Staff development in Lira City extends beyond the civil service, with NGO and donor-backed initiatives such as Northern Uganda Women's Network for Business Development. These

initiatives provide practical and vocational skills and enable staff to take part in other development programs such as research, workshops and conferences when funds are available (Brown, 2018).

Public tertiary institutions in the city, such as Lira University, have been the backbone of academic and health-sector upskilling despite budget limitations and staff retention challenges. The severe funding gaps in the city have resulted in irregular training sessions, hurried training and a shortage of instructional materials (Brown, 2018).

According to Odongo, Kobusingye, and Kibanja (2025), staff development for teachers in Lira City is a critical focus area driven by national policy reforms, although it faces severe operational and financial bottlenecks on the ground. Teacher professional development in the city currently centres on the National Teacher Policy (NTP). Teachers are therefore under pressure to adapt to the Ministry of Education and Sports' NTP, which standardized qualifications and requires continuous professional upgrading through the Teacher Management Information System (TMIS). However, the modes of financing remain unclear. For instance, regional science competitions and workshops focus heavily on upgrading teachers' capacity to deliver practical and technological skills without any clearly defined means of funding (Odongo et al., 2025).

Despite the efforts of Lira City to implement staff development programs, severe funding gaps persist, showing a direct and negative impact of low education financing on staff development participation(Tout, 2016). Academic evaluations in public institutions in Lira City have also shown a distinct link between limited career development opportunities and high staff turnover intentions. Public tertiary schools have an average of three teachers per academic year

requesting transfer because of job stress and a lack of upward mobility. Researchers continue to urge managers of public tertiary institutions in Lira City to tie professional development to clear promotion pathways and merit-based rewards to keep staff motivated (Odongo et al., 2025).

At Lira University, the human resource policy on education financing emphasizes increasing funding opportunities for research and innovation (Lira University, 2023). The policy stresses the importance of securing sufficient funds for staff to conduct meaningful research, attend national and international meetings and contribute to the research income of the university. To this end, the university commits at least 5% of its internally generated funds to research and innovation annually and requires graduate and undergraduate students to contribute towards the cost of research, at a rate recommended by the Board of Research and Publications. Because available funding is limited, the university also regularly provides a database of possible sources and modes of research funding. In addition, staff who wish to pursue further training apply through heads of departments and faculty boards. Applicants must align their studies with the mission of the university, and only 3 out of 32 staff in a faculty can be granted the opportunity, although this number can be adjusted depending on staffing levels. Successful applicants sign a commitment letter issued by the Department of Graduate Training and Research (DGTR) (Lira University, 2023).

Reports by the Lira City Education Committee (2021) and the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE, 2022) indicated that, on average, only 4 out of 27 staff in public tertiary institutions in Lira City were mentored, trained, career guided or coached, below the expected 9 out of 27. Many staff are therefore left undeveloped, and those who find personal sources of financing for their development often quit and move to other jobs because their workplace did

not contribute to their growth (Lira City Education Committee, 2021). Although much emphasis has been placed on education financing to improve the poor state of staff development in Lira City, it remains unclear to what extent education financing can improve staff development in the city.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In many organizations, mentorship, career guidance, course upgrading and peer coaching are the main means of developing staff (Roberts & Iyer, 2020). Each academic year, 29% of staff are expected to be trained, coached and career guided under the capacity building grants of the Local Government Development Program (LGDP-II) (Lira City Education Committee, 2023).

However, a 2022 study by the Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES) covering 47 public tertiary institutions in Northern Uganda found that, on average, only 2 out of 27 staff (7.4%) in Lira City were trained each academic year, below the recommended 9 out of 27 (about 29%) (MoES, 2022). This low participation was attributed to low education funding. For example, UGX 34,485,569 was allocated in FY 2023/24, compared to only UGX 10,440,725 in FY 2024/25 (Lira City Education Committee, 2023). Limited access to funds has kept many staff from participating in development programs such as workshops, mentorship, retooling and peer coaching. In addition, the current teacher policy requires PhD holders for university teaching, bachelor's and postgraduate degree holders for teaching in other tertiary institutions, and at least a bachelor's degree for pre-primary and primary teaching (MoES, 2022). These requirements put further pressure on staff development programs, which are already constrained by the small number of trainers in public tertiary institutions in Lira City (Lira City Council, 2025). Despite government funding for staff development programs such as mentorship, collaborative learning, workshops and research, a gap in staff development persists

(MoES, 2022). This study therefore sought to establish whether the low level of staff development in public tertiary institutions in Lira City is associated with the level of education financing.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between education financing and staff development in public tertiary institutions in Lira City.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following objectives:

i. To determine the level of education financing in public tertiary institutions in Lira City.
ii. To establish the level of staff development in public tertiary institutions in Lira City.
iii. To examine the relationship between education financing and staff development in public tertiary institutions in Lira City.

1.5 Research Questions

The following were the research questions of the study.

i. What is the level of education financing in public tertiary institutions in Lira City?
ii. What is the level of staff development in public tertiary institutions in Lira City?
iii. What is the relationship between education financing and staff development in public tertiary institutions in Lira City?

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study focused on education financing and staff development in public tertiary institutions in Lira City. Lira City is located in the Lango sub-region of Northern Uganda. It is bordered by Pader and Otuke districts to the north and north-east respectively, Alebtong to the east, Dokolo and Kwania to the south, Kole to the south-east and Apac to the west (Omodo et al., 2023). The city lies between latitudes 1°21′N and 2°42′N and longitudes 32°51′E and 34°15′E, with a total area of approximately 1,326 km^2 (Omodo et al., 2023). The city has two divisions, 63 parishes, 20 wards, 678 villages and 64 cells (Omodo et al., 2023). The study covered data for the period from 2019 to July 2023.

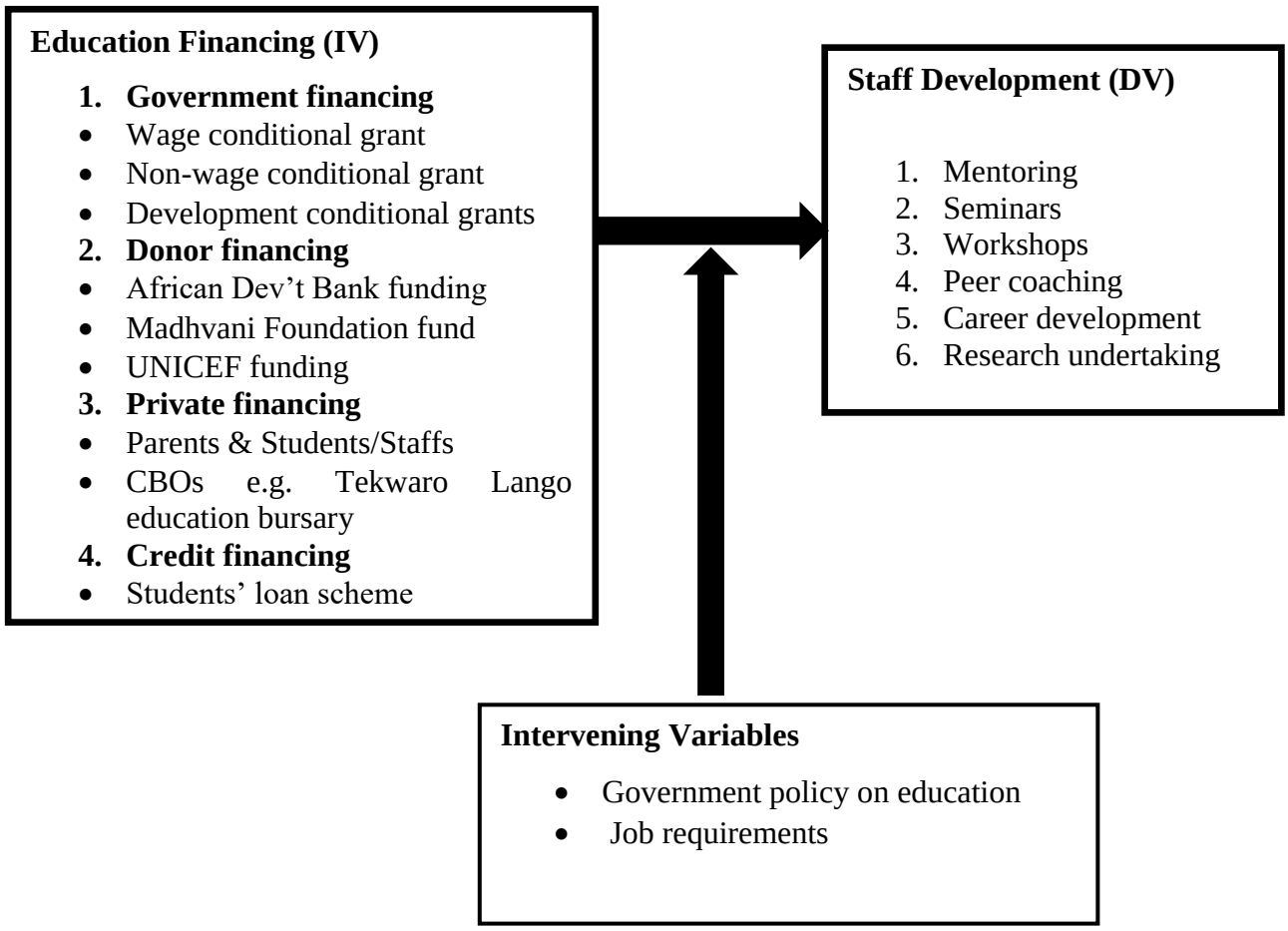
1.7 Significance of the Study

The study is expected to benefit the following:

i. To the researcher: The study widened the researcher's knowledge of education financing and fulfils a requirement for the award of the degree of Master of Education in Education Management of Gulu University.
ii. To educational institutions: The findings may guide policy on the number of staff to be trained, the application criteria and the funding of training programs.
iii. To other researchers: The study adds to the literature and provides a basis for further studies in related fields.
iv. To policy makers: The results may help educational leaders create more financing opportunities for staff and inform policy on how staff career development can be financed.

1.8 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework (Figure 1) shows the perceived relationship between education financing and staff development in public tertiary institutions. It was expected that when staff are financed through government, donor, private (self) and credit financing, they participate more in staff development programs such as mentorship, career guidance, conferences and workshops.



Source: Adapted from Nakanyiek et al. (2010).

Figure 1: Conceptual framework showing assumed relationship between education financing and staff development in Lira City.

The conceptual framework shows that the independent variable, education financing, is represented by government, donor, private and credit financing, while the dependent variable, staff development, is represented by mentoring, career development, seminars, workshops, research undertaking and peer coaching. Staff development is expected to improve when these sources of financing are coordinated in favor of staff development in Lira City. The relationship may also be influenced by intervening variables, namely government policy on education and job requirements. The framework assumes a positive relationship between the independent variable (education financing) and the dependent variable (staff development).

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents literature from studies and reports on education financing and staff development. The literature is reviewed under three headings: the level of education financing in public tertiary institutions, the level of staff development in public tertiary institutions, and the relationship between educations financing and staff development in public tertiary institutions.

2.1 Level of Education Financing in Public Tertiary Institutions

Mgaiwa (2018) conducted a study on the level of education financing in 13 public universities in Tanzania. Three out of 13 public universities were purposively sampled for the study on the basis of being representative of a mixture of different sizes and ages of university students, and this represented about 23% of the total public universities in the country. The scholar used content analysis of qualitative data on the financing of higher education in Tanzania and its implications. The results indicated a low level of education financing because sources of financing for public universities in Tanzania were unreliable and unsustainable. The findings further showed that government approval rates for budgetary requests from universities decreased over six years from 5% to 3.2%. At the same time, the proportion of government approved funds and those released funds to universities also decreased, putting the quality of higher education in the country at risk (Mgaiwa, 2018). The study used only a qualitative approach, and three out of 13 public universities may not give adequate representation, which

limits the findings. The study recommended that the government of Tanzania review the public university funding system to make it more practical and accommodative.

After the 1986 reforms, education sector financing in Uganda was based on the Education for All (EFA) campaign (Nakanyiek et al., 2010). The 1992 Government White Paper on Education noted that well-trained teachers play a key role in linking the school and the community and in preparing the human resource needed for national development. The document gave priority to primary education over other subsectors and encouraged the use of private resources in the provision of higher education, rather than leaving it entirely to government (Nakanyiek et al., 2010). This was meant to widen the pool of funds for both public and private institutions.

Tromp and Datzberger (2021) investigated Universal Primary Education (UPE) and Competency-Based Education (CBE) in Uganda and Mexico. In Uganda, data were collected between January 2015 and May 2017 in Adjumani, Gulu, Kampala, Karamoja and Mbarara through interviews with 89 respondents, while in Mexico 121 respondents were interviewed between 2012 and June 2014. The findings revealed that financing policy was more concrete for UPE schools than for public tertiary institutions in both countries. However, the data are dated (2012 to 2017), and the study did not specify how much funding went to UPE schools compared to tertiary institutions. The authors recommended improved funding for public tertiary institutions.

Through the National Education Account (NEA), established by the government of Uganda in 2008 to close gaps in education financing, Uganda has spent more than 10% of its overall budget on education, but staff development remained low because few staff could be trained

(Kjær & Muwanga, 2019). This underlined the need for the NEA to serve as a basis for annual staff financing and for understanding how staff development can be funded to meet national policies such as (1) Sustainable Development Goals 4 (SDG 4), which aims to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and to promote lifelong learning opportunities for all, (2) Uganda's second National Development Plan (NDP II) which includes i) achieving equitable access to relevant and quality education and training, (ii) ensuring delivery of relevant and quality education and training, and (iii) enhancing the efficiency and effectiveness of Education and Sports service delivery at all levels, (3) Vision 2040 which looks at providing a policy framework for national development and articulating long-term aspirations, and (4) the Education 2030 Agenda (Brooks, 2018).

In South Africa, Chikoko and Mthembu (2020) found that education financing in tertiary institutions was low (R155.7 million) compared to that of primary and secondary levels (R675.9 million). In a bid to achieve the United Nations' (UN) Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG 4) and UN (2030) Agenda of achieving equity in education provision to all, South Africa used a pro-poor approach by increasing public financing of tertiary institutions (Caliari, 2014; Chikoko & Mthembu, 2020). The authors proposed aid, private schemes and a more flexible student loan scheme.

Naidoo and McKay (2018, as cited in Chikoko & Mthembu, 2020) carried out an exploratory study of the South African undergraduate student funding model across 18 universities. A total of 7,182 undergraduate students were enrolled in 2012 and 6,652 in 2013. Secondary data identified three sources of funding: (1) universities' own funds for instance merit bursaries, sport bursaries, special projects, S-Fund bursaries, family discounts, staff rebates, Edu-loan and university loans, (2) Funds controlled by the university (studentships and external donors); and

(3) Funds administrated by the university (bursaries from the local municipality, provincial government, national government and other external donors). The study attributed the drop in enrollment (from 7,182 to 6,652) to low financing. However, it combined data from public and private universities, which limits its use for public universities alone.

Omona (2012) studied the funding modalities, effectiveness, challenges and opportunities of higher education in Uganda. Using a qualitative approach, the study identified two funding models, namely the public model and the market model. The study identified inadequate financing (about 10% of the national budget) as a major challenge, reflected in a general decline in funding for higher education due to budget cuts. The funding gap, that is the difference between actual and ideal funding, was widening, with serious effects on educational outcomes. The author recommended broad-based credit financing to make higher education more inclusive.

Studies in the United States have shown that cost is a primary barrier to higher education access for students from families with low incomes (Archibald & Feldman, 2011; Serna, 2016). The authors argued that the cost of a college education is often understood as the amount the student pays (Archibald & Feldman, 2011). Being privately financed means meeting tuition and all other fees individually, which many students from poor families cannot afford.

The World Bank (2021) suggested that low levels of education financing can be addressed through student loan schemes. For example, when Lesotho and Botswana adopted such schemes, university enrollment increased by 75% (World Bank, 2021). The main challenges were strict application conditions for specific courses and high processing fees. Targeting

beneficiaries by region, income level and marginalized groups such as persons with disabilities could help reach the right beneficiaries and raise enrollment.

In Tanzania, Memba and Feng (2016) analyzed the performance of the Higher Education Students' Loans Board (HESLB) in human capital investment in the financing of higher education. Both primary and secondary data were collected, analyzed and interpreted with a view to answering research questions on the performance of the HESLB. The findings revealed that despite increasing budget allocations to the board, its ability to sustain itself through loan repayment was minimal, which limited its contribution to human capital investment. The application conditions were so strict that many applicants could not qualify, and learning aids for students with special needs and medical insurance were not provided for, so students facing emergencies could drop out. The authors suggested that the financing strategy of higher education in Tanzania for sustainable human capital investment be re-aligned to ensure economic growth and development of the country.

In Uganda, the Higher Education Students' Financing Board (HESFB) was established in February 2014 under the HESFB Act No. 2 of 2014 to improve education financing, yet its funding has continued to decline. For example, the number of beneficiaries fell by 51% in 2022/2023 because of a small allocation of only UGX 2.6 billion (Higher Education Students' Financing Board [HESFB], 2022). The selection procedure was also laborious, and few institutions were eligible even though students can study any course at any institution in Uganda (HESFB, 2022). Relaxing the selection criteria could help enroll more students and attract other development partners.

Muweesi et al. (2022) used a mixed methods approach to study the selection criteria used by the HESFB in granting student loans, with a sample of 103 students from Makerere University. Most loan beneficiaries were aware of the guidelines, which required applicants to have passed A level with three principal passes in a science combination. The study concluded that the criteria favored science students and left out poor students in the humanities. The authors recommended revising the guidelines to consider all applicants irrespective of course, family background and economic level.

According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2022), a cross-sectional survey of 215 respondents from 15 tertiary institutions in Nigeria found narrow government funding of tertiary institutions but growth of 2.5% in private funding. Contributions by individuals and other private entities were considered an effective way of funding regardless of students' economic backgrounds (OECD, 2022). However, the study did not focus on public institutions only, and 15 institutions is a small number compared to the 1,204 public tertiary institutions in Nigeria.

However, the following research gaps were identified specifically from the sources reviewed under the level of education financing in public tertiary institutions.

Contextual gap. Many of the reviewed studies were conducted outside Uganda, including Tanzania, Mexico, South Africa, Nigeria and the United States. Although these studies provided evidence about education financing, their findings did not fully reflect the financing conditions and institutional arrangements of public tertiary institutions in Uganda. A context specific investigation in Uganda is therefore needed.

Representation and sample size gap. Some studies used relatively small samples compared with the total population of institutions. For instance, Mgaiwa (2018) selected only three of Tanzania's 13 public universities. Similarly, OECD (2022) used 15 tertiary institutions despite a much larger population of institutions in Nigeria. Such limitations reduced the extent to which findings could be generalized to the wider public tertiary institution sector.

Funding level and allocation gap. Several studies established that education financing was inadequate or declining, but did not provide sufficient detail about how much funding was allocated to particular public tertiary institutions or specific activities. The literature therefore leaves a gap in understanding the actual level of financing and how available funds were distributed within public tertiary institutions.

Funding source gap. The reviewed literature identifies government funding, private funding, student loans, donors and institutional resources as financing sources. However, there is limited integrated evidence showing the relative contribution and sustainability of these different sources specifically in public tertiary institutions in Uganda. This also points to a sustainability gap. For instance, Mgaiwa (2018) found that financing sources for public universities were unreliable and unsustainable, while Memba and Feng (2016) identified declining government allocations and widening funding gaps. However, the reviewed studies provided limited evidence on sustainable financing mechanisms that can consistently support public tertiary institutions over time.

Student financing and access gap. Several sources focus on student loans and the effect of financing on access and enrolment. However, issues such as restrictive eligibility conditions,

application procedures and inadequate provision for special-needs students remain insufficiently integrated into a broader assessment of public tertiary education financing.

In conclusion, the reviewed literature indicated that education financing in public tertiary institutions has been affected by inadequate, declining, unreliable and unsustainable funding. However, important gaps remain: most studies were conducted outside Uganda, while some studies did not specifically distinguish public tertiary institutions from private institutions. Several studies also relied on relatively small samples limiting the generalizability of their findings. In addition, the literature provided limited evidence on the actual level and allocation of financing at institutional level, the relative contribution of different financing sources, and the sustainability of financing mechanisms. Therefore, there is a need for current, context-specific empirical evidence on education financing in Ugandan public tertiary institutions, particularly concerning the adequacy, sources of funding, allocation of funds and sustainability of available financing mechanisms.

2.2 Level of Staff Development in Public Tertiary Institutions

Abal, Angole and Opio (2021) examined the effect of training on employee performance in Lira District Local Government. Their study investigated the effects of on-the-job training, off-the-job training and induction. It used a cross-sectional design with both quantitative and qualitative data from a sample of 108 respondents selected through simple random and purposive sampling. Data were collected using questionnaires and interviews, and means and standard deviations were used to measure the level of staff development. Training explained about 37.2% of staff participation in staff development programs (Abal et al., 2021). Although the authors considered on-the-job training and induction to be the major components of staff

development, the present researcher argues that more emphasis should be put on mentoring and collaborative learning.

Roberts and Iyer (2020) viewed staff development in terms of mentoring, career guidance, training and peer coaching. They found low implementation of staff development programs, which took place annually with unclear methods of delivery. Where funding is limited, they recommended collaborative learning.

Fejoh and Faniran (2016) investigated the effect of in-service training and staff development on workers' job performance and productivity in Osun State, Nigeria, using an ex post facto design. A questionnaire was administered to 152 purposively selected respondents, of whom 134 responded. Data were analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multiple regression at the 0.05 level of significance. The findings showed that in-service training alone had an insignificant effect. The authors recommended that schools design functional in-service training and other staff development programs, conducted frequently, to boost morale and performance and help staff cope with changing technology and organizational climate.

According to Hopkins (2015), staff development is conducted by the employing organization, yet many institutions lack clear structures on what to train staff on, when and how to train, and who the trainers are. This leads to low and poorly conducted staff development (Hopkins, 2015). The author argued that staff can be developed through coaching by their seniors, and that practice and coaching require financial commitment and time, although he did not state the amount of funds or time required.

Coaching and mentoring recognize achievement and growth, which encourages communication, reflection and self-correction at the workplace (Ali, Wahi, & Yamat, 2018).

When staff are coached and mentored, they move on to higher-level skills and experience personal growth (Garvey & Stokes, 2021).

Le Comte and McClelland (2017) used a mixed methods approach, with a survey and interviews, to determine the value and impact of a coaching and mentoring leadership development program. Of the 70 participants, 45 applied their learning and changed how they managed fellow staff. The study focused only on coaching and mentoring and did not consider seminars, workshops, conferences, staff appraisal or research. In addition, leaders change their behavior depending on the situation, and public and private institutions may not implement staff development at the same pace, which limits the generalizability of the findings.

Staff development works best when conducted by skilled personnel who give their time to training, coaching and career guidance. However, some organizations leave staff to learn on their own through discovery, which adds less value (Garvey & Stokes, 2021).

Smylie (2018) argued that the main function of staff development is to train staff so that they become more competent and innovative. The findings indicated a low level of staff development in Nigeria, where only 171 out of 21,984 staff in Delta State had been developed (Smylie, 2018). The study did not distinguish between public and private institutions. The author recommended that government provide financial support to staff and adopt training programs that improve the quality of education in public tertiary institutions.

Massoudi, Chester and Shah (2016) studied the need for staff development in local health departments (LHDs). A total of 324 LHDs from all 50 states in the United States responded, a response rate of 50%. The results showed a low level of workforce development. The authors recommended informatics training, seminars and conferences, and mentoring by senior staff.

Informatics training varied with the size of the population served, funding level and governance type.

Parsons, Rollyson and Reid (2013) described staff training as describing target skills, demonstrating them, giving positive and corrective feedback, and ensuring staff proficiency. They observed that out of 53 training programs in various institutions, only 37 were practiced, including mentorship, peer coaching, career guidance and task-oriented approaches. This indicates a moderate implementation level of about 70%.

Staff development, staff training and continuing professional development (CPD) still need further study, since many studies have documented low practice of CPD in organizations (Reid, 2014). Reid argued that staff development through training, course upgrading and peer coaching should have long-term effects by making staff more productive. Raising staff involvement in staff development programs in public tertiary institutions would help ensure that skills acquired are transferred across programs and learners.

In Malaysia, Dayang, Khalip and Hamidah (2021) found that a low level of staff development drove high labor turnover. On average, 7 out of 15 staff left each year because they could not meet organizational goals and keep up with changes in technology and work approaches (Dayang et al., 2021). The authors argued that staff should be developed through mentorship and peer teaching in line with their careers so that they can cope with change.

Embregts, Zijlmans, Gerits and Bosman (2019) argued for self-development, in which each staff member takes primary responsibility for continuous personal growth through training and mentorship. The present researcher argues that such growth should be guided by prospects for promotion and by changes in programs and technology.

Gultom and Daryanto (2022) argued that staff development should be a continuous activity that builds on current knowledge and skills with sufficient intensity and practice. However, staff found it hard to attain quality professional development because of a lack of personal coaching, career guidance and mentorship, which kept staff development low and limited teaching effectiveness.

According to Sheikh (2017), the low level of staff development in India is due to unclear institutional policies and strategies for generating funds, and a lack of transparency and accountability. Colleges and universities need well-skilled staff who can drive the economy forward, which calls for programs such as coaching, workshops and training.

Khan and Abdullah (2019) studied staff training and development in classroom teaching at a university in Kurdistan, Iraq. Of 64 questionnaires distributed to randomly selected teachers, 58 were returned, a response rate of 90.6%. Data were analyzed using SPSS version 16. The findings revealed that four to five out of seven planned staff development programs were implemented in an academic year, reflecting a high level of practice in research, mentorship, peer coaching and induction. However, the study covered only one university and may not represent all public universities in Iraq.

Training and development enhance teachers' productivity and performance. When the employer provides training, employees gain a variety of skills, information and attitudes (Khan & Abdullah, 2019). The authors argued that modern education has become more technology driven and dynamic, so staff in tertiary institutions need to be skilled to meet international standards.

Adewuyi and Okemakinde (2013) examined the potential of higher education to act as an agent of staff development in Nigerian tertiary institutions. Using a mixed methods approach with 370 respondents from 37 randomly selected institutions, they found that staff participation in research, conferences and seminars increased by 10% annually. The authors did not specify whether the data came from public or private institutions. The researcher however recognized the fact that government alone cannot provide all the resources needed to increase access to staff development programmes.

The following were the key literature gaps on staff development in public tertiary institutions.

Limited local research on staff development programs. *Most of* the reviewed literature is on universities outside Uganda, such as in Iraq, Malaysia, Nigeria and the United States. There is limited empirical evidence on how staff development programs are implemented in public tertiary institutions in Uganda, particularly at institutional level.

Gap in accessing staff development opportunities and its continuity. Existing studies recognized the importance of training, workshops, seminars, mentoring and research undertaking commonly conducted by public tertiary institutions but less attention was given to whether academic and non-academic staff have equal access to those opportunities. Little is known about whether non-academic staff receive comparable opportunities for professional development and how their development contributes to institutions. There is also a gap in continuity and long-term professional development since research mostly examined short-term activities such as workshops and seminars, with less attention to whether institutions can provide continuous career development, mentoring, coaching among others for staff to acquire higher qualifications.

Gap between staff development policies and its implementation. Institutions may have good policies on staff training and professional development, but there was inadequate evidence on the extent to which these policies were actually implemented by the institutional administrators of public tertiary institutions. A gap therefore exists between what institutional policies provide and what staff experience in practice.

2.3 Relationship between Education Financing and Staff Development in Public Tertiary Institutions

Mizell (2010) indicated that the number of staff trained over 12 years increased from 120,145 to 249,046 due to increased funding, which contributed to professional development. Staff can be developed through conferences, seminars, workshops, collaborative learning, research and further studies (Mizell, 2010). The main emphasis was on research and collaborative learning, which require constant funding, unlike other programs planned according to available funds.

Abdulaziz, Olokooba and Iyekolo (2020) used a descriptive survey design to assess the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund) intervention on academic staff capacity building at Lagos State University, Nigeria. The population was all 196-academic staff, although not all of them had taken part in development programs because of strict selection criteria. Questionnaires were randomly administered. The findings revealed that the fund intervention transformed university staff and that capacity building was a major priority of the fund (Abdulaziz et al., 2020). The authors recommended removing the bureaucratic bottlenecks in accessing approved funds, and that donor agencies and philanthropists assist government in funding tertiary education.

In the mining industry, Lööw, Abrahamsson and Johansson (2019) linked new technologies and employees' creative potential to higher levels of staff development, noting that the industry depends on highly qualified managers, engineers and technicians. They found that personnel training and financing were positively related. Of 120 miners interviewed, 107 said that work exposure and mentorship, supported by a dedicated fund, had helped them at work. The authors called for diversified funding sources for training and retraining of personnel.

Mushemeza (2016) analyzed the opportunities and challenges of financing academic staff development in African universities. Using a mixed methods approach with questionnaires administered to 405 academic and non-academic staff, the study found that even when programs were financed, only 48% of staff participated in conferences, workshops and research. Staff who benefited were often appointed or promoted. The study warned that unless funding challenges are addressed, less than 10% of academic staff in African universities will be developed.

Varghese and Martin (2014) argued that Australian government financing of higher education contributed to staff development, which played a vital role in Australia's intellectual, economic, cultural and social development. The higher education sector educates the future professional workforce, creates future leaders and provides jobs (Varghese & Martin, 2014).

Nemma-Abooki (2014) examined the relationship between education financing and staff development in 16 public tertiary institutions in Uganda and found a positive correlation. Staff who are developed perform better at work, and the author recommended that public tertiary institutions conduct staff development regularly within their budgets. However, some staff fear

further study, so the present researcher suggests rotational and compulsory training for all staff, as in the retooling programs in Uganda.

Nduagu and Saidu (2021) studied the influence of TETFund interventions on staff and infrastructural development in Abia State, Nigeria, using a cross-sectional survey design. A sample of 365 staff was selected from a population of 6,280 in four public tertiary institutions. A four-point Likert scale questionnaire was validated by experts and pilot tested, giving a reliability coefficient of $\alpha = .86$, and hypotheses were tested using ANOVA at the .05 level. The findings showed a positive and significant influence of TETFund intervention on staff development, and the authors recommended scaling up financing so that more staff can participate in local and international programs. However, the authors did not state whether the reliability coefficient applied to the whole instrument or to each section.

Van der Klink, Kools, Avissar, White and Sakata (2017) interviewed 25 teacher educators from 10 countries on their professional development and how it was funded. Funded and trained teacher educators performed their work with ease compared to untrained colleagues, who often lacked new ways of working. Lack of trainers and inadequate funds were the major hindrances. However, the study did not show which country context is comparable to Uganda.

Mutiso, Onyango and Nyagol (2015) studied the effects of funding on staff development in public universities in Kenya. Data were collected through interviews with top university managers, focus group discussions with heads of departments and deans, and a questionnaire and observation guide administered to 400 undergraduate students. Secondary data were extracted from a review of published information on higher education in Kenya. The study revealed that increased financing, mainly from government capitation and donors, increased

access to training programs such as seminars, conferences, workshops and research, leading to accumulation of human capital. However, the study did not report whether capitation grants actually reached the intended beneficiaries.

Odoom, Opoku and Ntiakoh-Ayipah (2016) found that staff development at colleges of education in Ghana depended on the colleges' capacity to finance it. They used a descriptive survey design with questionnaires and interviews administered to principals, vice principals, heads of departments and tutors in 33 colleges. Qualitative data were analyzed through content and documentary analysis, and quantitative data through descriptive statistics in SPSS version 16.0. When funding from government and donors increased, more staff attended capacity building courses. However, the number of colleges covered was small.

Hryhorash, Bocharov, Korneyev, Rudyanova and Hryhorash (2022) examined higher education expenditure and the Human Development Index (HDI) in 32 OECD countries and Ukraine, and found that spending on higher education was correlated with staff development. Financing strategies such as cost sharing and student vouchers improved staff capacity through internships, conferences, attachments and on-the-job training in Ukraine, where staff enrollment in development programs rose from 215 to 334 between 2019 and 2021. In Mexico, raising the funding rate from 21.7% to 40.3% increased staff enrollment in development programs from 117 to 264 in a year (Hryhorash et al., 2022). However, cost sharing and vouchers are not the only strategies. In least developed countries such as Uganda, government and private financing are the main contributors, and student vouchers do not exist.

Embregts et al. (2019) found that education financing was related to staff development through the amount of money allocated to staff training, which gives staff a competitive edge. They

recommended sending staff for additional training financed by government. However, the capacity of institutions to conduct training was ignored, and institutions should not rely only on government funds, which are often released late, but explore other sources as well.

Hopkins and Harris (2013) focused on staff development programs and the conditions needed to support them. They argued that staff development cannot be achieved if programs such as conferences and research are not financed, and that when financed, staff focus on building capacity for innovative work. The authors assumed that schools have the capacity to strengthen their staff in ways that improve outcomes for all students, which may not hold for all institutions.

Varghese (2013), writing on globalization and internationalization of higher education, saw staff development as a means of producing competent staff for the global market. He argued that education funding should match staff development needs, and that institutions striving to remain relevant develop their staff through training, research and service with globally applicable knowledge, skills and values (Varghese, 2013). The author did not consider how rapid technological change calls for other approaches such as collaborative learning and exchange visits, which are common in Ugandan institutions.

In Indonesia, Dianto and Idawati (2020) found that education financing was directly related to staff development. Institutions were required to arrange staff development programs such as workshops, training and coaching every quarter, which helped build a pool of human resources able to meet current challenges. However, such a legal requirement may not apply in other countries.

In Vietnam, Dao (2015) found that financing reforms introduced in higher education over past decades, such as private loan schemes and student vouchers, resulted in poor staff development outcomes. The author argued that if government fully financed staff education, more staff would take part in development programs and perform better. This supports a link between financing and staff development, although the conditions for implementing the new reforms were unclear.

Motilewa et al. (2018) studied education financing and employee development in Nigeria using a descriptive survey of 350 employees drawn from a population of 1,748. Data were analyzed using regression in SPSS. The findings revealed that government financing was used for programs preferred by government, while private financing was used for programs preferred by individuals, and they showed a strong relationship between financing and staff development. However, the authors did not specify which programs should be financed by government and which by individuals.

Lachman (2023) examined how federal and California state funds finance staff development, especially for staff serving low-income and vulnerable populations. Using cross-sectional data and multivariate regression on California local education agencies, the study assessed programs such as training, mentorship, seminars, workshops and peer coaching funded through state funds and philanthropy. Funded programs had a moderately positive effect on staff capacity, but schools received 17.5% of funding instead of the recommended 25%, which limited improvement.

Ali and Awan (2021) studied the impact of employee training and development among 300 employees in Pakistan using a structured questionnaire. Staff development was measured

through on-the-job training, off-the-job training, training design and delivery style. Using descriptive statistics, reliability tests, correlation and multiple regression, they found that all four had a positive and significant effect. However, the study did not use interviews, which could have given deeper insight.

Although existing literature recognizes education financing as an important factor in supporting staff development, there remained limited empirical evidence on the nature and extent of the relationship between education financing and staff development in public tertiary institutions. Much of the existing literature focused on the general importance of staff training on education financing, with limited attention to whether the amount of funds, their adequacy, allocation and management directly influence staff access to professional development opportunities (staff development). Limited attention has also been given to differences between academic and non-academic staff, although both are meant to benefit from funded programs. It is also unclear whether investment in staff development translates into improved competence, teaching and research in public tertiary institutions. The existing literature gave insufficient attention to the adequacy and allocation of funds, access to development opportunities, implementation of staff development policies, and the practical barriers experienced by staff. These contextual, empirical and methodological gaps on the relationship between education financing and staff development in public tertiary institutions justify the present study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the research paradigm, research design, study population, sample size, sampling technique, data collection techniques and instruments, quality control, administration procedures, ethical issues, data presentation and analysis, assumptions and limitations of the study.

3.1 Research Paradigm

The study used both quantitative and qualitative approaches (mixed methods). The qualitative approach uses words and narratives, which provide insights that numbers alone cannot give (Khaldi, 2017)**.** Qualitative data were collected using a documentary review guide and analyzed through content analysis. Quantitative data were collected using a questionnaire and analyzed using descriptive statistics and the Pearson product moment correlation, which gave objective insight into trends and patterns. Combining the two approaches helped offset the limitations of each and gave stronger findings (Khaldi, 2017). Research questions one and two were addressed using descriptive statistics supported by documentary evidence, while research question three was addressed using correlation analysis.

3.2 Research Design

The study used a cross-sectional survey design with descriptive and correlational components. The descriptive component described the levels of education financing and staff development

in public tertiary institutions in Lira City, while the correlational component examined the relationship between the two.

A cross-sectional design collects information from a sample at one point in time (Leavy, 2017), while a correlational design establishes the nature, magnitude and direction of the relationship between study variables (Hamaker, 2022).

Structured questionnaires were administered to beneficiaries and administrative officers to gather quantitative data on financing modes and staff development programs. Using both questionnaires and documentary review enabled the researcher to measure the relationship between the variables and to understand the underlying facts.

3.3 Target Population of Study

The target population was 140 where Lira School of Comprehensive Nursing had 18 beneficiaries and 11 administrators, Uganda Technical College Lira had 25 beneficiaries and 15 administrators, Lira University had 21 beneficiaries and 25 administrators and Canon Lawerence PTC had 16 beneficiaries and 09 administrators making a total of 80 beneficiaries and 60 administrative officers, as indicated in the Lira City Education Report (2022). The population was identified by asking heads of institutions about their staff development schemes and the staff who had benefited from them in the last five years. Beneficiaries were included because they benefited directly from staff development programs and administrators were included since they were the implementing officers of the staff development programs in their institutions.

3.4 Sample Size

A sample of 103 was determined using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table. It comprised 73 beneficiaries and 30 administrators (Table 3.1), drawn from the list of the target population.

Table 3.1: Sampling frame

Category of respondents	Target population	Sample size	Sampling technique
Beneficiaries	80	73	Stratified random sampling
Administrative officers	60	30	Stratified random sampling
Total	140	103	

Source: Primary Data (2023)

3.5 Sampling Technique

Stratified random sampling was used because the population was heterogeneous in terms of role, qualifications and work experience. The population was divided into two strata (beneficiaries and administrators), and respondents within each stratum were selected randomly so that each had an equal chance of being included.

3.6 Data Types and Sources

Both primary and secondary data were used. Primary data are first-hand information obtained by the researcher from the field (Netalisile & Atwebembeire, 2021). They included the number of sponsored staff, the number of sponsors and the amount of money spent.

Secondary data are data obtained from existing sources such as textbooks, journals, reports and the internet (Netalisile & Atwebembeire, 2021). Institutional reports on sponsorship, research, mentorship and capacity building were reviewed.

3.7 Data Collection Techniques

The data collection techniques were a questionnaire survey and documentary review.

3.7.1 Questionnaire survey.

This technique was used to collect data from the different categories of respondents using a set list of items (Lietz, 2010). It allowed respondents to express their opinions freely and made it possible to cover a wide area in a short time (Lietz, 2010).

3.7.2 Documentary review.

The researcher reviewed existing records on education financing and staff development (Appendix B), including lists of sponsored staff, amounts spent, training programs and duration of studies. This allowed triangulation with the survey data (Netalisile & Atwebembeire, 2021).

3.8 Data Collection Instruments

The data collection instruments were a questionnaire and a documentary review guide.

3.8.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire provided structured and standardized responses, which made analysis easier. It had three parts. Part A had four items on background information, Part B had 25 closed-ended items on education financing, and Part C had 33 closed-ended items on staff

development (Appendix A). Items were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5) (Netalisile & Atwebembeire, 2021).

3.8.2 Documentary review guide

This guide was used to systematically extract evidence on education financing and staff development from existing documents. It had four sections, each with three to four closed items (Appendix B), and it enabled confirmation of the questionnaire data.

3.9 Quality Control

Besides testing the validity and reliability of the instruments and controlling extraneous variables, the researcher ensured quality by aligning the research questions with the methods, training research assistants and verifying data before final entry.

3.9.1 Validity of instruments

The researcher explained the purpose of the study to three experts familiar with the study variables and asked them to rate each item as relevant (R) or not relevant (NR). The content validity index (CVI) was computed as the number of items rated relevant by all judges divided by the total number of items:

$$CVI = \frac{\text{Number of items regarded to be relevant by all judges}}{\text{Number of items regarded to be relevant by all judges}}$$

By substitution, CVI = 20/25 = 0.80 for Part B and CVI = 26/33 = 0.79 for Part C. The overall CVI = (0.80 + 0.79)/2 = 0.795, which is above the acceptable threshold of 0.70, so the instrument was considered valid.

3.9.2 Reliability of instruments.

Reliability was assessed through internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, computed from pilot data collected from a similar group that was not part of the study (Appendix G). A coefficient of 0.70 or above was considered acceptable.

The formula was given by $\alpha = \frac{k}{k-1}(\frac{SD2-\sum SDi2}{SD2})$

Where $k = \text{Number of items in the instrument}$

$\sum SD^2$ = Sum of individual items variance

SD^2 = Variance of total scores

By substituting, $\alpha = \frac{25}{24}\left(0.84 - \frac{0.03}{0.24}\right) = 0.74$for part A

$\alpha = \frac{29}{28}\left(0.97 - \frac{0.16}{0.32}\right) = 0.80$ for part B

The overall value is (0.74 + 0.80)/2 = 0.77, which is above the recommended 0.70, so the instrument was considered reliable.

3.9.3 Control of Extraneous Variables

Extraneous variables were controlled through random selection of respondents, which reduced their influence on the key study variables and minimized bias.

3.10 Administration Procedures

After the proposal was approved, the researcher obtained a letter of introduction from the Dean, Faculty of Education and Humanities, Gulu University.

The questionnaire was pretested with five to ten subject-matter experts, who read and answered the items and pointed out any that were confusing or offensive. The documentary review guide was also shared with the experts, who marked unclear items (Mohammed, Suzari, & Faruq-Muhammad, 2023). Their feedback was used to revise the instruments before the final copies were printed.

Respondents filled in the questionnaires in staff rooms, offices and other convenient places during their free time, and the questionnaires were collected 14 days after issue. The researcher reviewed documents in the quality assurance departments of the four institutions. Data were collected between September and October 2024. Respondents were informed of their rights and that participation was voluntary. Delays caused by bureaucracy were reduced by making appointments early with the relevant authorities.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

The ethical issues considered were informed consent, privacy, confidentiality and anonymity of respondents.

To obtain informed consent, the researcher explained the purpose, objectives and significance of the study and how the data would be handled before giving respondents a consent form (Herselman & Botha, 2020). Respondents were assured that their information would be treated in strict confidence and used for the study only.

To maintain confidentiality, the researcher did not share any information from respondents with third parties (Herselman & Botha, 2020).

Anonymity was ensured by using codes instead of names on the instruments, and respondents were contacted individually to ensure privacy (Herselman & Botha, 2020).

3.12 Data Presentation and Analysis

Data entry errors were minimized through validated and double data entry (Kim, 2014). For objectives one and two, questionnaire data were analyzed using descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations), and documentary data using content analysis. For objective three, the Pearson product moment correlation was used to establish the strength and direction of the relationship between education financing and staff development (Kim, 2014). Results are presented in tables.

3.13 Assumptions of the Study

The study assumed that the intervening variables, government policy on education and job requirements, did not significantly influence the results, since they were controlled through triangulation of methods and random selection of respondents.

3.14 Limitations of the Study

The sampling method could have led to over- or under-representation of certain groups of respondents. This was addressed by random selection within strata, which gave every individual an equal chance of participating and reduced systematic bias (Herselman & Botha, 2020).

Data collection was interrupted by institutional activities such as intercollegiate and East African inter-university games. This was overcome by using research assistants.

Limited funds were another challenge. This was managed by using two data collection methods (questionnaire and documentary review) instead of the three proposed, and by seeking financial support from family members.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATIONS

4.0 Introduction

The purpose of the study was to investigate education financing and staff development in public tertiary institutions in Lira City. This chapter presents the findings in narrative and tabular form. It begins with the response rate and the background characteristics of respondents (gender, age, education and work experience), followed by the findings on each research question.

4.1 Response Rate

A total of 103 questionnaires were distributed to administrators and beneficiaries, and 100 were returned. Two were excluded because they were only partly completed. The final sample was therefore 98, a response rate of 95.1% (98/103), which was considered adequate to reduce the risk of non-response bias. In addition, documents were reviewed in the public tertiary institutions under study.

4.2 Background Characteristics of Respondents

The background characteristics of respondents are summarized in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Profile of respondents

Gender		Valid No. (N= 98)	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
	Male	53	53	54.1
	Female	45	45	45.9
	Total	98	98	100
Age	Less than 20 years	5	5	5.1
	20-29 years	15	15	15.3
	30-39 years	26	26	26.5
	Above 40 years	52	52	53.1
	Total	98	98	100
Education	Diploma	3	3	3.1
	Bachelors	55	55	56.1
	Post Graduate	26	26	26.5
	Others	14	14	14.3
	Total	98	98	100
Work Experience	1-3 years	8	8	8.2
	4-6 years	32	32	32.7
	Above 7 years	58	58	59.2
	Total	98	98	100

n=98

Source: Primary data (2024)

Table 4.1 shows that most respondents were male, aged above 40 years, held a bachelor's degree and had worked for more than seven years.

4.3 Research Question One

What was the level of education financing in public tertiary institutions in Lira City? Data were collected using the questionnaire and the documentary review guide. Questionnaire data were analyzed using means and standard deviations (Table 4.3), and the means were interpreted using the legend in Table 4.2, adapted from Hadiyanto et al. (2013).

Table 4.2: Legend for interpretation of the mean

Scale	Range	Interpretation
3	3.80 – 5.00	High
2	2.50 – 3.79	Moderate
1	0.00 – 2.49	Low

Source: Adapted from Hadiyanto et al. (2013).

Table 4.3: Level of education financing in public tertiary institutions in Lira City

Modes of Education financing	Mean value
Government financing	3.46
Donor financing	3.19
Private financing	3.77
Overall mean	3.47

Source: Primary data (2024)

The overall mean of 3.47 in Table 4.3 indicates a moderate level of education financing in public tertiary institutions in Lira City. Government, donor, private and credit financing each contributed only moderately to financing staff development.

This agrees with the documentary evidence, where the strongest theme was insufficient funding linked to low government, private and credit financing. The approved budgets of the institutions provided for only two to three out of 27 staff on average per academic year.

4.4 Research Question Two

What was the level of staff development in public tertiary institutions in Lira City? Data were analyzed using means and standard deviations, and the results are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Level of staff development in public tertiary institutions in Lira City

Staff development programs	Mean value
Mentoring	2.87
Career development	3.12
Peer coaching	2.93
Seminar	2.45
Workshop	3.35
Research undertaking	2.31
Overall mean	2.83

Source: Primary data (2024)

Table 4.4 shows an overall mean of 2.83, which indicates a moderate but weak level of implementation of staff development programs in public tertiary institutions in Lira City. The

programs included mentoring, career guidance, peer coaching, seminars, workshops, course upgrading and staff appraisal.

The documentary review showed that staff mainly participated in mentorship and research. On average, only three out of 27 staff benefited from a staff development program in an academic year, below the expected nine out of 27.

4.5 Research Question Three

The third research question was: What is the relationship between education financing and staff development in public tertiary institutions in Lira City? The Pearson product moment correlation was computed, and the results are summarized in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Pearson Product Moment Correlation co-efficient on the relationship between education financing and staff development.

		Education Financing	Staff Development
Education Financing	Pearson Correlation	1	.885*
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.034
	N	98	98
Staff Development	Pearson Correlation	.885*	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.034	
	N	98	98

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Table 4.5 shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient between education financing and staff development was r = .885.

This indicates a strong positive relationship: as education financing increases, staff development also tends to improve. Institutions that secured more financial resources invested more in staff training and other professional development programs.

The p-value of .034 is below the .05 threshold, so the correlation is statistically significant, meaning the relationship is unlikely to be due to chance. Correlation does not by itself prove that financing causes staff development, but the result supports the view that financing plays an important role. It can help policymakers and institutional leaders justify allocating funds to staff development.

The documentary review revealed low government financing, poorly organized private financing, limited access to donors and low uptake of credit because of high interest rates. These explain why few staff participated in mentorship programs, seminars and workshops. Other reasons were limited government commitment, unwillingness of community and cultural organizations to offer support, and weak lobbying by administrators.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The study set out to determine the level of education financing, the level of staff development and the relationship between the two in public tertiary institutions in Lira City. This chapter discusses the major findings, draws conclusions and makes recommendations.

5.1 Discussion of Findings

5.1.1 Level of education financing. The overall mean of 3.47 and the documentary review both point to a moderate level of education financing in public tertiary institutions in Lira City, mainly because of low government, private and credit financing. Institutional budgets provided for only two to three out of 27 staff on average per year. The documentary review in one institution also showed that only one to two out of every six staff who applied for government scholarships benefited. This is consistent with Nakanyiek et al. (2010), who observed that government funding of higher education is inadequate and often released late, and who encouraged the use of private resources. It also agrees with Chikoko and Mthembu (2020), who found that tertiary institutions in South Africa received less funding than primary and secondary levels, and with Mgaiwa (2018), who found financing of public universities in Tanzania unreliable.

5.1.2 Level of staff development.

The overall mean of 2.83 shows weak staff involvement in staff development programs, and the documentary review showed that staff mainly took part in mentorship and research. Only

about three out of 27 staff benefited from a program in a year, well below the expected nine. This agrees with Parsons et al. (2013), who found that only 37 of 53 planned training programs were practiced, and with Roberts and Iyer (2020), who observed that implementation of mentoring, career guidance, training and peer coaching was limited because of unclear methods of delivery. This suggests that institutions should give attention to all types of staff development programs, not just one or two.

5.1.3 Relationship between education financing and staff development.

Table 4.5 shows a strong positive correlation between education financing and staff development ($r = .885$, $p = .034$). Institutions with more financial resources tend to invest more in staff development. This agrees with Abdulaziz et al. (2020), who found that the TETFund intervention in Nigeria increased staff participation in capacity building, with Nduagu and Saidu (2021), who found a significant positive influence of TETFund on staff development in Abia State, and with Nemma-Abooki (2014), who found a positive correlation in Ugandan public tertiary institutions. The documentary review further showed that low government financing, poorly organized private and donor financing, and limited access to credit explain why few staff took part in mentorship, seminars and workshops.

5.2 Conclusions

The study concludes that the level of education financing in public tertiary institutions in Lira City is moderate and not sufficient to support staff development. Government financing is limited and often delayed, while private, donor and credit financing are poorly developed.

The level of staff development in these institutions is weak. Few staff benefit from staff development programs in any academic year, and participation is concentrated in mentorship and research, with little use of seminars, workshops, course upgrading and peer coaching.

There is a strong positive relationship between education financing and staff development. Institutions that secure more funding are able to involve more staff in development programs, which means that improving financing is central to improving staff development in public tertiary institutions in Lira City.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings, the study makes the following recommendations.

The Ministry of Education and Sports should increase funding for staff development in public tertiary institutions and release grants on time, while institutional administrators should put in place clear accountability mechanisms to build trust among stakeholders.

Public tertiary institutions should plan and budget for a wider range of staff development programs, including seminars, workshops, course upgrading and peer coaching, and should sensitize staff about available opportunities and encourage them to take part.

Public tertiary institutions should diversify their sources of financing by writing funding proposals, lobbying non-governmental organizations and development partners, working with cultural and community organizations, and negotiating affordable credit schemes for staff.

5.4 Areas for Further Research

Further research could examine the relationship between education financing and staff performance in public tertiary institutions, since financing staff development is expected to improve performance. A study covering more institutions across Lango sub-region, or comparing public and private institutions, would also be useful.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Questionnaire

Questionnaire for administrative staff and beneficiaries of staff development programs in public tertiary institutions in Lira City

Dear respondent,

I am Okidi Geoffrey a student of Gulu University pursuing the Master of Education in Education Management course. I am carrying out a research on "Education Financing and Staff Development in Public Tertiary Institutions in Lira City as part of the requirements for the award of the degree". I humbly request you to spare some time and share your opinions by ticking the most suitable alternative. All the information provided will be treated with utmost privacy and confidentiality as this study is purposefully for academics only.

1. PART A: Bio data. Tick the most appropriate alternative for you

a) Gender

- Male ☐ Female ☐

b) Age group

Less than 20 years ☐ 19-29 years ☐ 30-39 year ☐ above 40 years ☐

c) Working experience

- Less than 1 year ☐ 3years ☐ 4-6 Years ☐ 7 years and above ☐

d) Educational level

- Diploma ☐ Bachelor ☐ Postgraduate ☐ Others ☐

2. PART B: The Level of Education Financing in Public Tertiary Institutions in Lira City. Tick the most appropriate alternative using the scale: -

SA(Strongly Agree) =1, A(Agree)=2, NS(Not Sure)=3, D(Disagree)=4, SD(Strongly Disagree)=5

S/No	Statement	SA	A	NS	D	SD
A. Government Financing						
1	The institution receives conditional grants which are used to finance staff-related activities.					
2	Unconditional grants are regularly received by the institution.					
3	Government grants are released to the institution in a timely manner.					
4	Development conditional grants are used for activities considered necessary by the institution, including development-related staff financing.					
5	The government demonstrates commitment to financing education in the institution.					
6	The government monitors the use of grants to ensure compliance and value for money.					
7	The government increases education funding rates from year to year.					
B. Donor Financing						
1	The institution has several donor partners that support its educational activities.					
2	The institution regularly receives funds from donor partners.					
3	Donor partners are committed to providing funds to the institution.					
4	Donors can cost-share training expenses with staff beneficiaries.					

5	Donors monitor the use of grants to ensure compliance and value for money.					
6	Donors require accountability for funds before releasing additional funds.					
7	Conditions are attached to funds provided by donor partners to the institution.					
C. Private Financing						
1	Parents sometimes sell property to enable their sons or daughters to pursue education.					
2	Co-funding by parents and students takes place to meet education expenses.					
3	Some staff members or beneficiaries undertake courses or programmes that they can personally afford to finance.					
4	Community-Based Organizations (CBOs), such as cultural foundations, provide funds for essential educational programmes.					
5	Very needy persons are given priority when CBOs provide bursaries.					

3. PART C: The Level of Staff Development in Public Tertiary Institutions in Lira City. Tick the most appropriate alternative using the scale: -

SA (Strongly Agree) =1, A(Agree) = 2, NS (Not Sure) = 3, D (Disagree) = 4, SD (Strongly Disagree) = 5

S/No.	In my institution, the situation of staff development is as follows:	SA	A	NS	D	SD
A. Mentoring						
1	Staff are guided and directed on what to do in their work.					
2	Junior staff learn from senior and experienced staff.					
3	Mentors assign appropriate tasks to staff as part of their development.					
4	Mentorship is conducted based on the staff member's area of knowledge and expertise.					
5	Positive correction is used as a guiding principle during mentorship.					
B. Career Development						
1	Staff are guided to identify suitable career options.					
2	Staff are supported to make appropriate career decisions.					
3	Career guidance is provided periodically.					
4	Career guidance is conducted by experienced and knowledgeable persons.					
5	Follow-up is conducted after career guidance, such as after two months.					
6	Staff skills are assessed to ensure that their skills remain relevant to their work.					
C. Peer Coaching						

1	Staff collaborate with one another by sharing ideas and teaching each other.					
2	Staff engage in constructive feedback and professional development conversations.					
3	Personal and professional growth of staff is emphasized through peer coaching.					
D. Seminars						
1	Seminars are conducted within the institution at no cost to staff.					
2	Staff attend seminars voluntarily.					
3	The content and timing of seminars are considered when planning them.					
4	Interesting visual materials and activities are used to attract staff attention during seminars.					
5	All staff are given opportunities to present and participate in seminars.					
6	Follow-up activities are conducted by seminar sponsors or facilitators.					
E. Workshops						
1	Staff attend workshops at no cost to themselves.					
2	Staff attend workshops voluntarily.					
3	All staff are given personal attention and an opportunity to express their views during workshops.					

4	Preference is given to staff from the same department or professional field when organizing relevant workshops.					
5	Follow-up activities are conducted by workshop sponsors or facilitators.					
F. Research Undertaking						
1	Staff are allowed to conduct studies in areas that benefit the institution.					
2	Staff are facilitated financially or materially to undertake research studies.					
3	Staff are officially released from their duties when conducting necessary fieldwork for research.					
4	Findings from staff research are used to benefit the institution.					

Thank you for your response!

THE END

Appendix B: Documentary Review guide

Documentary review guide for administrative staff and beneficiaries of staff development programs in public tertiary institutions in Lira City

Dear respondent,

I am Okidi Geoffrey a student of Gulu University pursuing the Master of Education in Education Management course. I am carrying out a research on "Education Financing and Staff Development in Public Tertiary Institutions in Lira City as part of the requirements for the award of the degree". I humbly request you to avail the researcher with the following documents (Budget, Human Resource Manual, Staff Development Policy, Governing Council Minutes and Training opportunities document). All the information obtained will be treated with utmost privacy and confidentiality as this study is purposefully for academics only.

No.	Documents/Information to be Looked At	Description/Information Expected	Yes	No	Comment (Seen/Not Seen)
A	Budget and Funding Allocation				
1	Budget allocation per programme	Budgetary provisions for staff development under different programmes.			
2	Masters programmes	Funds allocated for staff pursuing Master's degree programmes.			
3	Bachelor/Diploma programmes	Funds allocated for staff pursuing Bachelor's or Diploma programmes.			
4	Other capacity-building opportunities	Budget provisions for workshops, seminars, mentorship, peer coaching and other staff development activities.			

B	Human Resource Manual				
5	Recruitment policy requirements	Recruitment requirements and provisions related to staff qualifications and development.			
6	Committee selection criteria	Criteria used for selecting committees responsible for staff development or related activities.			
7	Number of staff enrolled per given period	Records showing the number of staff enrolled for further training or development within a specified period.			
C	Staff Development Policy and Financing				
8	Staff Development Policy Document	Institutional policy governing staff development and capacity building.			
9	Sources of staff development funding	Evidence of government, private, institutional and donor funding sources.			
10	Staff development completion rate	Records showing the number or proportion of staff who successfully completed their programmes.			
11	Memorandum of Understanding/Agreement between staff and sponsor	Signed agreements outlining responsibilities of staff and sponsors during staff development programmes.			
12	Government funding	Records showing government financial support for staff development.			
13	Private funding	Records showing private-sector or individual financial support for staff development.			
14	Donor funding	Records showing financial support provided by donor organizations.			
D	Governing Council/Administrative or Senate Minutes				
15	Approved minutes	Approved Governing Council, administrative or Senate			

		minutes containing decisions on staff development.			
16	Reports on staff completion	Reports showing completion of staff development programmes.			
17	Approved funds allocation	Approved records showing allocation of funds for staff development activities.			
E	Training Opportunities Documents				
18	Training opportunities document	Documents showing available staff training and development opportunities.			
19	Upcoming capacity-building courses	Records of upcoming mentorship, workshops, seminars, peer coaching, career guidance and other staff development programmes.			
20	Staff participation records	Attendance registers or participation records showing staff involvement in development activities.			

Appendix C: Research Work Plan

S/N	ACTIVITY	PERIOD (MONTH) FROM	TO	LEVEL/STATUS
A	DISSERTATION WRITING AND REGISTRATION			
1	Research dissertation writing	January 2019	March 2020	Completed
2	Defense of research dissertation	March 2020	April 2020	Completed
3	Approval of corrected research dissertation	August 2023	September 2023	Upcoming
B	FIELD WORK			
4	Data collection	August 2023	September 2023	Completed
4(a)	Pre-field visits for seeking permission and planning	August 2023	September 2023	Completed
4(b)	Identification and training of research assistants	August 2023	September 2023	Upcoming
4(c)	Interviews and documentary analysis	August 2023	September 2023	Completed
4(d)	Administration of questionnaires and focus group discussions	August 2023	September 2023	Completed
C	DATA PROCESSING AND REPORTING			
5	Data processing and analysis	September 2023	November 2023	Completed
6	Thesis writing	September 2023	November 2024	Completed
7	Submission of thesis	September 2023	November 2024	Upcoming
8	Examination of thesis and Viva voce	April 2025	June 2026	Completed
9	Graduation	January 2027	—	Upcoming

Appendix D: Budget

S/No.	Item	Unit	Qty	Duration (Man-days)	Unit Cost (UGX)
1	Printing Services				
A	Printer	Piece	1		480,000.00
B	Printing paper	Carton	20		60,000.00
C	Printer cartridge (HP LaserJet P2055d – 05A)	Piece	8		240,000.00
D	Reprography costs: photocopying, scanning, etc.	Lump sum			
2	Storage Devices				
A	External storage devices: CDs	Piece	10		3,000.00
B	External backup (100 GB)	Piece	1		250,000.00
3	Communication				
A	Airtime (Internet modem)	500 MB	60		25,000.00
B	Mailing costs	Mail piece	200		1,000.00
4	Thesis Writing				
A	Secretarial costs	Person	1		800,000.00
B	Binding	Copies	7		20,000.00
5	Travel				
A	Field travel: Research assistants	Person	3	30	20,000.00
B	Internal field travel for Principal Investigator (Lira University, Canon Lawrence PTC, UTC Lira–Lira School of Nursing)	Person	1	30	100,000.00
C	External travel for conferences (Lira to Gulu University)	Person	1	1	54,000.00
6	Grand Total				7,484,000.00

Appendix E: Krejcie and Morgan table of sampling determination

N	*S*	*N*	*S*	*N*	*S*
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	384

Note.—*N* is population size. *S* is sample size.

Source: Krejcie & Morgan, 1970

Appendix F: Calculation of CVI (Independent Variable)

Calculation of content validity index (CVI)

CVI = Number of items regarded to be relevant by all judges

Total number of items

Therefore, the total number of items =25, and the number of items regarded as relevant by all Judges = 20 Key: 1 = Relevant, 0= Not relevant

:. CVI = 20/25 = 0.80 The CVI value falls above the acceptable threshold 0.70 as was rated by experts

Variable	Item	Judge A	Judge B	Judge C	Total Relevant
Government financing	1	1	1	1	3
	2	1	1	1	3
	3	1	1	1	3
	4	1	1	1	3
	5	1	0	1	2
	6	1	1	1	3
	7	0	1	1	2
Donor financing	1	1	1	1	3
	2	1	1	1	3
	3	1	1	1	3
	4	1	1	1	3
	5	1	1	1	3
	6	1	1	1	3
	7	1	1	1	3
Private financing	1	1	0	1	2
	2	1	1	1	3
	3	0	1	1	2
	4	1	1	1	3
	5	1	1	1	3
Credit financing	1	1	1	1	3
	2	1	1	1	3
	3	0	1	1	3
	4	0	1	1	2
	5	1	1	1	3
	6	1	1	1	3

Appendix F (Dependent Variable)

Therefore, the total number of items = 29, and the number of items regarded as relevant by all judges = 23

Key: 1 = Relevant, 0= Not relevant

:. CVI = 23/29 = 0.79

Staff development dimension	Item	Reviewer A	Reviewer B	Reviewer C	Total Relevant
Mentoring	1	1	1	1	3
	2	1	1	1	3
	3	1	1	1	3
	4	1	1	1	3
	5	1	0	1	2
Career guidance	1	1	1	1	3
	2	1	1	1	3
	3	1	1	1	3
	4	1	1	1	3
	5	1	1	1	3
	6	1	1	1	3
Peer coaching	1	1	0	1	2
	2	1	1	1	3
	3	0	1	1	2
Seminars	1	1	1	1	3
	2	1	1	1	3
	3	0	1	1	2
	4	0	1	1	2
	5	1	1	1	3
	6	1	1	1	3
Workshops	1	1	1	1	3
	2	1	1	0	2
	3	1	1	1	3
	4	1	1	1	3
	5	1	1	1	3
Upgrading course	1	1	0	1	2
	2	1	1	1	3
	3	1	1	1	3
	4	1	1	1	3
Staff appraisal	1	1	1	1	3
	2	1	1	1	3
	3	1	1	0	2
	4	1	1	1	3

Source: Primary data (2024)

The CVI value falls above the acceptable threshold 0.70 as was rated by experts

Appendix G: ANOVA Analysis (Independent Variable)

The perceived usefulness of Cronbach coefficient as per the data analysis by excel tool park is ά = 0.83 and 0.80 respectively, above the recommended average coefficient value =0.77 (Davis, 1989)

ANOVA

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Rows	47.71429	6	7.952381	2.42029	0.068193	2.661305
Columns	16.85714	3	5.619048	1.710145	0.200649	3.159908
Error	59.14286	18	1.285714			
Total	123.7143	27				
			0.838323			

Source: Davis, (1989) as adopted

ANOVA Analysis (Dependent Variable)

ANOVA

Source of Variation	SS	Df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Rows	27.07143	5	5.914286	2.212062	0.079149	2.533555
Columns	34.57143	6	5.761905	2.834086	0.055494	2.420523
Error	73.42857	30	1.147619			
Total	135.0714	41				
			0.805958			

Source: Davis, (1989) as adopted

Appendix H: Reliability test statistics

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
1	180.45	225.101	0.282	0.891
2	180.51	224.886	0.215	0.833
3	180.34	235.323	0.275	0.801
4	181.67	216.144	0.289	0.808
5	181.39	226.156	0.225	0.815
6	181.46	224.166	0.301	0.819
7	181.56	227.178	0.325	0.825
8	181.57	229.188	0.265	0.893
9	181.98	230.169	0.665	0.835
10	181.08	223.210	0.635	0.841
11	181.71	222.232	0.400	0.852
12	181.62	225.253	0.432	0.855
13	181.62	226.254	0.543	0.863
14	181.66	223.453	0.325	0.868
15	181.65	221.266	0.249	0.874
16	181.66	224.250	0.225	0.895
17	181.67	226.277	0.621	0.885
18	181.50	216.129	0.025	0.805
19	181.69	226.914	0.305	0.896

20	181.27	226.292	0.325	0.815
21	181.67	226.283	0.282	0.800
22	181.72	226.264	0.215	0.801
23	181.73	226.255	0.375	0.808
24	181.74	226.296	0.389	0.815
25	181.71	226.657	0.445	0.819
26	181.76	226.298	0.321	0.824
27	181.77	226.564	0.325	0.831
28	181.78	226.365	0.263	0.835
29	181.79	226.377	0.665	0.841
30	181.86	226.302	0.635	0.852
31	181.81	226.303	0.330	0.852
32	181.56	226.214	0.282	0.863
33	181.63	216.565	0.215	0.865
34	181.74	226.767	0.275	0.874
35	181.71	226.337	0.249	0.895
36	181.75	226.217	0.225	0.885
37	181.76	226.278	0.311	0.805
38	181.88	226.544	0.327	0.888

Appendix I: Data on Level of Education Financing

Government financing	Mean	Std. Deviation
Institution receives conditional grants	3.53	1.177
Unconditional grants are received	3.91	1.046
Grants are sent timely	3.24	1.527
Development grants are used	2.97	1.304
Government demonstrates commitment	3.76	1.140
Government monitors grants	4.12	.900
Government increases funding rates	2.68	1.259
Average mean	3.46	
Donor financing		
Institutions have got many donors	2.24	1.026
Institutions regularly receives donor funds	3.23	1.322
Donor partners are committed	2.44	1.094
Donors cost share training expenses	3.09	1.378
Donors monitors grants	3.71	1.218
Donors requires accountability	4.14	.931
Strings and ties attached on funds	3.54	1.371
Average mean	3.19	
Private financing		
Parents sells properties for fees	4.08	.795
Co-funding between parents and students	3.77	.972

Source: Primary data (2024)

Doing a course which you have ability to pay	4.06	.917
CBOs offers funds	3.57	1.094
Needy persons benefit more than others	3.39	1.249
Average mean	3.77	
Credit financing	Mean	Std. Deviation
Availability of loan schemes enables more to enrolled	2.09	1.325
Increase in loan amount enables more to enroll	3.90	1.377
Loan capacity enables one to complete studies	2.97	1.320
Loans are readily available for borrowing	2.91	.788
Loan conditions are favorable	2.79	.944
Financing board ensures compliance	3.17	1.285
Average mean	2.97	
Overall mean	3.47	

Appendix J: Collected Data on level of Staff Development

Staff development practice	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mentoring		
Staff are guided on what to do	3.66	1.157
Junior staff learns from senior staff	3.13	1.224
Mentors sign tasks	2.69	1.205
Mentorship is done based on area of knowledge	3.11	1.421
Positive correction is the guiding principle	2.19	1.062
Average mean	2.33	
Career guidance		
Staff are guided	2.58	1.428
Staff make career decisions easily	2.38	1.240
Career guidance is done periodically	2.48	1.096
Career guidance is conducted by experienced persons	2.27	1.070
Skills assessment of staff is conducted	3.21	1.229
Average mean	2.58	
Peer coaching		
Collaboration with other people takes place	2.38	1.070
Staff are engaged in constructive feedback	2.27	0.980
Personal professional growth of staff is most preferred	2.52	1.364
Average mean	2.39	
Seminars		

Seminar is conducted at school at no cost	2.59	1.525
Seminar attendance is by choice	3.81	0.808
Seminar contents and time are considered	2.50	1.058
Interesting and visual activities are used	2.55	1.430
All staff present and participate in seminars	2.84	1.266
Follow-up is done by sponsors	3.18	1.287
Average mean	2.91	
Workshops		
Attendance is conducted at no cost	2.97	1.188
Attendance is by choice	3.42	1.243
Personal attention and chance to be heard is given to staff	2.78	1.231
Preference is given to departmental staff	3.27	1.313
Follow-up is done by sponsors	3.84	0.742
Average mean	3.81	
Upgrading courses		
Staff are allowed to make their choices	3.38	1.256
Staff are given additional training	2.53	1.310
Staff are released officially from their duties	3.13	1.232
Trained staff bring positive changes	2.91	1.253
Average mean	2.99	
Staff appraisal		
Work performance of staff is evaluated	3.41	1.101
Institutions get feedback about employees	3.44	1.340

Institutional goals are to be achieved	2.86	1.260
Staff are given necessary support	3.27	1.320
Average mean	3.25	
Overall mean	2.83	